

ISBN 978-621-96852-1-4

PO 52.06

LC 88.01



THE TRANSFORMATION OF DIGITAL TECHNOLOGY: ITS IMPACT ON HUMAN COMMUNICATION

Azahar Kasim, Azman Bidin, Desi Dwi Priyanti, Dian Tamitadini, Fariza Yuniar Rakhmawati, Fitri Hariana Oktaviani, Fitria Avicenna, Ika Rizki Yustisia, Isma Adila, Lisa Adhrianti, Maulina Pia Wulandari, Mokhtarudin Ahmad, Nia Ashton Destrity, Nilam Wardasari, Nurzalyna Mohd Zaki, Rachmat Kriyantono, Reza Safitri, Verdy Firmatoro, Yun Fitrihyati Laturrakhmi

The Transformation of Digital Technology: Its Impact on Human Communication

Editors:

Desi Dwi Priyanti (Indonesia)

Ika Rizki Yustisia (Indonesia)

Naqiyah Mulachelah (Indonesia)

Copyright©(2023) All rights reserved.

No part of this book chapter may be reproduced or used in any manner without the prior written permission of the copyright owner, except for the use of brief quotations. To request permissions, contact the publisher at

(editor.ijmaber@futuresciencepress.com)

E-Book: 978-621-96852-1-4

by: FSH-PH Publications #72 Salang Street,
Matain, Subic, Zambales, Philippines

<https://fsh-publication.com/public>

Contributor's Biography

Azahar Kasim, School of Multimedia Technology and Communication (SMMTC), Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM), Kedah, Malaysia

Azman Bidin, Faculty of Language Studies and Human Development, Universiti Malaysia Kelantan, Malaysia

Azizun Kurnia Illahi, Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science, Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

Desi Dwi Priyanti, Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science, Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

Dian Tamitiadini, Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science, Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

Fariza Yuniar Rakhmawati, Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science, Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

Fitri Hariana Oktaviani, Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science, Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

Fitria Avicenna, Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science, Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

Ika Rizki Yustisia, Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science, Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

Isma Adila, Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science, Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

Lisa Adhrianti, Faculty of Social and Political Sciences, University Bengkulu, Indonesia

Maulina Pia Wulandari, Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science, Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

Mokhtarudin Ahmad, Faculty of Applied Communication, Multimedia University (MMU), Selangor, Malaysia

Naqiyah Mulachelah, Biology Department, Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Science, Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

Nia Ashton Destrity, Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science, Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

Nilam Wardasari, Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science, Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

Nurzalya Mohd Zaki, School of Government (SOG), Universiti Utara Malaysia, Kedah, Malaysia

Rachmat Kriyantono, Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science, Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

Reza Safitri, Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science, Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

Verdy Firmatoro, Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science, Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

Yun Fitrahyati Laturrakhmi, Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science, Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

Contents

1. Preliminary Research on Indonesian Public Relations Practitioners’ Digital Skills and Competencies during Digital Technology Transformation	1
Maulina Pia Wulandari	
2. Leadership Communication in Crisis: Study of COVID-19 Pandemic at National and Local Level	28
Fitri Hariana Oktaviani, Yun Fitrahyati Laturrahmi, Rachmat Kriyantono	
3. Public Relation Campaign on Social Media.....	51
Nilam Wardasari	
4. Online Media Activism and Political Participation of Urban Young Adults in Indonesia.....	68
Isma Adila, Ika Rizki Yustisia, Fitria Avicenna	
5. Youngsters and Main Information Source in The Pandemic Era.....	87
Reza Safitri	
6. Countering Misinformation on Indonesian Digital Media Through Islamic Perspective	112
Fariza Yuniar Rakhmawati and Nia Ashton Destrity	
7. Strategic News Framing in Government Policy: Editors Perspectives in Malaysia.....	135
Azahar Kasim, Mokhtarudin Ahmad, Azman Bidin, Lisa Adhrianti, and Nurzalyna Mohd Zaki	
8. Media Activism, Cultural Industry & Political Criticism Propaganda.....	162
Verdy Firmantoro	
9. Educational Messages to Combat COVID-19 Misinformation on Instagram	186

Nia Ashton Destrity

- 10. Designing Risk Communication Strategy on Social Media for Disaster Risk Reduction in Community Based Tourism.....226**

Dian Tamitiadini

- 11. Utilization of Social Media as a Support Group to Support Chronic Disease Patients in The Endemic Era248**

Azizun Kurnia Illahi

About the Editors

Desi Dwi Prianti is currently an Associate Professor at Communication Department, Faculty of Social and Political Sciences, Brawijaya University, Malang. She has published numerous journal on gender, media, and cultural studies. Her research interests include study of men and masculinity in contemporary Indonesia. Since 2012 she has been engaged in research on the topic of contemporary societal change in Indonesia, focusing on the effect of modernization, media portrayal, gender relations with specific emphasis on the post-colonial experience. She also works as corresponding author for CCFS (Centre for Culture and Frontier Studies), Brawijaya University.

Ika Rizki Yustisia is currently a lecturer at Communication Department, Faculty of Social and Political Sciences, Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia. Her research interests on journalism, social media, and gender studies, include the usage of sentiment analysis to measure public opinion towards political actors social media posts on Instagram. Ika has published a book titled the use of reception analysis on media and gender studies. She also currently works as member of faculty's journal administrator.

Naqiyah Mulachelah is an editor, content writer, and part-time research assistant. She has four years of experience as an editor of international scientific publications. She finished her Master's degree in 2021 at Brawijaya University. As an editor, her passion lies in paying meticulous attention to detail and maintaining dedication to upholding the highest quality standards. She firmly believes that publishing written works is a unique human practice, allowing us to leave behind a valuable legacy. She is thrilled to be part of this endeavor, where knowledge is transformed into a timeless resource, enriching the academic journey of the readers.

List of Figures

Fig. 1.1 Personal’s Account Social Media Ability. Source: Authors 11

Fig. 1.2 Organization’s Account Social Media Ability. Source: Authors 12

Fig. 1.3 Digital Fluency Skill. Source: Authors 13

Fig. 1.4 Digital Data Analytic Competency. Source: Authors..... 14

Fig 5.1 The Most Used Social Media Platform in Indonesia. Source: We Are Social and Meltwater data January 2023..... 101

Fig. 9.1 Example of educational messages on the Instagram account. Source: @kemenkes_ri (February 7, 2020, July 22, 2020)..... 197

Fig. 9.2 Example of educational messages on the Instagram account @kemenkes_ri. Source: Instagram account @kemenkes_ri (June 28, 2021)..... 198

Fig. 9.3 Example of educational messages on the Instagram account @kemenkes_ri. Source: Instagram account @kemenkes_ri (May 7, 2020, June 25, 2020) 199

Fig. 9.4 Example of educational messages on the Instagram account @kemenkes_ri. Source: Instagram account @kemenkes_ri (April 27, 2020)..... 201

Fig. 9.5 Example of educational messages to prevent panic due to COVID-19 in the form of an infographic on the Instagram account @tirtoid. Source: Instagram account @tirtoid (March 12, 2020)..... 203

Fig. 9.6 Example of educational messages to correct recovery rates in the form of infographic on the Instagram account @tirtoid. Source: Instagram account @tirtoid (October 23, 2020) 204

Fig. 9.7 Example of educational messages to correct the claimed benefits of ginger concoctions as COVID-19 medication in the form of infographic on the Instagram account @tirtoid. Source: Instagram account @tirtoid (March 18, 2020)..... 205

Fig. 9.8 Example of educational messages related to questioning the validity of health information in the form of infographic on the Instagram account @tirtoid. Source: Instagram account @tirtoid (March 22, 2020)..... 206

Fig. 9.9 Example of educational messages related to the decrease in COVID-19 positive cases in the form of infographic on the Instagram account @tirtoid. Source: Instagram account @tirtoid (November 7, 2020)207

Fig 9.10	Example of educational messages infographics titled "Faktanya" on the Instagram account @tirtoid. Source: Instagram account @tirtoid (September 29, 2020, November 6, 2020)	208
Fig. 9.11	Example of educational messages related to conspiracy adherents and the dangers of anti-vaccine content on the Instagram account @tirtoid. Source: Instagram account @tirtoid (February 6, 2021, July 15, 2021).....	209
Fig. 9.12	Example of educational messages infographics related to claims about COVID-19 drugs on the Instagram account @tirtoid. Source: Instagram account @tirtoid (August 20, 2020).....	210
Fig. 9.13	Example of educational messages infographics Periksa Fakta on the Instagram account @tirtoid. Source: Instagram account @tirtoid (July 10, 2021).....	211
Fig. 9.14	Example of educational messages infographics related to regulation on the Instagram account @tirtoid. Source: Instagram account @tirtoid (July 15, 2021).....	211
Fig. 9.16	Example of educational messages infographics related to pseudoscience on the Instagram account @pandemictalks. Source: Instagram account @pandemictalks (October 14, 2020, May 1, 2021)	215
Fig. 9.17	Example of educational messages infographics on the Instagram account @pandemictalks. Source: Instagram account @pandemictalks (October 27, 2020)	216
Fig. 9.18	Example of educational messages infographics on the Instagram account @pandemictalks. Source: Instagram account @pandemictalks (October 27, 2020, June 20, 2021)	217
Fig. 9.19	Example of educational messages in the form of narrative on the Instagram account @pandemictalks. Source: Instagram account @pandemictalks (July 18, 2021).....	219
Fig. 9.20	Example of educational messages on the Instagram account @pandemictalks. Source: Instagram account @pandemictalks (April 15, 2021).....	219
Fig. 10.1	Risk Mapping Quadrant. Source: Graham (2008)	235
Fig. 10.2	CBT Risk Mapping. Source: Research Interview (2023)	235

Fig. 10.3	Illustration of risk messages in Tourist Attractions. Source: Pratama (2021)	243
Fig. 11.1	Important Elements in Defining Communication. Source: West & Turner (2019)	251
Fig. 11.2	Support Exchange with Instrumental Support. Source: Illahi (2022)	262
Fig. 11.3	Support exchange with the type of informational support (cognitive). Source: Illahi (2022).....	263

List of Tables

Table 1.1 Frequency of Organizational Digital Operational Competency 9

Table 1.2 Frequency of Information Management Competency..... 10

Table 2.1 Data Sources within three Discursive Strands..... 38

Table 2.2 Key Communication Frames in Three Discursive Strands 39

Table 2.3 Communication themes from local leaders' interviews..... 44

Table 4.1 Millennial Generation Political Activities in Social Media..... 73

Table 5.1 Descriptive Demographic Age Characteristics of Indonesian Society
..... 98

Table 5.2 Media Used to Find COVID-19 Information 99

Table 5.3 Social Media Users in Indonesia 100

Table 5.4 Key Descriptive Information Sources 102

Table 8.1 Songs of Resistance..... 165

Table 8.2 SID Song Lyrics 171

Table 11.1 Health Communication Definitions..... 252

Preliminary Research on Indonesian Public Relations Practitioners' Digital Skills and Competencies during Digital Technology Transformation

1

Maulina Pia Wulandari

Abstract

The present state of global growth, which is now focused on the process of digitalization and the establishment of information technology networks, has emerged as a fundamental component within the realm of Public Relations professionals. The field of Public Relations has seen significant transformation via digitalization as practitioners have adapted their strategies to meet the increasing needs and expectations of stakeholders. Incorporating digital communication platforms, big data, and Artificial Intelligence (AI) has necessitated Public Relations practitioners to acquire a thorough proficiency in a new array of digital abilities. The primary objective of this preliminary research was to examine the digital skills and competencies shown by public relations practitioners in Indonesia. A quantitative research method was undertaken to investigate the implementation of Digital Public Relations in Indonesia, with surveys as the primary technique of data collecting. The study included participation from many public relations practitioners from diverse organizations as survey respondents. The study revealed that the emergence of Digital Public Relations, together with its accompanying technological advancements, has facilitated the tasks of Public Relations professionals, hence potentially enhancing their efficiency and productivity. Furthermore, many Public Relations professionals in Indonesia have already acquired the necessary knowledge and skills in digital public relations. In addition to possessing knowledge and competencies in Digital Public Relations, it is observed that a significant number of Public Relations practitioners lack practical skills in analyzing the vast amount of data pertaining to their organizations on the internet and other social media platforms.

Keywords

Digital analysis skill and competencies · Preliminary research · Public relations practitioners

M. P. Wulandari

Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science,
Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia
e-mail: m.wulandari@ub.ac.id

as
is,

including public relations practices. The internet and digital technology have a significant influence on the methods by which public relations establish connections and interact with stakeholders. Furthermore, they bring about a transformation in the manner in which organizational stakeholders get information and engage in communication with organizations (Christ, 2007). Pavlik's study (2007) on the influence of internet technology on public relations revealed that the development of the internet has resulted in a heightened expectation from the public that organizations engage in two-way communication. As a result, organizations are advised to enhance their engagement and communication strategies with the public.

Moore and Hübscher (2021) contend that public relations practitioners should accord the Internet and online communication major importance in their efforts to engage with the public. The emergence of the internet has presented Public Relations professionals with distinct options to gather information, monitor issues and public sentiment, and actively engage in diverse conversations with their target audiences (McAllister & Taylor, 2007). McAllister and Taylor (2007) argue that the ubiquity of the internet has necessitated that experts in the field of public relations place a higher emphasis on the quality of the material they produce. This emphasis ensures that the information they distribute is both precise and dependable, therefore instilling confidence in the public. Nevertheless, it is essential to acknowledge that digital communication technology may sometimes have adverse consequences for public relations. In an era characterized by widespread internet connectivity and the prevalence of social media platforms, individuals possess ready access to information, enabling them to swiftly transmit it to others before its official release by organizations (Whatmough, 2018). Furthermore, the organization is currently missing the power to regulate the public's expression of opinions sent to it either directly or through its own social media platforms (Moore & Hübscher,

2021). Therefore, it is now indisputable that digital communication technology serves as a tool and plays an essential role in enhancing communication between an organization and its public.

In recent years, the field of public relations has garnered significant interest from both researchers and practitioners due to its exploration of digitalization, big data, and artificial intelligence (AI). According to Wolf and Archer (2018), the field of public relations has seen a significant shift from the traditional age to the digital era. The revolution has brought about significant changes in the roles, duties, and responsibilities of public relations practitioners, transitioning from the Public Relations 1.0 period to the present Public Relations 4.0 era (Arief & Saputra, 2019). Public Relations 1.0 is often regarded as the traditional era of public relations. During this period, printed media served as the predominant method for distributing information. During this period of Public Relations 1.0, communication was characterized by a unidirectional flow, primarily vertical, originating from a singular entity, namely the media company, and directed towards a diverse audience.

The advancement of time saw the rise of new media, which bolstered the field of public relations and marked the advent of public relations 2.0. According to Arief and Saputra (2019), in the contemporary age, there has been a notable transition in communication techniques towards horizontal communication. This movement has facilitated connectivity and interaction among public relations professionals, organizations, and the wider public. During the period known as Public Relations 3.0, the appearance of social media platforms led to their adoption by practitioners in the field. During this period, social media was widely used and favored as a communication tool, not only among public relations practitioners but also among the general populace. The Public Relations 3.0 period was marked by a notable transformation in journalism, including conventional journalism carried out by media companies and citizen journalism.

The contemporary era of public relations is sometimes referred to as Public Relations 4.0 when the integration of big data and artificial intelligence (AI) is seen alongside pre-existing media platforms. According to Kelleher (2018), the rise of internet connectivity has facilitated the ability of public relations practitioners to participate in interactive communication, allowing for a two-way exchange between organizations and the public. In the time of Public Relations 4.0, public

relations professionals face competition not just from their peers but also from automated systems. Big data and AI can generate press releases, manage calendars, and even forecast future events and strategic initiatives for an organization (Arief & Saputra, 2019).

The examination of the impact of big data and AI on public relations practices has been a subject of scholarly investigation within the academic community throughout the last half-decade. In prior research conducted by Panda, Upadhyay, and Khandelwal (2019), it was shown that AI-enabled systems have the capability to promptly generate answers on social media platforms on behalf of clients while also effectively handling crises. AI has the potential for public relations professionals to optimize their time allocation by automating routine tasks such as generating media lists, coordinating meetings, and dispatching follow-up emails. The utilization of AI in mass personalization and customization is enhancing the efficacy of public relations endeavors. They argue that it remains premature to definitively determine the extent to which AI will function as a strategic disruptor within the public relations sector. In addition, the study suggests that public relations professionals and researchers may use the information to inform their decision-making process on potential investments in AI technologies and solutions.

A study conducted by Alawaad (2021) in Turkey reported that AI has proven beneficial for public relations, particularly in fostering and strengthening consumer connections. The application of AI in public relations facilitates a more profound comprehension of consumer behavior and enables the identification of underlying factors contributing to issues within customer relationships. This action is achieved by applying advanced analytics techniques, such as extensive data analysis and machine learning algorithms. The use of extensive data analysis yields significant benefits for the field of public relations, enabling the provision of practical solutions and the formulation of marketing and public relations plans with enhanced precision and efficiency.

Jeljeli, Farhi, and Zahra (2022) conducted a quantitative study that revealed that public relations had a significant impact on AI. This finding suggests Emirati banks have extensively incorporated artificial intelligence systems into their customers' support systems. The impact of artificial intelligence on reputation management continues to be substantial, underscoring the significance of AI in enhancing business reputation. The

research suggests that integrating artificial intelligence into public relations practices has a beneficial effect on the management of reputation.

In the Indonesian context, the topic of the application of current digital communication technology to public relations practices has also been studied by some Indonesian scholars in the last five years (Abdul et al., 2023; Gusri et al., 2020; Nugraha et al., 2022; Putra, 2021; Supada, 2021). For example, according to a study conducted by Dunan and Mudjiyanto (2020), it is evident that the Ministry of Communications and Information of the Republic of Indonesia has a substantial need for the integration of Big Data Analytics and AI inside its governmental public relations communication strategies. Two strategies, namely content automation and digital storytelling, are often used via the utilization of Big Data Analytics and AI. The research furthermore demonstrates the need for government authorities to own AI and big data analytics solutions in order to execute their communication initiatives effectively. Regrettably, a considerable number of public relations officers within the Ministry of Communications and Information of the Republic of Indonesia exhibit deficiencies in their proficiency in data analysis and data learning. Consequently, there is a pressing demand for public relations officials who possess expertise in digital data analysis.

Within the realm of corporate public relations in Indonesia, research done by Ananda, Sultan, and Karnay (2022) study demonstrates that the integration of big data and AI has yielded three significant advantages for practitioners in this field. These advantages include an augmented knowledge base, enhanced capacity to stay abreast of prevailing trends, and cultivating creativity. Public relations practitioners need to possess proficient digital literacy skills to enhance their knowledge acquisition. This step entails actively acquiring information about the applications of AI and Big Data Analytics. By doing so, professionals may effectively address the need for precise data when formulating corporate communication strategies. Public relations practitioners are obligated to stay abreast of advancements in the digital realm, particularly in the realm of social media platforms that are widely adopted and regularly used by the general populace. Furthermore, the increasing availability of diverse AI applications has facilitated the generation of messages and the monitoring of public sentiment, leading to a heightened level of creativity in public relations. This creativity is evident in developing key messages

and the strategic selection of media platforms, ensuring that the intended messages are effectively disseminated and aligned with the company's desired reception by the general public.

A study by Suciati, Maulidiyanti, and Wiwesa (2021) showed that Indonesian public relations professionals were eager to use AI in their work, mainly when writing press releases. Compiling a news release might present challenges for some public relations practitioners. The PR Boot program is widely regarded as a valuable tool for efficiently creating press releases. The study identified several challenges encountered by public relations professionals in the composition of press releases, including issues related to writing technique, the use of technical language specific to the corporate domain, technical problems with email communication with media outlets, the number of press releases to be produced, the acquisition of source material, the determination of critical messages and writing angles, the filing of press releases, the acquisition of research data to support writing, delays in obtaining approval from top management, and the number of press releases published in the media. The use of AI applications, such as PR Boot, has provided public relations practitioners with a sense of ease and efficiency in generating press releases within a condensed timeframe, thereby alleviating the stress often associated with this task.

According to Türksoy (2022), artificial intelligence (AI) offers several benefits to public relations practitioners. Firstly, AI has the potential to enhance the efficiency of public relations activities, enabling professionals to make data-driven and trend-based decisions rather than relying solely on intuition (Peterson, 2019). Secondly, AI can assist in gaining insights into consumer preferences, purchasing behaviors, and habits, thereby aiding public relations efforts. Lastly, AI can confer a competitive advantage, enabling public relations firms to deliver improved or cost-effective services. However, several scholars have highlighted various challenges that public relations may encounter in the context of artificial intelligence (AI) and big data. These challenges include the need for public relations professionals to possess digital literacy skills (Cismaru et al., 2018; Galloway & Swiatek, 2018; Permatasari et al., 2021), competence in data analysis, social media management, influencer marketing, and content creation (Arief & Gustomo, 2020; Permatasari et al., 2021), as well

as a thorough understanding of AI tools, systems, and programs (Virmani & Gregory, 2021).

There is a limitation to research examining the proficiencies and capabilities of public relations professionals in effectively navigating advancements in digital technology. This scarcity is particularly evident in the context of Indonesia. In a prior study done by Cismaru et al. (2018) in the United States, findings revealed that students specializing in public relations in the USA during the year 2018 exhibited proficiency in digital fluency, particularly in operational and informational digital abilities. Nevertheless, this research lacks an examination of the skill and competency of American public relations practitioners in digital fluency.

In the year 2021, the Chartered Institute of Public Relations (CIPR) conducted surveys to assess the level of preparedness in the domains of artificial intelligence (AI) and big data among public relations practitioners who were assigned to public relations associations in Australia, the United States, South Africa, and Kenya (Virmani & Gregory, 2021). The research findings indicated that a significant proportion of participants, namely 43.2%, had a diminished degree of self-assurance about their proficiency in digital skills. Furthermore, 13.2% of participants expressed a sense of ease while using artificial intelligence in their professional endeavors. Additionally, the study observed that nearly all participants expressed a dearth of knowledge regarding artificial intelligence and big data within public relations positions.

To date, no scholarly study has examined the proficiency and aptitude of public relations practitioners in Indonesia in response to the advancements in digital communication technology inside their professional domain. Hence, doing preliminary research is of utmost significance to get a comprehensive understanding of the digital skills and competencies of Indonesian public relations professionals. The primary objective of this preliminary research was to examine the digital skills and competencies shown by public relations practitioners in Indonesia.

1.2 Research Methodology

The present study used quantitative research methodologies in its pilot phase. The research aimed to assess the level of knowledge and competence pertaining to digital fluency among public relations practitioners in Indonesia by constructing a survey questionnaire. Up to the time of this article's presentation, the research has included a sample of fifty-five Indonesian public relations practitioners representing a diverse range of roles and companies. The data-gathering procedure was executed in May 2022 using Google Forms and disseminated over WhatsApp Messenger to a cohort of Indonesian public relations organizations recognized as PERHUMAS.

This preliminary investigation examined five dimensions of digital capabilities and competencies: organizational digital operational skills, information management skills, strategic social media skills, and digital fluency skills developed by (Cismaru et al., 2018), alongside digital data analytics competencies constructed during the present research. Since the data of the survey questionnaire was ordinal, this study used statistic descriptive to analyze data gathered from the survey questionnaire.

1.3 Results and Discussion

The following findings are categorized according to the subject areas addressed in the survey. The study concludes by including demographic data, which can be found in Appendix 1.

1.3.1 Organizational Digital Operational Competence

The proliferation of technological advancements in contemporary society has necessitated individuals to possess proficiency in operating auxiliary devices, including computers, smartphones, and several other electronic gadgets. Table 1.1 displays the survey component that evaluates operational competence.

Table 1.1 Frequency of Organizational Digital Operational Competency

Indicators	Frequency	
	Yes	No
Having the knowledge in operating computers (laptop or PC), smartphone, and tablet	100%	0%
Doing content planning for my organization's website	76.4%	23.6%
Creating content on the main page of my organization's website	54.5%	45.5%
Creating content on the section page of my organization's website	52.7%	47.3%
Creating content in the news article page of my organization's website	74.5%	25.5%
Answering inquiries from the public in my organization's website	58.2%	41.8%
Documenting and archiving all organizational data digitally	72.7%	27.3%
Monitoring the public interaction on the internet and social media platforms	85.5%	14.5%

Source: Data analysis results

According to the findings presented in Table 1.1, the respondents possess the requisite knowledge and competencies to use digital communication technologies effectively. The data reveals that the participants exhibit competence in using digital communication tools, implying their successful adjustment to the dynamic realm of communication technology. Digital communication tools comprise various communication channels, such as email, social networking, instant messaging, video conferencing, and content management systems. The use of these technologies demonstrates the competence of the participants in effectively using digital platforms for a range of communication objectives, including the distribution of information, interaction with relevant parties, maintenance of their online image, and facilitation of virtual gatherings.

1.3.2 Information Management Competence

The second skill investigated in this study is information management, specifically focusing on the capacity to handle digital information effectively. The findings of this portion of the questionnaire are shown in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2 Frequency of Information Management Competency

Indicators	Frequency	
	Yes	No
Have ability to search information on the internet and various social media platforms effectively by using the features of keywords, hashtags, and mentions	98.2%	1.8%
Have ability to manage the information obtained from the internet and various social media platforms to help my PR tasks	96.4%	3.6%
Have ability to critically assess the validity of the information obtained from the internet and various social media platforms	85.5%	14.5%

Source: Data analysis results

Table 1.2 presents evidence indicating that the public relations practitioners who participated in this research have effectively acquired the skills of information mining and management. Many participants assert their proficiency in efficiently retrieving information from the internet and other social media platforms via keywords, hashtags, and mentions. Most participants assert their ability to effectively handle information acquired through the internet and other social media platforms, enhancing their professional endeavors. Furthermore, an overwhelming majority of the participants, almost 100 percent, asserted their capability to critically evaluate the credibility of information acquired through the internet and other social media platforms.

1.3.3 Strategic Social Media Ability

One of the digital talents that requires analysis is strategic social media skills, which pertains to the proficiency of public relations professionals in

effectively managing personal social media accounts as well as organizational social media accounts. The results of the proficiency in maintaining personal social media accounts are shown in Figure 1.1. The outcomes regarding the proficiency in managing corporate social media accounts are illustrated in Figure 1.2.

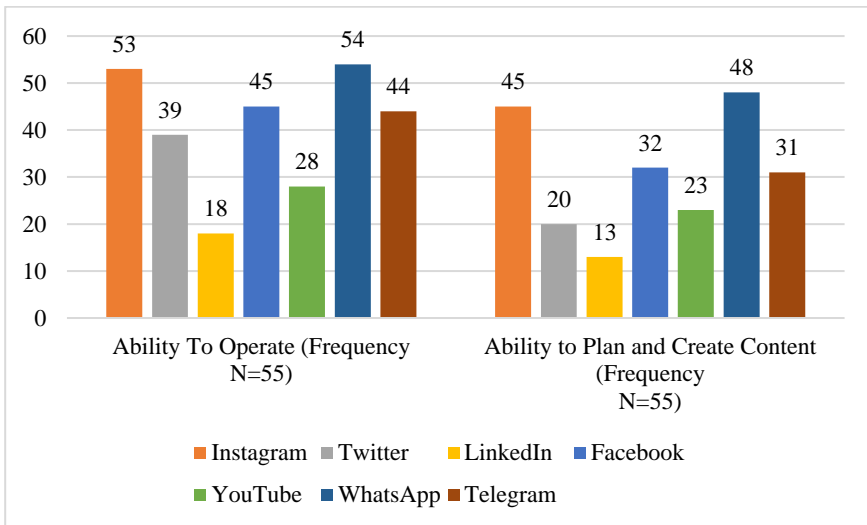


Fig. 1.1 Personal's Account Social Media Ability. Source: Authors

According to Figure 1.1, it can be seen that the participants possess a general proficiency in using personal accounts on various social media sites. A majority of the participants, over 70 percent, can manage their own profiles on various social media platforms such as WhatsApp, Instagram, Twitter, Facebook, and Telegram. Only 50 percent of the overall participants possess the ability to manage a personal YouTube account, while less than 25 percent are capable of operating a LinkedIn account. Moreover, Figure 1 illustrates that individuals often possess the capacity to strategize and generate content on their social media platforms. A significant majority of the participants, namely over 70 percent, possess the ability to strategize and generate content on Instagram and WhatsApp. In contrast, the range of participants capable of doing so on Facebook and Telegram falls between 50 percent and 65 percent. However, a minority of participants, namely fewer than 50 percent, can engage in the process of

strategizing and generating content on platforms such as YouTube and LinkedIn.

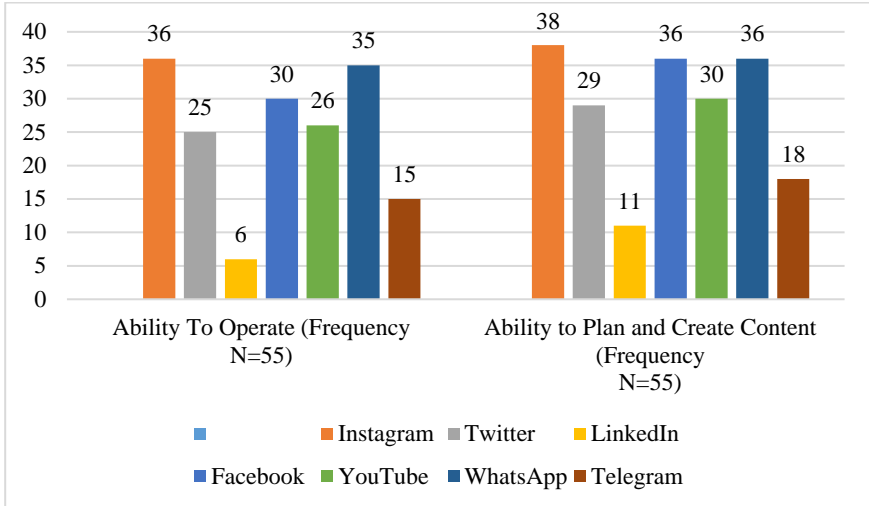


Fig. 1.2 Organization's Account Social Media Ability. Source: Authors

Figure 1.2 suggests that participants, on the whole, are competent enough to manage a social media platform under the control of an organization. A majority of the participants, over 60 percent, possess the capability to manage organizational accounts such as WhatsApp, Instagram, and Facebook. Conversely, fewer than half of the participants, specifically those with the capacity to operate YouTube, Telegram, and Twitter, fall below the 50 percent threshold. Furthermore, a mere 11 percent of the participants demonstrated proficiency in managing a LinkedIn account. While individuals may have access to an organization's social media platform, their capacity to strategize and provide content may not be inherent. Figure 2 demonstrates that, overall, participants possess the capacity to strategize and provide content for an organization's dedicated social media platform. A majority of the participants, over 70 percent, can strategize and generate content across various social media platforms such as Instagram, Twitter, Facebook, and WhatsApp. Additionally, ranging from 50 percent to 65 percent, the participants exhibit proficiency in content creation, specifically on Twitter and YouTube. However, a minority of participants, precisely fewer than 50

percent, can effectively strategize and generate content on platforms such as Telegram and LinkedIn.

1.3.4 Digital Fluency Skill

This research investigates the concept of digital fluency by evaluating the level of socio-emotional engagement shown by participants in their professional endeavors as well as their strategies for managing and responding to public comments. The findings of this portion of the questionnaire are shown in Figure 1.3.

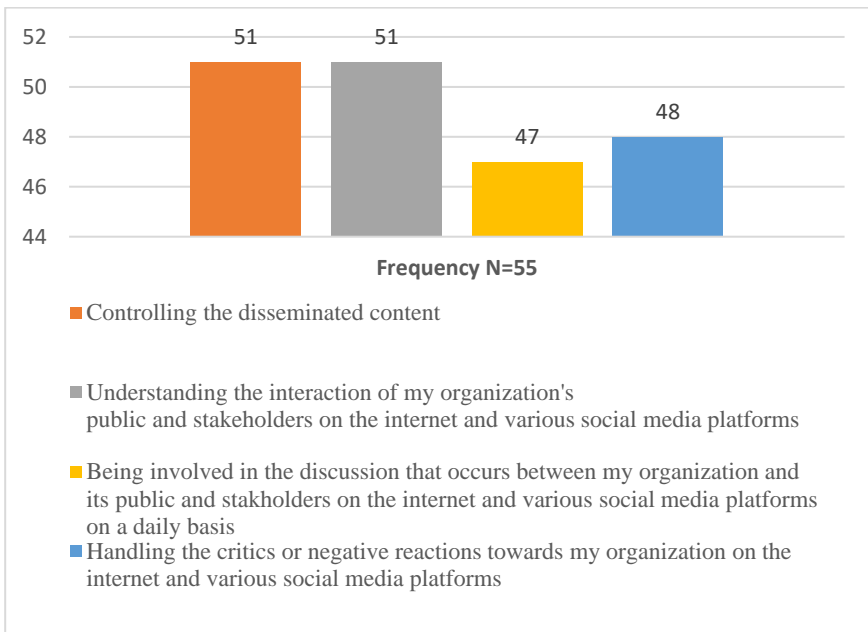


Fig. 1.3 Digital Fluency Skill. Source: Authors

Figure 1.3 illustrates that, overall, the participants possess a high level of digital fluency, particularly in their ability to establish and nurture social and emotional connections between the organization and its audience via online and social media platforms. A significant majority of participants, above 90 percent, indicated their ability to exercise control over the dissemination of material after its publication on the Internet and the many

social media platforms affiliated with their organization. Moreover, a significant majority of respondents, namely over 90 percent, indicated their proficiency in comprehending the dynamics of engagement between their respective organizations and the public on digital platforms. Most participants are actively involved in dialogues conducted on digital media platforms between their respective organizations and the wider public. Furthermore, a significant majority of respondents (87.3%) expressed their ability to effectively manage criticism or negative feedback pertaining to their business across the several digital platforms under their organization's ownership.

1.3.5 Digital Data Analytic Skill

The final competence assessed in this study pertains to digital data analytic abilities. This competency aims to ascertain the proficiency of the participants in effectively using and analyzing diverse digital data via the use of various digital analytical tools. The first segment of this component of the study is shown in Figure 1.4.

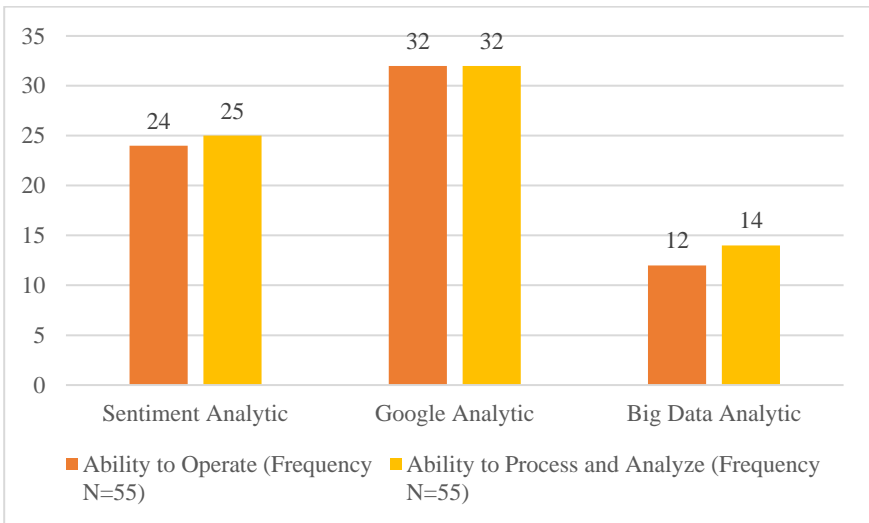


Fig. 1.4 Digital Data Analytic Competency. Source: Authors

Based on the findings from the data analysis shown in Figure 1.4, participants possess minimal proficiency in using digital analytic tools or artificial intelligence for operating, processing, and analyzing digital data. The research revealed that a majority of participants, specifically less than 60 percent, demonstrated proficiency in the utilization, manipulation, and interpretation of digital data via the use of Google Analytics. Only 43 percent of the participants showed proficiency in using, manipulating, and comprehending digital data processed using the Sentiment Analytic tool. In contrast, only 25 percent of the participants exhibited the ability to operate, process, and analyze data created by the Big Data Analytics tool, an artificial intelligence program.

The research assessed the digital skills and competencies of public relations practitioners in Indonesia across five distinct dimensions: organizational digital operational skills, information management skills, strategic social media skills, digital fluency skills, and digital data analytic skills. In relation to the aspect of organizational digital operational skills, the findings of this study indicate that, on the whole, Indonesian public relations professionals possess the competence to use digital technology in their organizational operations effectively. This study argues that proficiency in digital organizational management is a fundamental skill that professional public relations practitioners in Indonesia must possess. In the era of PR 4.0, public relations practitioners are compelled to perform their technical and administrative responsibilities not just by manual means but also by using computer systems, smartphones, and tablets to oversee organizational operations (Arief & Saputra, 2019; Meganck et al., 2020). While it is acknowledged that face-to-face communication is irreplaceable in conveying human emotions, it is worth noting that digital communication technology tools, the internet, and digital apps may significantly aid public relations practitioners in achieving swift and efficient communication (Whatmough, 2018).

In connection with the ability to manage information, the study found that Indonesian public relations practitioners have a relative advantage in mining and managing information using the internet and social media platforms. This research contends that acquiring these abilities empowers individuals to effectively collect, structure, and use pertinent information in the context of their comprehensive public relations tactics. Nevertheless, it is crucial for public relations professionals to engage in a thorough

evaluation of the credibility and accuracy of information disseminated throughout the internet and many social media channels (Meganck et al., 2020). This essential evaluation guarantees that public relations professionals depend on precise and reliable information while mitigating the risks associated with disinformation or erroneous data (Permatasari et al., 2021). Thus, it can be concluded that integrating these acquired skills with critical thinking might augment the efficacy of public relations practitioners as proficient communicators and uphold the credibility of their public relations endeavors inside their respective firms.

Regarding strategic social media competency, this study found that, in general, Indonesian public relations practitioners can manage both their personal account and their organizational accounts on social media platforms. This finding implies that they possess a level of knowledge and proficiency in using digital communication technology for personal and professional use. The data suggests that the participants exhibit reduced frequency in their use of LinkedIn, indicating a decreased level of engagement with this particular professional networking site within their routine social media practices. These observations underscore the importance of visual material, immediate communication, and the need to tailor social media techniques to the tastes of the intended audience while using social media platforms for personal and professional objectives (Lee et al., 2018).

The results mentioned above in this study emphasize the need to comprehend the distinct dynamics and necessities of each social media platform in formulating complete strategies for managing social media. This study argues that public relations practitioners may gain advantages by engaging in ongoing education, being abreast of platform trends, and modifying their content generation tactics to align with the unique context of each platform. This research also contends that by understanding social public relations, practitioners can use these platforms to actively interact with their audience, disseminate captivating material, and facilitate influential professional communication. As explained by Lee et al. (2018), public relations professionals need to evaluate their intended audience, campaign goals, and industry backdrop in order to ascertain the most appropriate channels for their particular communication requirements.

The results of this study underscore the adaptability and efficacy of the platform in effectively connecting with diverse audiences in various

settings. This research argues that the widespread use of Instagram in both personal and professional domains indicates its efficacy as a medium for establishing visibility and engaging with various audiences in diverse settings. Nevertheless, the difficulties encountered by the participants in strategizing and generating content, particularly for LinkedIn, indicate a need for more skill enhancement and a comprehension of the distinctive demands of the network. PR practitioners, in their capacity as professional communicators, are required to possess the ability to generate communication outputs across a range of channels, using both formal and informal approaches (Lee et al., 2018; Whatmough, 2018). It can be concluded that this proficiency is essential for successfully transmitting organizational messages and fostering meaningful interactions with a wide array of stakeholders.

Regarding digital fluency skills, the study findings suggest that many Indonesian public relations professionals had a comprehensive understanding of the dynamics between enterprises and their target audience on online platforms, including the internet and social media. Furthermore, the participants actively engage in ongoing conversations on these digital platforms. The results indicate that individuals working in public relations acknowledge the significance of actively participating in online platforms to connect with the public. Moreover, they demonstrate an understanding of the possible consequences that these interactions might have on the company's reputation.

It can be argued that the internet and social media platforms have emerged as crucial avenues for companies to communicate with their respective audiences or stakeholders. These platforms give public relations practitioners representing their companies the ability to interact directly, share feedback, and participate in public conversation inside the digital domain. This study contends that online communication in molding public views, influencing brand image, and cultivating relationships with stakeholders plays essential roles in digital public relations. Moreover, the active participation of respondents in dialogues on digital platforms demonstrates their acknowledgment of the significance of connecting with the public in the digital realm. Hence, through active engagement in online communication, public relations practitioners can get valuable insights into the public mood, comprehend the worries and expectations of

stakeholders, and effectively handle problems in a timely way (Ananda et al., 2022; Whatmough, 2018).

This study found that Indonesian public relations practitioners can be involved in the online conversation between their organization and the public. This research posits that active participation in online discussions enables public relations practitioners to cultivate trust, exhibit transparency, and foster enduring connections between the business and its stakeholders in the digital domain using diverse digital communication platforms. This study suggests that online feedback from the public in digital communication channels, including both positive and negative evaluations, which firms are prone to receiving regularly, are inescapable and unforeseeable. In the contemporary digital communication environment, people possess a medium to express their viewpoints without constraint. At the same time, corporations are vulnerable to getting input from the general public, encompassing both favorable and unfavorable assessments. The online feedback received may include a spectrum of responses, ranging from constructive criticism to more detrimental types of criticism, including public scrutiny on website and social media platforms (Permatasari et al., 2021; Whatmough, 2018).

It can be argued that it is essential for public relations professionals to possess the capacity to proactively manage and address criticisms that may arise from the general public. The successful management of public opinion necessitates public relations professionals to maintain composure, demonstrate empathy, and be receptive to input. Public relations professionals are advised to do a thorough analysis of the critique, comprehend the fundamental problems, and develop suitable tactics to tackle and resolve the presented difficulties effectively. Through the use of intelligent and planned approaches, public relations practitioners have the ability to effectively manage critics, mitigating the risk of communication crises that might potentially damage the image of their firm. It can be concluded that the proactive management of critics plays a crucial role in preserving a favorable corporate image, cultivating public trust, and establishing mutually advantageous interactions between the organization and its public stakeholders. Public relations practitioners can exhibit their dedication to addressing concerns, enhancing organizational practices, and fostering constructive dialogue with the public in the digital realm by promptly, transparently, and professionally responding to public feedback

and criticism (Ao & Huang, 2020; Chen et al., 2020). This approach aids in bolstering the digital public relations efforts of their respective organizations (Whatmough, 2018).

The findings of this research indicate that the proficiency of Indonesian public relations professionals in doing digital data analysis is comparatively limited. There exists a disparity between the requirements associated with the implementation of novel methodologies and the proficiency levels shown by public relations practitioners in the realm of digital data analysis. In the era of digital transformation, engaging in digital data analysis proves advantageous for practitioners in the field of public relations (Arief & Saputra, 2019). This practice offers valuable insights into the audience, facilitates performance evaluation, aids in identifying trends, and contributes to the swift and effective management of reputation and crisis communication. Through the use of digital data analysis within the realm of digital public relations, professionals are empowered to develop strategies that are rooted in data, enhance the effectiveness of their online campaigns, get insights into industry trends, and communicate with their intended audience via digital communication platforms (Panda et al., 2019). Integrating data analysis into digital public relations practice allows firms to establish and nurture connections with stakeholders effectively, therefore enhancing their reputation-building strategies within the ever-evolving digital landscape (Jeljeli et al., 2022).

This research presents evidence indicating that Indonesian public relations professionals are limited in using digital data analysis tools. Consequently, it highlights the need for more training and upskilling initiatives to address this knowledge gap. This research suggests that it would benefit public relations professionals to acquire skills in using various technologies, including Google Analytics, social media analytics platforms, data visualization software, and other pertinent tools. These tools may aid in the collection, analysis, and interpretation of digital data, therefore enabling practitioners to get valuable insights. These competencies empower public relations professionals to proficiently assess the influence of their campaigns, discern audience inclinations, monitor levels of participation, and enhance their approaches using data-derived insights.

The disparity in this research between the proficiencies in digital data analytics and other digital competencies highlights the need for public

relations professionals to prioritize enhancing their data analysis abilities. The capacity to extract information, as previously discussed, must be accompanied by the capacity to comprehend, assimilate, evaluate, and communicate digital data. Therefore, firms need to allocate resources toward the development of digital data analysis capabilities for public relations practitioners in order to remain competitive in the future.

1.4 Conclusion

A study was performed to assess the digital competencies of public relations practitioners in Indonesia to gain insight into the current landscape of these abilities. The primary emphasis of this pilot project revolves around digital capabilities, including operational information management, strategic personal social media management, strategic organizational social media management, digital literacy, and digital data analytics. The study's findings indicate that public relations professionals in Indonesia possess sufficient knowledge and competence in using and managing several digital communication platforms. These proficiencies enable them to fulfill their roles as skilled communicators successfully. Despite possessing a comprehensive understanding and proficiency in utilizing diverse digital communication platforms and generating content for organizational purposes, the survey findings reveal a deficiency in the comprehension and proficiency of analyzing digital data sourced from the internet and various social media platforms through the application of sentiment analysis and big data analysis techniques.

This study argues that it is essential for public relations practitioners to see the emergence of the internet, social media platforms, sentiment analysis, and extensive data analysis not only as isolated occurrences but as interconnected phenomena. However, it is vital to additionally contemplate the potential utilization of these technologies in order to achieve enhanced job outcomes. This includes the establishment of connections within the digital realm and the implementation of strategic communication endeavors for the company. The acquisition and mastery of knowledge and abilities are subject to continuous change and development. Hence, public relations professionals must acquire

contemporary information and skills to enhance their professional development.

While acknowledging the disruptive nature of technological advancements, this study suggests that it is crucial to recognize that the domains of creativity, innovation, and ethical conduct in public relations remain indispensable and cannot be substituted by contemporary technologies like artificial intelligence (AI) and big data. Nevertheless, the research just demonstrated the presence of a disparity in digital abilities and competencies among public relations professionals in Indonesia. Further research is required to examine the public relations readiness for the development of AI and big data and the level of knowledge of AI and big data among public relations professionals to investigate the influence of the digital divide on the efficacy of public relations strategies in Indonesia.

This pilot research might provide a solid basis for educational institutions to develop courses aimed at enhancing the digital skills and capabilities of future professionals in the field of public relations. Higher education institutions may enhance the proficiency of graduates in the digital age by prioritizing disciplines that enhance students' comprehension and aptitude for analyzing outcomes derived from digital data analysis. The incorporation of practical experiences, real-world applications, and industry partnerships will serve to augment students' preparedness for meeting the challenges presented by the dynamic and ever-changing realm of public relations.

References

- Abdul, I., Aulia, F., Makalunsenge, R., & Rahmat, A. (2023). Digitalisasi Hubungan Masyarakat Berbasis Website di Sekolah. *Jurnal Pendidikan Tambusai*, 7(1), 1981- 1986.
- Alawaad, H. A. (2021). The role of artificial intelligence (AI) in public relations and product marketing in modern organizations. *Turkish Journal of Computer and Mathematics Education (TURCOMAT)*, 12(14), 3180-3187.
- Ananda, I. D. R., Sultan, M. I., & Karnay, S. (2022). *Public Relations Practitioner's Adaptation in the Big Data Era in Makassar City*. Paper

- presented at the International Conference on Language, Education, and Social Science (ICLESS 2022).
- Ao, S. H., & Huang, Q. S. (2020). A systematic review on the application of dialogue in public relations to information communication technology-based platforms: Comparing English and Chinese contexts. *Public relations review*, 46(1), 101814.
- Arief, N. N., & Gustomo, A. (2020). Analyzing the impact of big data and artificial intelligence on the communications profession: A case study on Public Relations (PR) Practitioners in Indonesia. *International Journal on Advanced Science, Engineering and Information Technology*, 10(3), 1066–1071.
- Arief, N. N., & Saputra, M. A. A. (2019). Kompetensi baru public relations (PR) pada era artificial intelligence. *Jurnal Sistem Cerdas*, 2(1), 1-12.
- Chen, Y.-R. R., Hung-Baesecke, C.-J. F., & Chen, X. (2020). Moving forward the dialogic theory of public relations: Concepts, methods, and applications of organization-public dialogue. *Public relations review*, 46(1), 101878.
- Christ, P. (2007). Internet Technologies and Trends Transforming Public Relations. *Journal of Website Promotion*, 1(4), 3–14. doi:10.1300/J238v01n04_02
- Cismaru, D.-M., Gazzola, P., Ciochina, R. S., & Leovaridis, C. (2018). The rise of digital intelligence: challenges for public relations education and practices. *Kybernetes*, 47(10), 1924-1940.
- Dunan, A., & Mudjiyanto, B. (2020). The Republic of Indonesia Government Public Relations Communication Strategy in The Era of The Industrial Revolution 4.0. *JATI-Journal of Southeast Asian Studies*, 25(1), 58-78.
- Galloway, C., & Swiatek, L. (2018). Public relations and artificial intelligence: It's not (just) about robots. *Public Relations Review*, 44(5), 734-740.
- Gusri, L., Arif, E., & Dewi, R. S. (2020). *Cyber public relations readiness of private universities in West Sumatra to welcome the industrial era*

4.0. Paper presented at the 6th International Conference on Social and Political Sciences (ICOSAPS 2020).

Jeljeli, R., Farhi, F., & Zahra, A. (2022). *Impacts of PR and AI on Reputation Management: A Case Study of Banking Sector Customers in UAE*. Paper presented at the International Conference on Business and Technology.

Kelleher, K. (2018). This AI Has Been Debating Real Humans—And Doing A Pretty Good Job. *Agenda*.

Lee, H., Place, K. R., & Smith, B. G. (2018). Revisiting gendered assumptions of practitioner power: An exploratory study examining the role of social media expertise. *Public Relations Review*, 44(2), 191–200.

McAllister, S. M., & Taylor, M. (2007). Community college websites as tools for fostering dialogue. *Public relations review*, 33(2), 230–232.

Meganck, S., Smith, J., & Guidry, J. P. (2020). The skills required for entry-level public relations: An analysis of skills required in 1,000 PR job ads. *Public relations review*, 46(5), 101973.

Moore, S., & Hübscher, R. (2021). *Strategic communication and AI: Public relations with intelligent user interfaces*: Routledge.

Nugraha, A. R., Novianti, E., & Sjoraida, D. F. (2022). Transformation of Government Public Relations Communication Patterns Based on Digital Technology in the Millennial Era. *resmilitaris*, 12(2), 1862-1876.

Panda, G., Upadhyay, A. K., & Khandelwal, K. (2019). Artificial intelligence: A strategic disruption in public relations. *Journal of Creative Communications*, 14(3), 196–213.

Pavlik, J. V. (2007). Mapping the consequences of technology on public relations. *Institute for Public Relations*, 1-20.

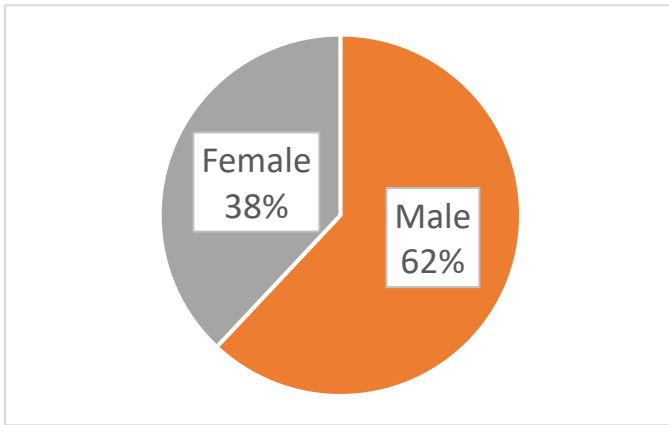
Permatasari, A. N., Soelistiyowati, E., Suastami, I. G. A. P. P., & Johan, R. A. (2021). Digital public relations: trend and required skills. *Jurnal Aspikom*, 6(2), 373-386.

-
- Putra, S. (2021). Police Public Relations Profession in the Digital Communication Era: A Phenomenological Study of the Adaptation of West Java Police Public Relations Personnel in the Era of Digital Communication. *American Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences Research*, 5(2), 505–510.
- Suciati, P., Maulidiyanti, M., & Wiwesa, N. R. (2021). The public relations acceptance towards press release application with artificial intelligence. *Communicare: Journal of Communication Studies*, 8(1), 20-40.
- Supada, W. (2021). Urgensi Pola Komunikasi Public Relations 4. 0 di Masa Pandemi COVID 19. *Communicare*, 2(1), 1–10.
- Türksoy, N. (2022). The Future of Public Relations, Advertising, and Journalism: How Artificial Intelligence May Transform the Communication Profession and Why Society Should Care? *Türkiye İletişim Araştırmaları Dergisi*(40), 394-410.
- Virmani, S., & Gregory, A. (2021). *AI and Big Data Readiness Report-Assessing the Public Relations Profession's Preparedness for an AI Future*. Retrieved from
- Whatmough, D. (2018). *Digital PR*: Emerald Group Publishing.
- Wolf, K., & Archer, C. (2018). Public relations at the crossroads: The need to reclaim core public relations competencies in digital communication. *Journal of Communication Management*, 22(4), 494-509.

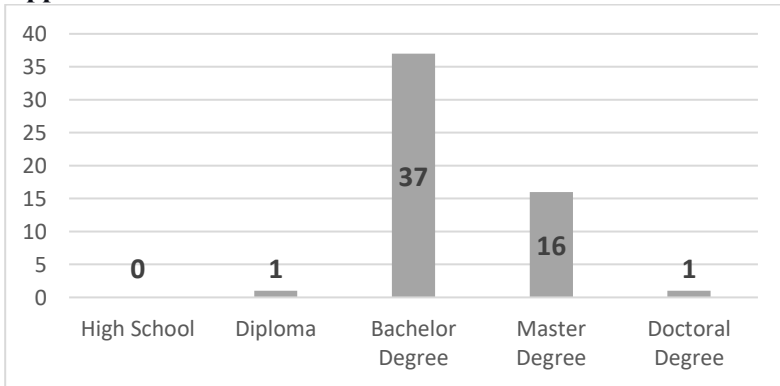
Appendix

Appendix 1. Demographic Profiles of the Respondents (Frequency= 55)

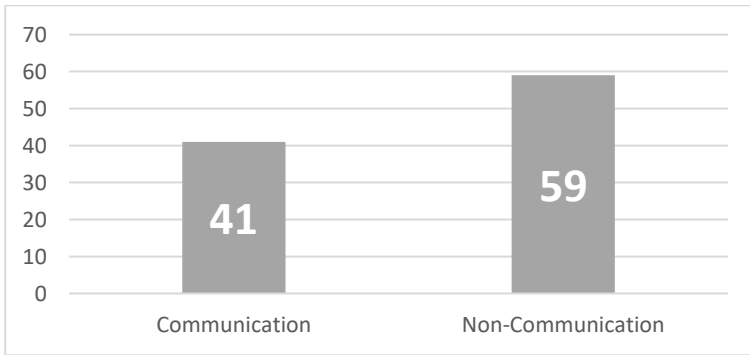
Appendix 1.1 Gender



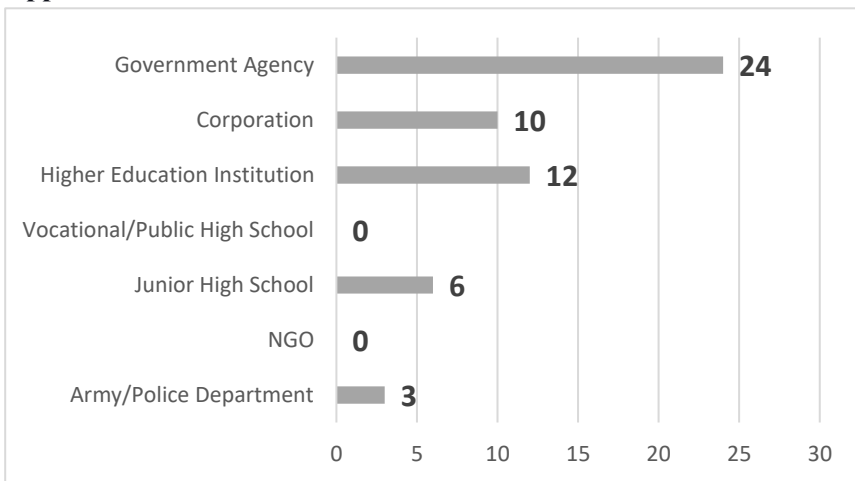
Appendix 1.2 Education Level



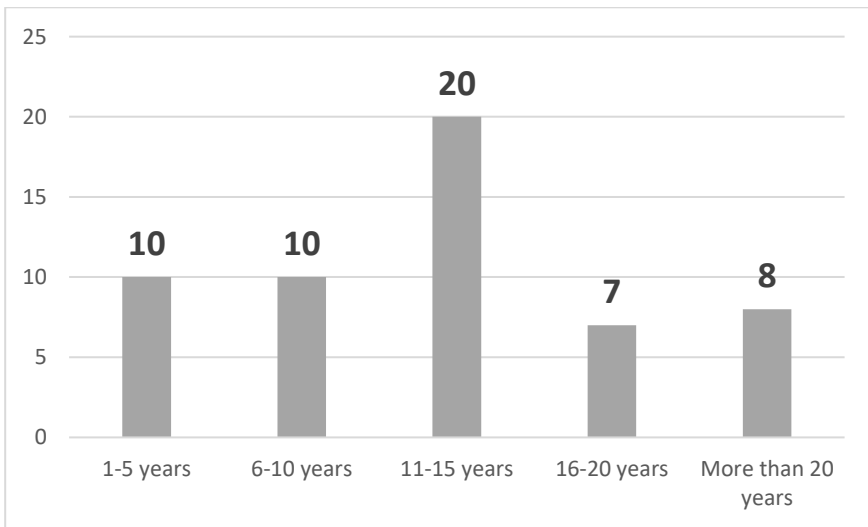
Appendix 1.3 Educational Background



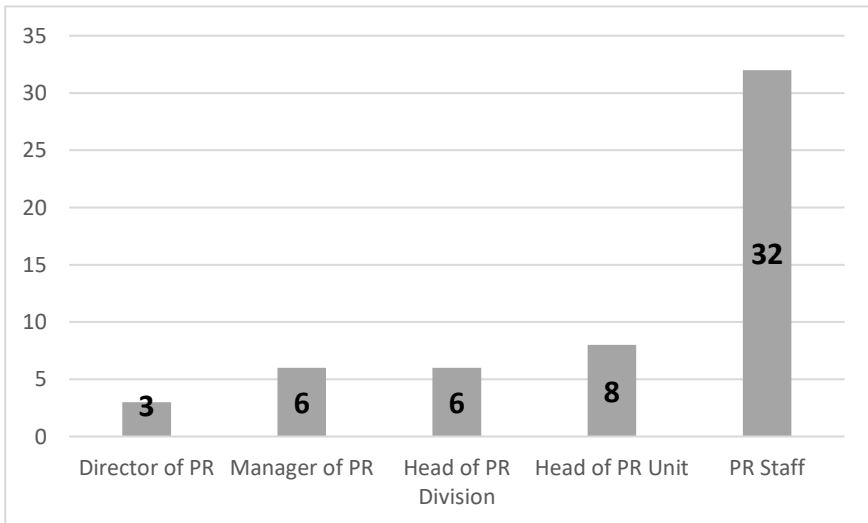
Appendix 1.4 Place of Work



Appendix 1.5 Working Duration



Appendix 1.6 Position in Organization



Leadership Communication in Crisis: Study of COVID-19 Pandemic at National and Local Level

2

Fitri Hariana Oktaviani, Yun Fitrahyati Laturrahmi, and Rachmat Kriyantono

Abstract

This chapter focuses on risk communication in the tourism sector. This chapter examines how Indonesian leaders at both national and local levels communicated during the COVID-19 pandemic. It uses the concept of discursive leadership to analyze how effective these communication efforts were in navigating the challenges posed by the pandemic. The framework of Discourse Historical Perspective is applied to analyze the language, context, and strategies used in leadership communications. This sheds light on how the central government aimed to establish credibility and legitimacy. Beyond the national leaders, we also look into how local leaders responded to the pandemic's impact on the ground. By comparing these practical situations with the larger narratives, we gain insight into where their messages aligned or diverged. Instead of just summarizing findings, this chapter offers practical suggestions based on the analysis. These recommendations guide how leadership communication can be strengthened, moving beyond retrospective thought to enhance future communication practices.

Keywords

Leadership communication · Social constructionism · Communication perspective on leadership

F. H. Oktaviani · Y. F. Laturrakhmi · R. Kriyantono
Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science,
Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia
e-mail: fitri.oktaviani@ub.ac.id; yun.fitrahyati@ub.ac.id; rachmat_kr@ub.ac.id

2.1 Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic represents an unprecedented global health crisis. It affords us a unique opportunity to monitor daily case developments, assess the impact on severely affected nations, scrutinize the responses of world leaders, and comprehensively examine its multifaceted ramifications (Beilstein et al., 2020, p. 406). This substantial information flow is underpinned by the pervasive connectivity facilitated by high-speed internet and social media platforms. Consequently, while information abounds, its reliability is often precarious. To navigate this information landscape effectively, authoritative and lucid guidance from health authorities is imperative. Moreover, the inherent uncertainty in the pandemic's early stages can be harnessed to manipulate public opinion, a phenomenon aptly dubbed an "infodemic" by the World Health Organization (WHO, 2022).

Leadership in this context necessitates the ability to make prompt, targeted, and low-risk decisions. Simultaneously, effective communication is paramount for diminishing uncertainty, mitigating panic, and fostering public trust (Beilstein et al., 2020). It is noteworthy, however, that not all leaders have demonstrated adeptness in this regard. Some leaders, exemplified by the actions of former US President Trump and Brazilian President Bolsonaro, have questioned the legitimacy of the pandemic, disparaged world health authorities, and instrumentalized the crisis for political gain (Jong, 2021). In contrast, Prime Minister Jacinda Ardern of New Zealand has been widely acknowledged for her adept leadership in managing the pandemic, successfully reducing risks for her country's population (Kerrissey & Edmonson, 2020; Wilson, 2020). The majority of world leaders, however, fall somewhere between these extreme exemplars (Jong, 2021). In response to these challenges, scholars in health communication are actively engaged in formulating comprehensive crisis communication guidelines tailored to pandemic contexts (Jong, 2021).

Nevertheless, it is imperative to acknowledge the contextual specificity of pandemic response strategies. Each geographic region boasts distinctive social, economic, political, and geographical dynamics. For instance, Vietnam and New Zealand adopted divergent strategies to combat the pandemic, each tailored to their unique circumstances (Duong et al., 2020; Wilson, 2020). Conversely, Indonesia's approach, particularly concerning

government-led risk communication, has garnered criticism and necessitates improvement (Ardiyanti, 2020). It is also crucial to recognize the role that societal stigma plays in exacerbating the challenges of pandemic control (Bruns et al., 2020). Furthermore, the effectiveness of risk communication and crisis management is contingent upon the public's understanding of the pandemic (Elledge et al., 2008), underscoring the need for a health communication strategy capable of reaching diverse social demographics (Lin et al., 2014).

In the Indonesian context, health communication predominantly adheres to a biomedical rationale. This approach, however, frequently collides with deeply entrenched cultural and religious values, leading to resistance within specific segments of the population. Paton et al. (2008) underscore that merely furnishing health information is insufficient. Instead, the discourse surrounding threats profoundly influences belief in risks and subsequently informs decision-making. Consequently, within communities marked by unique characteristics, the application of a culturally sensitive leadership communication model is indispensable, serving to augment the effectiveness and efficiency of crisis communication efforts.

2.2 Communication During Crisis

Numerous crisis communication models have been developed by health communication and crisis communication researchers, particularly in health management. Before the COVID-19 pandemic, these models drew from experiences with previous outbreaks such as SARS in 2003, H1N1 in 2009, H7N9 in 2013, and seasonal influenza in 2016-2017 (Hsu et al., 2017). These models were crafted by distilling best practices from countries that effectively managed such outbreaks. Building on this work, Jong (2021) formulated a crisis communication model for evaluating communication effectiveness during the COVID-19 pandemic and similar health crises. This model primarily aims to disseminate information and guidance to the public regarding public health measures to mitigate the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic. Additionally, it seeks to enhance

societal resilience and facilitate communication with stakeholders affected by lockdowns or restrictions (Jong, 2021).

Jong's (2021) model comprises five distinct domains, each encompassing a range of questions and subtopics:

- *Domain I: Sensemaking in Times of Crisis*
- *Domain II: Public Leadership in Times of Crisis*
- *Domain III: Involvement of Public Health Professionals and Expert Voices*
- *Domain IV: Engagement with Stakeholders*
- *Domain V: Instructions to the Public*

This checklist serves as a valuable tool for evaluating crisis communication outcomes during not only the COVID-19 pandemic but also other similar health crises. Unlike models primarily concerned with reputation management, Jong's model emphasizes the practical resolution of societal challenges (Liu & Fraustino, 2014). For an in-depth exploration of this model, refer to the "Assessment Tool for Crisis Communication during Pandemics" (AACCP), as outlined by Jong (2021).

2.3 Why is Jong's Model (2021) Still Insufficient to Address Indonesia's Problems during the Crisis?

Jong's model (2021) presents a valuable framework for crisis communication during a pandemic; however, its suitability for addressing Indonesia's specific challenges during crises remains limited. While this model offers universal insights into crisis communication within a pandemic context, it retains a generalized nature. Jong's model was developed without considering the unique social, economic, political, and cultural nuances characterizing each country. Upon closer examination, it becomes evident that the model presumes a level of rationality typically associated with developed nations, characterized by a population possessing high technological awareness and sensitivity. However, countries exhibit marked variations in geographic, demographic, and psychographic attributes. Therefore, for enhanced applicability within the

Indonesian context, it is imperative to adapt the crisis communication model to align with Indonesia's distinctive social, economic, political, and cultural conditions.

In contrast to developed nations where rationality and modernity assumptions prevail, the Indonesian populace, particularly in rural areas, places significant reliance on leadership roles, both at the local and national levels, for making health-related decisions. This reliance stems from the multifaceted functions of local leaders, who serve as cultural mediators, translating complex medical terminology for the community (Laturrakhmi, 2018), and as opinion leaders who shape the information that the public should be cognizant of and follow concerning health matters (Laturrakhmi et al., 2019). This point underscores the enduring influence of culture on health behavior (Kreuter & McLure, 2004; Viswanath & Ackerson, 2014). Moreover, in the context of health risks, cultural values play a pivotal role in determining responses to communication during health crises (Reynold in Quinn, 2008), thus elevating the significance of local leaders.

Consequently, within the Indonesian context, the effective implementation of leadership communication, particularly at the grassroots level (termed the local level in this study), necessitates tailored adjustments. A distinct approach to comprehending leadership is warranted to achieve this. This study, therefore, advances an alternative perspective, termed the discursive leadership approach, which will be expounded upon in the subsequent section of the literature review.

2.4 An insight from a Discursive Leadership Approach

The concept of leadership is subject to diverse interpretations depending on the academic discipline investigating it. In this study, leadership is defined as "a process of influencing others to achieve goals" (Cheney et al., 2010, p.185). Our perspective, rooted in communication science, underscores that leadership is intrinsically intertwined with communication; in essence, communication is the linchpin of the leadership process (Cheney et al., 2010).

In multidisciplinary contexts, it is essential to clarify the distinction between leadership and leaders (Cheney et al., 2010, p. 185). Leadership denotes the process itself, while leaders refer to the individuals undertaking leadership roles. It is imperative to recognize that leaders encompass both those in formal positions of authority who formulate policies and manage public health initiatives and those who provide leadership in crisis communication, such as community leaders at the forefront of health communication efforts during a pandemic.

Leadership theories can be categorized into four types, according to Grint (2001). This classification hinges on the underlying assumptions regarding the role of the leader (individual) and the context in defining leadership. Essentialism, in this context, pertains to the attributes we consider fundamental in the phenomena under examination or "the characteristics [that] are inherent in the 'essence' that defines that phenomenon" (Cheney et al., 2010, p. 188). For instance, the assumption that women are inherently gentle and men are innately aggressive exemplifies essentialism. Grint's (2001) model categorizes leadership theories as follows:

- *Trait/Styles Approach*: Individual essentialist, context non-essentialist.
- *Situational Approach*: Context essentialist, individual non-essentialist.
- *Contingent Approach*: Contextually essentialist, individual essentialist.
- *Constitutive Approach*: Individual non-essentialist, context non-essentialist.

The first category, individual essentialist but context non-essentialist, posits that leadership effectiveness hinges on individual traits and styles. It asserts that good leaders consistently produce effective leadership, irrespective of the situation. The situational approach, context essentialist but individual non-essentialist, maintains that leadership effectiveness is context-dependent, as various leaders possess diverse characteristics and styles. The contingency approach, contextually essentialist and individual essentialist, asserts that effective leadership results from matching the right leader or leadership style with the appropriate situation.

Conversely, the constitutive approach, focusing on the social construction of leadership, posits non-essentialist individuals and contexts. In this approach, neither the individual nature nor the situation is deemed essential in determining leadership effectiveness. It examines how

individuals and contexts are discursively framed in leadership discussions, acknowledging that leadership is open to multiple interpretations (Cheney et al., 2004). Thus, aspiring leaders must recognize the socially constructed nature of concepts, events, and ideas, consciously leveraging them to influence others' constructions or interpretations (Cheney et al., 2004, p. 192). This category essentially comprises qualitative, discursive, or ethnographic theories emphasizing a social construction perspective, focusing on the processes and practices of relational leadership (Fairhurst & Grant, 2010). Notably, the discursive leadership theory significantly contributes to the organizational communication tradition (Fairhurst, 2007, 2008, 2009). This perspective, underpinned by communication, characterizes our understanding of leadership in this study.

To appreciate the utility of the discursive leadership approach in crisis communication, we will delineate two key characteristics that distinguish it from conventional leadership theories.

2.4.1 Leadership is About the Management of Meaning

The discursive leadership approach emerges from a linguistic paradigm shift within organizational studies, situating language and communication as central to the organizational process. In contrast to conventional leadership theories, which predominantly emphasize individual and psychological factors, the discursive leadership approach adopts a social and cultural perspective (Fairhurst, 2009). Communication, in this framework, extends beyond mere transmission; it encompasses the construction and negotiation of meaning (Jian et al., 2008). Leadership actors, therefore, can be seen not only as passive recipients of meaning but also as both disciplined subjects (Foucault, 1980) and transformative agents (Fairhurst, 2007). As agents of change, they collaboratively shape contexts that necessitate responses, both from themselves and others.

Consequently, leadership actors can mold 'social realities,' such as identity or legitimacy, often contingent on how the context is constructed through discourse (Fairhurst, 2009, p. 1608). While leadership actors may not always exert control over events, they can influence the context in which events are interpreted. For example, during Barack Obama's US presidential campaign, he chose not to frame himself as a 'black candidate'

but rather as a candidate who 'happens to be black,' deftly navigating the intricate terrain of US racial identity politics.

2.4.2 Discursive Leadership as a Problem-Oriented Perspective

Conventional leadership theories, steeped in quantitative research methodologies and driven by the pursuit of generalizations, tend to follow a prescriptive path delineated by the literature. Researchers in these paradigms select leading actors and factors for investigation, enabling them to scrutinize causality and address the 'why' question (Fairhurst, 2009). In stark contrast, discursive leadership researchers operate under the assumption that leadership actors must ascertain the contextual interpretation of leadership within their specific milieu (Kelly et al., 2006) or address the 'how' question. Leadership actors must also employ persuasive strategies to ensure the enactment of their leadership. Within this framework, leadership is perceived as contextually flexible. Consequently, discursive leadership researchers adopt a distinctly problem-oriented perspective, necessitating a thorough exploration of the contextual intricacies relevant to the leadership process (Fairhurst, 2009). Freed from the constraints of constructing generalizable theories, discursive leadership researchers can focus their investigative efforts on nuanced contextual elements, including historical, social, and political dimensions (Fairhurst, 2009).

2.4.3 Discursive leadership is a problem-oriented perspective

Mainstream leadership theories are driven by the literature, focusing on seeking generalizations and thus using quantitative methods for cross-context comparisons. Moreover, researchers know best: they will decide the leading actor on which factors are focused on research. Such an approach allows them to examine causation to answer the question 'why' (Fairhurst, 2009). In contrast, discursive leadership researchers assume that leadership actors must find out what leadership means in the context in which they are located (Kelly et al., 2006) or answer the "how" question. Leadership actors must also persuade themselves and others to ensure that they carry out their leadership. Through this assumption, leadership is

flexible and contextual. Therefore, discursive leadership researchers are very problem-oriented. Researchers must examine the context in depth to develop local knowledge of the issues identified in a leadership process. Without the pressure to build a generalizable theory, discursive leadership researchers can focus on context, such as historical, social, and political aspects (Fairhurst, 2009).

2.5 Methodology Overview

In light of the widely acknowledged challenges faced by national and local leadership in managing the pandemic in Indonesia, characterized by critiques of inadequate coordination, inconsistencies, and leadership deficits, this study is driven by the following objectives:

- To analyze the framing strategies and legitimacy of national leadership communication in addressing health crises, particularly pandemics.
- To analyze the practices of crisis leadership communication at the local level.
- To develop an effective leadership communication model for health crises that draws from local wisdom and cultural identity.

The research methodology employed in this study is qualitative, encompassing a fusion of the Discourse Historical Analysis (DHA) method and an interview-based approach. The study unfolds in two main stages.

In the initial stage, we examine how national leadership frames the pandemic crisis through primary communications (Van Leeuwen & Wodak, 1999; Wodak, 2021). Subsequently, in the second stage, our focus shifts towards exploring how local leadership actors interpret and frame the communication challenges posed by the pandemic, drawing from their experiences spanning 2020 to 2022. Following an extensive evaluation process, the overarching aim is to formulate a crisis leadership communication model characterized by a heightened sensitivity to elements of cultural identity and local wisdom. The initial data collection stage involved extracting pertinent information from 32 key press releases officially disseminated by the government. These releases were

categorically divided into discursive strands representing distinct phases of the early pandemic, the first wave, and the second wave (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1 Data Sources within three Discursive Strands

Discursive Strand	Videos	Information
Beginning of pandemic: March-April 2022	11	
Wave 1: July 2020	19	Special period: December 2022 is on vaccine announcement
Wave 2: Delta 2021, Juli- Agustus 2021	18	

Source: Authors

The data analysis followed the DHA framework by Wodak (2021) and Van Leeuwen's approach (1999). The analysis consisted of two steps:

- **Entry-level analysis:** Used frame analysis to examine how public-perceived realities are emphasized by communication actors. Frames play a significant role in crisis communication, influencing public behavior. The focus was on crisis communication strategies used by national leaders during the pandemic.
- **In-depth level analysis:** Employed legitimacy analysis (Van Leeuwen & Wodak, 1999), which leaders use to legitimize their decisions and policies for public persuasion. Four legitimacy categories were identified: authorization, moralization, rationalization, and mythopoesis.

In the second stage of the research, the data is in the form of interview text with local leaders. The sampling criteria were local leadership actors who spearheaded crisis communication during the pandemic. These actors could come from the health sector (village to sub-district level task force leaders, medical personnel directly involved in crisis communication), religious communities (religious figures, religious educators directly engaged in crisis communication), and other relevant communities at Kabupaten Pasuruan, East Java. Data analysis was conducted using the thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 87). The data was then

compared to see whether there were any similarities and differences between the strategies used at the national level and the local level.

To improve the trustworthiness of the interpretation of the text, we also conducted an intertextuality (Fairclough, 1992). The intertextuality concept focuses on how texts are interconnected with and influenced by other texts, shaping meaning and ideology. It involves analyzing how texts relate to existing discourses and power relations, revealing hidden meanings and power dynamics for a deeper understanding of communication and the co-construction of social reality.

2.6 Results

The results of the study will be broken down into four categories, namely frames, legitimation strategy, pandemic communication at the local level, and communication strategies at local and national level.

2.6.1 The Message Frame Strategy used by the Central Government during COVID-19

The message frames used by the Indonesian government in their press releases can be summarized in the following points:

Table 2.2 Key Communication Frames in Three Discursive Strands

	Key Action	Information
Early pandemic	<i>Risk Communication</i>	The government used clear language to inform the public about the first COVID-19 cases, the source of the virus, and the immediate actions taken. The President and Health Minister delivered key messages, emphasizing the seriousness of the situation.
	<i>Emotional Management</i>	The government addressed public panic by emphasizing the importance of maintaining immunity and avoiding panic buying. This strategy aimed to reassure citizens and prevent excessive panic.

	<i>Community Engagement</i>	The government involved citizens in efforts to combat the pandemic, urging them to help with tracing and testing. The creation of task forces involving various organizations showed a collaborative approach.
	<i>Economic Considerations</i>	The government focused on balancing health measures with economic stability. They implemented large-scale social restrictions (PSBB) instead of a complete lockdown, aiming to protect the economy while controlling the virus.
<i>Wave 1</i>	<i>Briefings</i>	The government utilized press conferences to provide updated COVID-19 information, reinforcing transparency and accountability.
	<i>New Normal Advocacy</i>	The government emphasized the adoption of new habits (3M - Mask, Distance, Wash Hands) and provided practical guidelines for different scenarios, such as working from home and public interactions.
	<i>Data Analysis and Comparison</i>	The government presented data-driven analyses, compared COVID-19 situations across countries, and identified clusters of transmission. This approach aimed to make data understandable and motivate behavioral change.
	<i>Leadership Change</i>	The government transitioned spokespersons to enhance communication effectiveness, indicating a responsive and adaptable communication strategy.
<i>Wave 2</i>	<i>Cause Identification</i>	The government identified reasons for increased COVID-19 cases, such as holiday travel and new variants, using these findings to frame subsequent strategies.
	<i>Global Collaboration</i>	The government highlighted international assistance, emphasizing aid received in the form of vaccines and oxygen supplies. This framed collaboration and mutual support in addressing the crisis.
	<i>Local Engagement</i>	The government promoted localized education through cultural methods, adapting communication to local

		traditions. This approach aimed to increase understanding and compliance.
	<i>Trust Building</i>	The government acknowledged vaccine hesitancy and misinformation, expressing the importance of accurate information and expert endorsements to build public trust in vaccination.
	<i>Communication Feedback</i>	The government focused on adapting measures for different regions and encouraging locally relevant solutions, aligning with community preferences and needs.
	<i>Continued Mitigation</i>	The government introduced Q&A sessions in press conferences, addressing concerns raised by journalists. This strategy demonstrated transparency and responsiveness.

Source: Authors

2.6.2 Legitimation Strategy Used by the Government

Analysed against Van Leeuwen & Wodak's (1999) and Wodak's (2021) legitimation framework, the central government has used the following legitimation strategies in their communication:

- *Authorization*: Authorization is the process of establishing the authority or legitimacy of a specific action, activity, or policy. Within the dataset, authorization instances are evident through references to government officials, their roles, and their responses to the pandemic. Government officials with backgrounds in medicine or health, such as Dr. Achmad Yurianto, Dr. Reisa Broto Asmoro, and Drh. Wiku Adisasmano are mentioned. Their involvement in providing biomedical information, guidance, and health-related strategies to combat the COVID-19 pandemic underscores the government's preference for framing messages within a biomedical context. Additionally, President Joko Widodo is prominently featured as the primary spokesperson in many official government press releases.
- *Rationalisation*: Rationalisation involves providing logical reasons and explanations for decisions and actions. This strategy is also highly

attached to the biomedical frame used by the government to convince the public. The data has shown how the government rationalizes various measures taken by the government, such as implementing lockdowns (PSBB), promoting health protocols (3M: mask, distance, wash hands), and vaccination campaigns. The government's effort to manage the pandemic through testing, tracing, and treatment of the affected patients can also be seen as a rational strategy to control the spread of the virus. However, the government has not sufficiently explained why each measure is undertaken.

- *Moral Evaluation*: Moral evaluation pertains to how the government frames its measures within the context of ethical and moral principles. Within the data, instances of moral evaluation arise as the government references safeguarding public health, highlighting collective responsibility, and urging adherence to health protocols. The government's endeavors to educate the public about the virus and promote vaccination can be interpreted as moral imperatives aimed at guaranteeing citizens' safety and well-being. Nonetheless, a deficiency in enforcement by relevant entities becomes apparent in cases where the public does not comply with health protocols.
- *Mythopoesis*: is employed to craft narratives or stories that mold the public's perceptions and beliefs about a specific subject. In the dataset, instances of mythopoesis are discernible in the government's portrayal of healthcare workers as heroes ("pejuang COVID-19") and in the narrative of collective unity in confronting the pandemic ("Bersatu melawan Covid19"). Moreover, the government's communication endeavors utilizing traditional cultural performances such as wayang kulit (shadow puppetry) can be regarded as a manifestation of mythopoesis, serving as an effective means to convey messages.

Although the Indonesian government seemingly followed different legitimation strategies, leadership communication during the pandemic went beyond a formal channel. For example, the dismissal of Indonesia's Health Minister during the initial COVID-19 outbreak had far-reaching consequences. By downplaying the severity of the virus and contradicting expert opinions, his actions hindered urgent response measures, potentially leading to crucial delays in containment efforts at the beginning of the pandemic. This dismissive stance also impeded the country's preparedness

by underestimating the resources required and eroding public trust, making it harder for the government to communicate and enforce guidelines effectively. The delayed implementation of necessary interventions, such as travel restrictions, exacerbated healthcare and economic challenges.

Additionally, the missed opportunity for early containment due to the initial dismissal amplified the difficulty of managing widespread transmission. This situation underscores the importance of evidence-based decision-making, transparent communication, and proactive intervention in effectively addressing public health crises. In addition, a few texts pulled in an intertextual analysis also shows that some local leaders, for example, the mayor of Malang, Indonesia, one of the most severely impacted area, demonstrated ineffective communication during the pandemic. His underwhelming communication strategies, as well as response, reflected a lack of clear guidance and strategies, which contributed to confusion among the public. This ineffective communication from local leaders exacerbated the challenges of the pandemic and highlighted the need for improved crisis communication at all levels of government. This is why a discursive lens in looking at leadership is essential in understanding leadership during a crisis.

2.6.3 How Does Pandemic Communication Operate at the Local Level?

We have analyzed the case of Kabupaten Pasuruan in East Java due to its rich cultural heritage and religious diversity that mirrors various regions across Indonesia. The population of Kabupaten Pasuruan comprises a blend of ethnicities, with the Javanese forming the predominant group, followed by the Madurese. Additionally, smaller communities such as the Tengger, situated at the base of the Bromo-Semeru Mountain ranges, contributes to this mix. Pasuruan's local culture is profoundly shaped by Javanese traditions, characterized by a deeply patriarchal and high power-distance societal structure. This cultural tapestry intertwines with traditional Islam, as exemplified by Nahdlatul Ulama.

Spirituality and religion hold pivotal roles in the lives of Kabupaten Pasuruan's residents, with Islam reigning as the dominant faith. The people of this region frequently interlace local customs and traditions with their Islamic beliefs and spirituality. Most inhabitants identify as followers of

Nahdlatul Ulama (NU), a significant Islamic organization in Indonesia. NU encapsulates moderate and inclusive Islamic doctrines while harmoniously merging religion with the local Javanese ethos (Oktaviani et al., 2021). Its commitment to education encompasses both religious and secular learning within its boarding schools. NU actively participates in welfare initiatives and interfaith dialogues, advocating compassion and unity. While maintaining a political presence, NU places considerable emphasis on family values and exhibits vestiges of Sufi influence in its spiritual practices. These attributes collectively shape NU's Islamic approach, leaving a distinctive mark on Indonesia's religious and societal landscapes. The table 2.3 below shows essential key points in local leaders' communication.

Table 2.3 Communication themes from local leaders' interviews

	Themes	Key Points
1	Role and Influence of Local Leader	Local leaders play a more influential role in crisis communication. Their involvement in strategic planning is emphasized.
2	Relationship with Government and Voluntarism	Strong relations with the government, including voluntary efforts. Initiatives and support provided by local leaders.
3	Persuasion Strategies	Involvement and support as a form of persuasion. Persuasion through involvement and common identity. Reframing messages to align with local values. Utilizing evidence-based persuasion. Shifting from a scientific approach to a spiritual one. Empathy and reassurance in persuasive messaging.
4	Strategic Planning and Support to Government	Providing strategic planning and support to government. Supportive actions and initiatives toward government efforts.
5	Building Awareness and Trust	Raising awareness among skeptical communities. Building trust and rapport through empathy and presence.

		Presence and reassurance in persuasion.
--	--	---

Source: Authors

2.6.4 Communication Strategies Employed by Local Leaders and National Leaders during the Pandemic

The examination of communication strategies adopted by local leaders throughout the pandemic underscores a multifaceted approach to crisis management. These leaders wielded considerable influence, mainly through their active involvement in strategic planning and close affiliations with governmental entities, often stemming from voluntary efforts. Their approach encompassed various persuasion strategies, including leveraging their participation and shared identity within the community, reconfiguring messages to align with local values, and adopting evidence-based methodologies.

A noteworthy observation was the transition by some local leaders from scientific discourse to spiritual perspectives, a strategic shift aimed at establishing a deeper resonance with their communities. Central to their endeavors was the cultivation of trust, achieved through the channels of empathy, reassurance, and the provision of accurate information, all played pivotal roles in persuading community members to adhere to recommended measures. Religious-based messaging was a prevalent tactic, entailing the engagement of religious figures to foster compliance and recast messages within a religious framework. Furthermore, education initiatives were tailored to align with local values, addressing the challenges associated with selective information access and fostering awareness among skeptical population segments. Communication strategies were also attuned to community characteristics and readiness levels, underscoring the importance of adaptability and proactive initiatives.

When comparing the crisis communication approaches of local and central governments, several significant similarities come to light. Nonetheless, frequently, these local leaders find themselves needing to translate the government's communication and adjust it to suit their local context. For instance, besides needing clear guidance and logical reasoning to convey the situation, local leaders often act as cultural mediators for the

individuals within their respective areas (Laturrahmi, 2018). Consequently, they employ diverse strategies, such as enlisting the support of religious leaders within their regions, to enhance the credibility of health-related directives.

2.7 Conclusion and Recommendation

This research has delved into the perspective of discursive leadership, shedding light on the mechanics of leadership communication within a specific social context. The study underscores several pivotal findings and provides recommendations for enhancing the effectiveness of leadership communication during health crises. In the application of leadership communication in times of crisis, the discursive leadership approach can offer new thoughts that can contribute to the formation of a leadership communication model in times of crisis, namely:

- The effectiveness of leadership in times of crisis depends on the extent to which leaders frame existing issues.
- Effectiveness of leadership in times of crisis depends on leadership actors that are national as well as local.
- The effectiveness of leadership in times of crisis depends on how leadership actors use and frame the local context consisting of social, cultural, and historical conditions to persuade people to comply with directions and instructions and achieve other communication goals (e.g., building empathy, trust, etc.).

This chapter considers it imperative to engage local leaders and adapt communication strategies to align with local contexts. Building trust through transparent, empathetic, and culturally sensitive communication is a cornerstone for successful leadership communication in this context. In contrast to countries like Australia, where pandemic management authority is also delegated to local states, many local leaders in Indonesia exhibited a less robust approach in both communication and the enforcement of measures within their respective areas. This deficiency has been widely critiqued by Indonesian scholars, primarily due to the dearth of clear and consistent policy communication. Consequently, the public's ability to comprehensively grasp the pandemic's risks has been hindered (Nugroho & Syarief, 2021).

The absence of accurate data has further impeded effective decision-making. Poor coordination in policy implementation, both among different agencies and between central and local authorities, stands out as a central critique against government communication efforts, spanning both central and local levels. Consequently, local leaders often navigate uncharted territory when determining proper and accurate measures. As an illustrative example, numerous areas have devised their own measures known as "siskamling" or "Sistem Keamanan Lingkungan," translating to "Community Security System" in English. This concept pertains to a neighborhood or community security system wherein residents collaborate to ensure the safety and security of their local area. The overarching goal of a "siskamling" is to prevent crime, monitor the environment, and collectively respond to security threats. While undertaken with good intentions, this communal approach contradicts the overarching goal of limiting virus spread through social interactions.

Therefore, the adoption of local communication styles, such as leveraging local religious leaders to convey information and framing messages with religious appeals, necessitates accompanying training and the establishment of proper crisis management procedures. Given the performative nature of Indonesian culture, which includes rituals and ceremonies, government briefings should be supplemented by the presence of leaders from relevant agencies (e.g., the head of the Police Department, the Indonesian Medical Doctors Association, the Ministry of Finance and Economic Affairs) at both the top government and local government levels. This collaborative approach underscores synergy, unity, and cooperation in effectively managing health crises.

References

- Ardiyanti, H. (2020). *Komunikasi media yang efektif pada pandemi COVID-19*. Puslit Badan Keahlian DPR RI, 12 (7).
- Beilstein, C., Lehmann, L., Braun, M., Urman, R.D., Luedi, M.M., Stüber, F., (2021). Leadership in a time of crisis: Lessons learned from a

- pandemic. *Best Practice & Research Clinical Anaesthesiology*, 35, 405-414.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative research in psychology*, 3(2), 77–101.
- Bruns, D.P., Kraguljac, N.V., & Bruns, T.R. (2020). COVID-19: facts, cultural considerations, and risk stigmatization. *Journal of Transcultural Nursing*, 31(4), 326-332.
- Cheney, G., Christensen, L. T., Zorn, T. E. J., & Ganesh, S. (2004). *Organizational communication in an age of globalization: Issues, reflections, practices*. Prospect Heights, Illinois: Waveland Press, Inc.
- Duong, D.C., Thi Le, V., Thu Ha, B.T. (2020). Controlling the COVID-19 pandemic in Vietnam: lessons from a limited resource country. *Asia pacific journal of public health*, 1-2. DOI: 10.1177/1010539520927290.
- Elledge, B.L., Brand, M., Regens, J.L., Boatright, D.T. (2008). Implications of public understanding of avian influenza for fostering effective risk communication. *Health Promotion Practice*, 9, (4), pp. 54–59. DOI: 10.1177/1524839908319089.
- Fairclough, N. (1992). *Discourse and social change*. Cambridge: Polity Press
- Fairhurst, G. T. (2007). *Discursive leadership: In conversation with leadership psychology*. Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.
- Fairhurst, G. T. (2008). Discursive leadership: A communication alternative to leadership psychology. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 21(4), 510–521.
- Fairhurst, T. (2009). Considering context in discursive leadership research. *Human Relations*, 62(11), 1587–1605.
- Fairhurst, G. T., & Grant, D. (2010). The social construction of leadership: A sailing guide. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 24(2), 171–210.

-
- Foucault, M. (1980). *Power/knowledge: Selected interviews and other writings 1972–1977*. New York: Pantheon.
- Grint, K. (2001). *The Arts of Leadership*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hsu, Y. C., Chen, Y. L., Wei, H. N., Yang, Y. W., & Chen, Y. H. (2017). Risk and outbreak communication: Lessons from Taiwan's experiences in the post-SARS Era. *Health Security, 15*(2), 165–169.
- Jian, G., Schmisser, A., & Fairhurst, G. T. (2008). Organizational discourse and communication: The progeny of Proteus. *Discourse & Communication, 2*(3): 299–320.
- Jong., W. (2021). Evaluating Crisis Communication. A 30-item Checklist for Assessing Performance during COVID-19 and Other Pandemics. *Journal of Health Communication, 25*(12), 962–970.
- Kelly, S., White, M. I., Martin, D., & Rouncefield, M. (2006). Leadership refrains: Patterns of leadership. *Leadership, pp. 2*, 181–201.
- Kerrissey, M. J & Edmondson, A. C. (2020). Crisis management: What good leadership looks like during this pandemic. *Harvard Business Review*. <https://hbr.org/2020/04/what-good-leadership-looks-like-during-this-pandemic>.
- Kreuter, M.W., McClure, S.M. (2004). The role of culture in health communication. *Annual Review of Public Health, (25)*: 439 – 55.
- Laturrakhmi, Y.F. (2018). Menelaah fungsi cultural mediator dalam promosi vaksin di pedesaan. *Interaktif, 4*(2), 247- 269.
- Laturrakhmi, Y. F., Swastikawara, S., & Wardasari, N. (2020). Analisis perilaku masyarakat pedesaan terhadap asuransi kesehatan nasional dalam perspektif komunikasi kesehatan. *Komuniti: Jurnal Komunikasi dan Teknologi Informasi, 12*(2), 87-100.
- Lin, L., Jung, M., McCloud, R.F., Viswanath, K. (2014). Media use and communication inequalities in a public health emergency: a case study of 2009-2010 pandemic influenza A virus subtype H1N1. *Public Health Report, 129*(Suppl 4), pp. 49–60.

- Liu, B. F., & Fraustino, J. D. (2014). Beyond image repair: Suggestions for crisis communication theory development. *Public Relations Review*, 40 (3), 543–546.
- Nugroho, Y., & Syarief, S. S. (2021). *Grave Failures in Policy and Communication in Indonesia during the COVID-19 Pandemic* (No. 113). ISEAS Yusof Ishak Institute.
- Oktaviani, F. H., McKenna, B., & Fitzsimmons, T. (2021). Trapped within ideological wars: Femininities in a Muslim society and the contest of women as leaders. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 28(3), 1152-1176.
- Paton, D., Parkes, B., Daly, M., Smith, L. (2008). Fighting the flu: developing sustained community resilience and preparedness. *Health promotion practice*, 9(4), pp. 45–53. DOI: 10.1177/1524839908319088.
- Quinn, S.C. (2008). Crisis and emergency risk communication in a pandemic: a model of building capacity and resilience of minority community. *Health promotion practice*, 9(4), pp. 18–25.
- Van Leeuwen, T. dan Wodak, R. (1999). Legitimizing immigration control: a Discourse historical analysis. *Discourse Studies*, 1(1): 83–118.
- WHO (2022) *Coronavirus disease (COVID-19) pandemic*, WHO, www.who.int/emergencies/diseases/novel-coronavirus-2019.
- Wilson, S., (2020). Pandemic leadership: Lessons from New Zealand's approach to COVID-19. *Leadership*, 16(3) 279– 293.
- Wodak, R. (2021). Crisis communication and crisis management during COVID-19. *Global Discourse*. Vol 11 (3), 329–35

Nilam Wardasari

Abstract

social media has transformed how PR practitioners communicate with the public. Social media enables dynamic and transactional interactions, facilitating the sharing of information, knowledge, trust, values, and opinions informally or formally. The use of social media by public relations practitioners has grown due to advantages such as the ability to convey various types of messages, a broad reach, message reception speed, two-way interaction, and opportunities for message distribution by the audience. However, the use of social media also brings threats, such as the blurring of boundaries between professional and personal realms, as well as concerns related to an organization's failure to engage in dialogues on social media. Therefore, the appropriate strategy is needed in utilizing social media, especially in campaign programs. This paper discusses the role of social media in Public Relations practices and PR campaign strategies on social media.

Keywords

Public Relations · Campaigns · Social Media

N. Wardasari

Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science,
Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

e-mail: nilamwardasari@ub.ac.id

3.1 Public Relations and Social Media

The communication media used and monitored by public relations practitioners have undergone significant changes. Traditional or conventional media (such as radio, TV, newspapers, and magazines) used to be common communication tools. However, social media has become increasingly popular and has the potential to change the way PR practitioners communicate (Bridgen, 2011). Social media could even be seen as an extension of an organization's communication to its public, rooted in a commitment to relationships and dialogue (Kim, 2021). Social media is a digital platform that enables individuals, groups, communities, and organizations not only to communicate but also to interact dynamically and transactionally, allowing the creation and sharing of information, knowledge, trust, values, and opinions through informal and/or formal dialogues (Vieira, 2019). The level of public consumption of social media continues to increase yearly, necessitating adaptations by PR practitioners in the use of communication media, transitioning from conventional to social media for enhanced utilization.

Khang et al. mentioned that adopting social media has impacted various aspects of the PR profession (Luo et al., 2015). The adoption and skills related to social media among PR practitioners have shown diverse outcomes. This finding is supported by Sweetser and Kelleher (2011), who suggested that senior public relations professionals demonstrate leadership by cultivating the use of social media among their internal audience (Luo et al., 2015). Sweetser and Kelleher (Luo et al., 2015) also recommend that PR leaders focus on how to use social media platforms to encourage interaction with both internal and external audiences. This action is necessary because social media has advantages over the once-established conventional media. These advantages include the ability to convey diverse message types (text, photos, audio, video, files, links), the capacity to reach a wide and varied audience, the speed of message reception, simultaneous message reception by a broad and diverse audience, two-way communication allowing direct/indirect feedback and the audience's ability to distribute messages to others. Supported by Vieira (2019), today's social media users can create content and engage in a free transactional flow of information and dialogue.

The use of social media by public relations is undeniable and continues to evolve for several reasons, as stated by Seitel (2017): a) the world's largest repository of information, b) accommodating interactions from all parties, c) the fastest publication platform, and d) the need for adaptation. Therefore, as PR professionals become acquainted with social media, mastery of social media and knowledge of the effectiveness of internet use have become essential requirements in PR practice.

Several previous studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of utilizing social media in PR practice. For example, Porter, Trammel, Chung, and Kim (2007) in (Luo et al., 2015) found that PR professionals who frequently use blogs gain more recognition for their competencies or skills than their counterparts who do not blog. According to Diga & Kelleher (2009), PR professionals who use social networking sites more often report greater perceptions of their structural power, expertise, and prestige compared to those who use them less frequently (Luo et al., 2015). Other studies (Levenshus, 2010; Park & Reber, 2008; Seltzer & Mitrook, 2007) also reveal that various social media platforms are beneficial for practitioners to monitor the environment, listen to the public, and engage in dialogue (Luo et al., 2015).

Consistent with what was revealed in previous research by Briones et al. (2011), Curtis et al. (2010), Diga & Kelleher (2009), Freberg (2012), Sweetser & Kelleher (2011), PR leaders have recognized several fundamental and instrumental impacts of social media on practices, including: (1) "broadcasting" or "promoting" key messages; (2) building a participatory, interactive, problem-solving virtual community as a strategic function of social media; (3) monitoring stakeholders' attitudes, attention, and needs online; and (4) proactively monitoring issues and managing organizational crises. These "fundamental" roles of social media, when strategically managed by PR practitioners (Luo et al., 2015), can pave the way for organizations to achieve various program objectives.

However, behind these advantages of social media also lie threats that PR must anticipate in utilizing social media. This channel allows the sharing of information about topics related to audience interests or themes, crossing boundaries of niche, global, or both audiences, blurring traditional demarcations, and allowing discussions between professionals and individuals without clear differentiations between the two (Bridgen, 2011). According to McAllister-Spooner (2009) and Sommerfeldt et al. (2012),

concerns arise if organizations fail to fulfill their promise of dialogue on social media (LaMarre & Lambrecht, 2013). The impact of social media on PR practices holds the potential to open new communication opportunities while simultaneously transforming how organizations disseminate and receive information (Bridgen, 2011).

3.2 Campaign as a Public Relations Program

According to Rogers & Storey, a campaign is a consciously designed, gradual, and sustained process carried out over a specified period with the aim of influencing attitudes, opinions, and even behavioral changes in the target audience. The objectives of the campaign become the goals of public relations. Public relation is a management function that evaluates public attitudes, identifies policies, individual and organizational procedures of public interest, and plans and implements action programs to gain understanding and acceptance from the public (Cutlip et al., 2007). Grunig and Hunt define public relations as the production of content and the management of communication between an organization and its public to shape perceptions (MacKenziea *et al.*, 2018).

A campaign is one of the programs within the realm of public relations. Through a campaign program, the objectives of public relations can be achieved, such as facilitating mutual understanding between the organization and the public regarding the raised issues, addressing specific public concerns and needs related to particular issues, creating and guiding positive public opinions, and establishing or maintaining relationships with the public.

This concept is reinforced by Omilion-Hodges (2014), who emphasizes that public relation involves the strategic use of communication to build relationships as an effort to educate, change, and reinforce opinions and behaviors (Destrity & Wardasari, 2022). In doing so, a public relations campaign is a planned, systematic, and ongoing program that utilizes strategic communication to establish relationships to educate, change, and reinforce public opinions and behaviors.

3.3 Public Relations Campaign Strategy on Social Media

The changing role of traditional media due to the rise of new media in consumption and influence has significantly impacted public relations campaign strategies concerning storytelling and content management (Ginesta et al., 2017). A campaign, akin to other public relations programs, should ideally adhere to the process of public relations management. This is because programs conceived by public relations inherently possess their distinct objectives. Thus, these objectives can serve as indicators of a program's success. Should a public relations program deviate from its objectives, it becomes ineffective (Wardasari, 2018).

The public relations management process that can be applied in social media public relations campaigns encompasses:

3.3.1 Problem Definition

This stage entails identifying and monitoring the knowledge, opinions, attitudes, and behaviors of parties to comprehend the needs or issues of the public (Cutlip et al., 2007). This function acts as the bedrock for all steps in problem-solving by ascertaining "What is happening right now?" Reinforced by Ginesta (2017), when a PR professional oversees and guides strategic communication policies, ensuring coherence and alignment with public expectations is vital (Ginesta et al., 2017).

In a campaign program, PR practitioners pinpoint prevalent issues or public needs. For instance, PR professionals monitor online mass media and observe that Indonesia ranks second globally regarding diabetes cases. Online mass media monitoring is selected as a data collection method via online documentation. Identification methods can also encompass interviews with health experts to gather supporting data related to the issue. Several identification methods can be employed, spanning formal and informal research methods. Formal research is a process of identification employing scientific methods. Informal research is a method to gain an in-depth understanding of the audience without adhering to strict scientific research methodologies (Cutlip et al., 2007).

Kim refers to this stage as "Listening." Listening is the initial step in crafting a strategic social media campaign (Kim, 2021). This stage is also known as the research phase, where PR collects data needed to make decisions based on information that constitutes the campaign's foundation. Prior to launching a campaign, PR practitioners must conduct research to fathom the audience, communication media preferences, beliefs, and goals (Omilion-Hodges, 2014). Two primary realms are encompassed in the listening phase: essential background and social landscape (Omilion-Hodges, 2014).

The essential background holds significance because when devising a social media campaign that genuinely advances an organization's objectives, comprehending the organization itself is crucial, such as the mission statement, organizational structure, communication audit, policies, and procedures.

The second realm within the listening phase is the social landscape. Its purpose is to identify ongoing conversations on social media that might pertain to the organization, who is engaged in those conversations, and how the organization can engage in dialogue. This endeavors to monitor emerging issues, aiming that the campaign's objectives remain relevant to public needs or issues. For PR professionals, listening is a comprehensive research approach as it allows PR to precisely grasp diverse issues and public needs, thereby furnishing the basis/guidance for PR to delineate its program objectives. For instance, when an organization disregards various social, health, political, economic, environmental, educational, and other issues of particular concern to the public due to their direct relevance to community well-being, the public becomes more attuned to various information connected to those issues.

Reflecting on the COVID-19 pandemic, at its onset, ample information was needed by the public about preventing COVID-19 infection. It would have been pertinent if organizations contributed to government endeavors by disseminating the 5M health protocols (mask usage, hand washing, maintaining distance, avoiding crowds, and limiting movement) through their PR campaigns. However, this differs if campaigns for health protocols persist post-COVID pandemic, as they no longer encompass pertinent issues or public needs. Contemplating the Uses and Gratification Theory, drawn from mass communication theory, Kriyantono (2017) posits that public relations, being audience-oriented, must initiate the communication

process from the vantage point of understanding the audience first (who are they? What are their characteristics? What do they require? Does the generated message align with the audience's needs?) (Kriyantono, 2017).

3.3.2 Strategic Planning

Subsequent to amassing data on public issues or needs, the subsequent step involves devising a strategic plan for the social media campaign. In this stage, the information garnered in the prior step is employed to determine the campaign's objectives, strategies to realize those objectives, alongside tactics and targets. This phase takes into account the findings from the previous step in formulating policies and campaign programs. Kim underscores that following formative research in the listening phase and formulating ideas to translate data into a problem statement/opportunity, the ensuing step involves charting the overarching strategy for the campaign program (Kim, 2021).

Before designing a campaign, an organization must solidify its overarching objectives and approach to social media. In its absence, a social media professional must commence by crafting a social media strategic plan that functions as a guiding framework for the social media campaign (Kim, 2021). For instance, following research data acquisition through online media monitoring and analysis regarding prevalent societal issues in Indonesia over the past month, data reveals that Indonesia ranks second globally regarding the highest number of diabetes patients. In response, the organization can contribute to addressing this issue by delineating the campaign program's objectives: a) Enhancing Indonesians' comprehension of the significance of health, b) Raising awareness among Indonesians about the perils of diabetes as a potentially fatal disease, and c) Altering the attitudes and behaviors of Indonesians to curtail consumption of diabetes-inducing foods or beverages.

In this strategic planning phase, program goals are translated into strategies and tactics to achieve each goal. For instance, public relations creates a campaign video on social media, utilizing a parody theme. The message conveyed in the parody reminds the public that indulging in pleasures, especially sugary ones, leads to short-term enjoyment. Public relations avoids messages with a central route strategy (containing detailed information about death rates, diabetes causes, the dangers of diabetes in

the body, and various substances in sweet foods, presented with scientific vocabulary and complex graphics that are hard to comprehend for the general audience). This is what is referred to as strategic planning. Through strategic planning, public relations sorts strategies and tactics that can either support or hinder the achievement of campaign program goals.

Social media campaigns allow organizations to design plans around specific topics on social media strategically. Crafting a strategic social media plan becomes a unifying parameter and guide for all campaigns an organization produces. Several factors to consider when designing social media public relations campaigns are as follows (Kim, 2021):

3.3.2.1 Developing Campaign Objectives

Objectives for social media campaigns should be data-driven, not merely based on reactions. A comprehensive review of research and organizational needs should be conducted before setting social media campaign objectives (Kim, 2021). However, the most urgent aspects should naturally be rooted in data-driven public needs or issues while aligning with the organization's principles. Public relations campaigns usually target specific segments with specific ideas (Upadhyay & Upadhyay, 2019). Every organization needs to understand the emotions generated through its PR campaigns.

3.3.2.2 Identifying the Audience

After defining campaign objectives, identifying a more precise audience is crucial for campaign success. An organization may have various primary and secondary audiences, and each campaign should be tailored to the most relevant audience for a specific purpose. In this context, it is crucial to consider which audience or community is specifically involved in the success of a particular campaign's objectives (Kim, 2021). Audiences experiencing particular issues or needs are most suitable. The audience identified during the issue identification phase proves helpful during this stage. Analyze the audience's characteristics (demographics, cultural background, education, occupation, beliefs, held values, customs, etc.). This is necessary to pinpoint audience relevance and serves as a foundation for determining future campaign strategies. If the target audience's characteristics for the campaign program are highly educated working

individuals, selecting a central route message can still be compelling and comprehensible. However, it is vital to consider the audience's available time to receive the campaign message, influencing message delivery quantity and duration. Additionally, public relations must create audience profiles for each primary audience involved in the campaign (Kim, 2021).

3.3.2.3 SMART Objectives

SMART Objectives consist of Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Relevant, and Timely elements. As in strategic planning, it is crucial to create SMART-based outcome objectives for the campaign. These objectives must directly support the goals set for the campaign. If the campaign's audience is initially identified and their profiles are developed, SMART objectives can be more strategic and precise. This also provides a clearer understanding of who the audience is, what they need and desire from the organization, and what behaviors are typical. This information provides data to develop achievable and relevant objectives suitable for the campaign (Kim, 2021).

3.3.2.4 Strategy

With goals, audience, and targets established, the next step is formulating strategies to achieve the campaign's objectives. Strategy is the "overall concept, approach, or general plan for a program designed to achieve goals—how and why the campaign components will achieve the goal?" (Kim, 2021). Essentially, the strategy outlines the way or approach through which the campaign will effectively work towards achieving the goals. There could be multiple strategies to attain each goal. Creativity and precision are necessary to identify activities and initiatives beneficial to the campaign and essential for goal success.

3.3.2.5 Tactics

After designing the strategy, the next step is to determine tactics. Kim (2021) defines tactics as the "nuts and bolts of a plan." Tactics are specific activities and tasks that must be completed to fulfill the strategy. Create a list of all the specific parts and actions required to make the strategy successful. For instance, public relations creates a campaign video on

social media as a strategy for the "healthy living, reduce sugar & diabetes-free" campaign. Numerous tactics need to be executed to achieve this, such as designing an engaging video message concept, identifying suitable influencers, determining the video's duration, choosing easily understandable vocabulary, selecting the right setting and timing context for the video, or choosing the right time to publish on social media. When compiling a list of tactics, consider the following: "If all these tactics happen, will it make the strategy successful?" If so, proceed. If not, it is time to reassess the tactics (Kim, 2021).

3.3.2.6 Key Message

The choice of message should align with the campaign's audience. Public relations needs to determine the main message. The key message is the core concept or elevator pitch to develop other communication components (Kim, 2021). One or two sentences representing the essence of the campaign need to be thoughtfully crafted, taking into account the campaign's objectives, audience characteristics, and the nature of the social media platforms to be used. For instance, "Sugar is delicious, but excess can be harmful. Let's be smart about sugar consumption for a healthier life."

3.3.2.7 Message Map

A message map serves as a communication guide on social platforms. A message map can be defined as a "framework used to create compelling and relevant messages for various audience segments" (Kim, 2021). When developing a message map, identifying commonalities or shared interests between the organization and the primary audience can strengthen relations and communication. There are several steps in creating a message map. First, create guidelines for communicating the key message on various platform types. Using the same essential message development on all types of social media platforms is not recommended. For instance, while it might be suitable to include supporting data details from the key message on Instagram through the feed feature, the same message might not work on other platforms like Twitter and YouTube. A message map with concepts more aligned with each media type's characteristics is necessary. Remember that a message map is not a copy-paste place to put all social

content. A message map is where to model how to effectively communicate the key message in various places for the campaign (Kim, 2021). Second, consider crafting supportive messages by involving various relevant or credible individuals related to the campaign theme, such as articulating key messages with facts and statistics, using stories and anecdotes (pathos), and testimonials or endorsements and success stories (the soul of a nation) (Kim, 2021). This action can enhance message quality and credibility for easier audience acceptance.

This concept is further reinforced by Ginesta et al., stating that the effectiveness of public relations in selecting media for a campaign program consistently depends on the ability to create messages or stories based on organizational values, the ability to engage opinion leaders, and the effectiveness in selecting the appropriate channels and techniques for message publication (Ginesta et al., 2017).

3.3.2.8 Budget and Resources

The final component when designing a campaign is identifying the budget and resources required. Do not think that a social media campaign does not incur costs. Staff working hours, funds for compensation, time for graphic creation, and various other elements are needed to make a campaign successful. A social media professional must be able to identify these needs and document them for the campaign. The first step is to create a list of all the resources needed. This should include social media monitoring needs, staff time, creative design, etc. Next, add a column next to each of these items and list the required costs.

3.3.3 Taking Action and Communicating

This phase involves implementing action programs and communication strategies designed to achieve specific target audience goals to fulfill program objectives (Cutlip et al., 2007). In this stage, public relations executes all the strategies and tactics designed earlier. This stage can be called the phase of communicating the campaign message design to the audience. Some key points to consider during this phase are consistency with campaign goals and detailed regular impact monitoring. Both are required during implementing strategies and tactics to prevent implementation errors that could hinder the achievement of campaign

objectives. If adverse or unexpected effects are identified through monitoring, alternative strategies or tactics can be adjusted promptly.

Smith categorizes the process of the implementation phase as follows:

a) Packaging Communication Tactics, where proper steps must be identified for execution beforehand, b) Thinking Creatively, using innovative approaches in packaging and executing tactics is necessary. Creative thinking is needed for alternative solutions if the tactic execution deviates from expectations, c) Putting the Program Together, good teamwork is required for implementation. There is no one-size-fits-all practical format for every problem-solving solution, so let common sense guide the process (Smith, 2013).

Kim (2021) emphasizes that organizations can form "social care" teams in this stage to help establish accessibility, responsiveness, and interaction. The concept of "social care" involves engaging all stakeholders on social media channels to strengthen the organization's credibility and reputation, aiming to foster loyalty and commitment from the public (Kim, 2021). These teams usually have representatives from various organizational departments such as marketing, HR, legal, communication, PR, etc. Through these "social care" teams, effective responses to various stakeholder communication elements can be achieved. As highlighted by Keith Quesenberry?, Allocating social responsibilities to relevant individuals across the organization can be efficient, effective, and help enable scalable one-on-one customer engagement (Kim, 2021). Scalability is achieved through increased capacity by adding human resources, namely the "social care" team, which significantly enhances the implementation of campaigns on social media. This is crucial due to the extensive reach and quantity of the social media public.

In this implementation phase, social media communicators need to consider several aspects as follows (Kim, 2021):

- Communication should be targeted specifically to individuals who are the intended audience of the campaign.
- It should be open, meaning that the information provided is transparent and honest, both on a personal level and to the broader audience.
- Collaboration among departments in the social media campaign is necessary. This ensures that if individual public members require information from one or more departments, the "social care" team can

respond directly rather than requiring the individual to email or call multiple other departments. This highlights the importance of cross-functional teams in social media.

- Immediate response is crucial for individuals, requiring a dedicated team that actively listens and interacts on social media, not only during crises.
- Authenticity is essential, where communication on social media is designed to build relationships focused on values of mutual respect and transparency that center around the public.
- Loyalty is the ultimate outcome of communication on social media. If interactions on social media are deemed ineffective for certain public members, the team can consider alternative media strategies to improve or enhance these interactions.

3.3.4 Evaluating the Program

This phase involves assessing the preparation, implementation, and outcomes of the program (Cutlip et al., 2007), commonly referred to as evaluation. Evaluation has been described as "transdisciplinary" (Scriven, 1996) in (Theaker & Alison, 2012), applicable to many fields with efficiency, effectiveness, and impact being vital concerns (Rossi & Freeman, 1989) in (Theaker, 2012), especially in goal-oriented campaign programs. The ability to evaluate program effectiveness is a crucial skill in strategic communication planning (Smith, 2009 in Theaker & Alison, 2012). This is reinforced by Weiss (1972) in (Theaker & Alison, 2012), defining evaluation as measuring a program's impact on its objectives.

Assessment can be done by determining if the campaign program objectives were achieved. If they were, did the public issues identified in the problem identification stage get resolved? Were the public needs fulfilled? If yes, the campaign program can be deemed successful.

However, if the intended program objectives were not achieved, public relations should review the earlier stages. There might be strategies designed but not implemented effectively. If the overall strategy has been implemented well, a backward reflection is needed to assess whether the designed strategy is suitable for achieving the campaign objectives. Similarly, the set objectives should be evaluated to determine if they

adequately address public issues or needs. Furthermore, public relations can utilize evaluation data to determine the next campaign program. The importance of evaluation before and during program execution is emphasized, highlighting that evaluation is not merely a retrospective analysis conducted after the program concludes (Theaker & Alison, 2012). Evaluation can be formative and summative, involving assessments of needs, program concepts, implementation, impact, and efficiency (Rossi et al., 2004 in Theaker and Alison, 2012).

Theaker (2012) affirms that if evaluation is seen as a fundamental component of professional practice (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 1985), similarly, L'Etang (2008) states that evaluation has the potential to enhance the credibility of the public relations industry and contribute to achieving professional status (Theaker & Alison, 2012). Public relations evaluation consistently emerges as a major research priority for practitioners, academics, and researchers (Watson, 2008). In the reporting, it is also necessary to consider the perspective on the success or failure of the campaign, convey various experiences and findings acquired, and reflect the strategic choices made during the campaign implementation. The report should clearly explain whether the objectives have been achieved, list the indicators that influenced the campaign's achievement, and reflect the strategic decisions made during the campaign execution (Kim, 2021).

When utilizing social media, particularly in public relations campaign programs, there are several aspects to consider (Vieira, 2019):

- *Credibility*

Effective communication on social media relies on using credible message sources. Credibility comprises three dimensions: trustworthiness, competence, and charisma (Vieira, 2019). a) Trustworthiness refers to the reputation and integrity of the message source contributing to trust; b) Competence involves the knowledge level of the message source. For instance, a health-related message from a doctor is the source, and c) Charisma influences attractiveness. Charisma is subjective and includes personality attributes, energy level, and common likability. For example, individuals with high empathy and charisma can enhance connection and persuasiveness with the audience.

- *Loyalty*

Loyalty indicates a positive relationship between two parties: the organization and the audience. This positive relationship includes a dedication to products, services, brands, individuals, groups, organizations, or objectives—loyalty into three aspects. Firstly, loyalty requires a positive attitude towards the organization or brand. Secondly, repeated pro-organizational behavior is a component of loyalty. Lastly, those loyal to an organization or brand become advocates. They spread positive word-of-mouth and share beneficial content about the organization. (Vieira, 2019). Credible messages naturally pave the way for relationship-building. Organizations, through public relations, advocate messages through likes, shares, and other positive behaviors.

- *Spreading the Word, Spreading the Behavior*

Howe (2016) said that the widespread phenomenon of online sharing activities has become a tool for disseminating information and encouraging behavior. This phenomenon is called crowdsourcing, which comes in various forms (Vieira, 2019). Vieira (2019) defines crowdsourcing as building knowledge and engagement through collective efforts in response to calls to action to address situations or achieve goals. The nature of crowdsourcing depends on the activity's purpose (Vieira, 2019). Communication mainly occurs online through social media and other contact forms. Through crowdsourcing, public relations campaigns on social media can be much more effective if targeted and strategized correctly.

- *Social Media Influencers*

Social media influencers are opinion leaders who wield influence in social media. They can be individuals, groups, or other organizations functioning as trustworthy and objective third parties. The basis of their influence could be emotional and/or cognitive, depending on their expertise or knowledge level on a given topic. Social media influencers with fitting characteristics can be credible in the eyes of their followers. A few ways to measure the influence of social media influencers are:

- a) Determining the number of followers they have on specific social media platforms. Keep in mind that the definition of followers varies across social media (Vieira, 2019). An actor on Facebook and Instagram might not have the same amount of followers.

- b) Dominant follower characteristics. These follower characteristics can be identified when determining the target audience for the campaign program. An influencer with the most Instagram followers in Indonesia might not effectively convey our campaign message. For instance, a campaign promoting wise sugar consumption to avoid diabetes might not be suitable if delivered by an actress who is overweight, even if she has the highest number of followers. It would be suitable if the message is conveyed by an actress who is also a doctor with a reputable track record.

References

- Bridgen, L. (2011). Emotional labor and the pursuit of the personal brand: Public relations practitioners' use of social media. *Journal of Media Practice*, 12(1), pp. 61–76. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1386/jmpr.12.1.61_1.
- Cutlip, S.M., Center, A.H. & Broom, G.M. (2007). *Effective Public Relations*. Jakarta: Kencana Prenada Media Group.
- Destriy, N.A. and Wardasari, N. (2022) 'Rancangan Model Promosi Kesehatan di Tempat Kerja Melalui Kampanye Public Relations', 19(1), 35–50. <https://doi.org/10.24002/jik.v19i1.3851>
- Ginesta, X., Ordeix, E. and Rom, J. (2017). 'Managing Content in Cross-Cultural Public Relations Campaigns: A Case Study of the Paris Terrorist Attacks', *American Behavioral Scientist*, 61(6), pp. 624– 632. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764217693280>.
- Jurnal ILMU KOMUNIKASI*, 19(1), pp. 35–50. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.24002/jik.v19i1.3851>.
- Kim, C.M. (2021). *Social Media Campaign: Strategies for Public Relations & Marketing*. Oxfordshire: Routledge
- Kriyantono, R. (2017) *Teori Teori Public Relations: Perspektif Barat dan Lokal*. Jakarta. Jakarta: Prenada Media Group.

- LaMarre, H.L. and Lambrecht, Y.S. (2013). Tweeting democracy_ Examining Twitter as an online public relations strategy for congressional campaigns' - ScienceDirect, *Public Relations Review*, 39(4), pp. 360–368.
- Luo, Y., Jiang, H. and Kulemeka, O. (2015). 'Strategic Social Media Management and Public Relations Leadership: Insights from Industry Leaders', *International Journal of Strategic Communication*, 9(3), pp. 167–196. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1553118X.2014.960083>.
- MacKenzie, R. *et al.* (2018). 'The tobacco industry's challenges to standardized packaging_ A comparative analysis of issue framing in public relations campaigns in four countries - ScienceDirect,' *Health Policy*, 122(9), pp. 1001–1011.
- Omilion-Hodges, L.M. (2014). *Public Relations and Health Promotion, Encyclopedia of Health Communication*. California: Sage Publication.
- Seitel, F.P. (2017). *The Practice of Public Relations*. England: Pearson Education Limited.
- Smith, R.D. (2013). *Strategic Planning For Public Relations*. New York: Routledge.
- Theaker & Alison (2012). *The Public Relations Handbook Financial*. Available at: www.thesparkuk.com.
- Upadhyay, S. & Upadhyay, N. (2019). Investigating Prime Minister Narendra Modi's Usage of Pathos in the Cyber-Physical Society – A Case of Public Relations Campaign. *Procedia Computer Science*, 162, pp. 400–404.
- Vieira, E.T. (2019). *Public Relations Planning: A Strategic Approach*. New York. Available at: <http://taylorandfrancis.com>.
- Wardasari, N. (2018) Penggunaan Riset Oleh Praktisi Public Relations Dalam Menentukan Program, *Jurnal Nomosleca*, 4(2).

Online Media Activism and Political Participation of Urban Young Adults in Indonesia

4

Isma Adila, Ika Rizki Yustisia, and Fitria Avicenna

Abstract

This study identifies the development of aspirations of the young generation in urban environments in Indonesia regarding political participation. The rapidly growing internet penetration in Indonesia is eliminating the distance between communities, and hence, people from urban and rural environments can connect. They engage every day via mobile. The involvement of online tools allows the opportunity for people to exchange ideas and then decide to collaborate. This condition makes a person change their perspective, namely how to interpret a country, leaders, the environment, and their ability to create a better environment. Among all age ranges, the younger generation is the fastest to adopt change, including technology and the internet. For this reason, in this research, several problem formulations are proposed, such as the demographics and distribution of the young generation in Indonesia who participate in politics, as well as how the young generation in Indonesia uses online media for political participation. In order to answer this question, this research uses descriptive quantitative research. Data will be collected through an online survey. This survey aims at basic information such as participants' personal information, the type of online environment they easily and frequently access to carry out political participation, the forms of political participation they undertake, etc. The young generation who will be the focus of this research is aged 17-25. With this population, the quota sampling method was chosen so that a minimum of 900 responses were expected to be obtained. By carrying out these steps, several results are expected. First, we can find out the age group considered the younger generation, especially young adults, who actively participate in politics through online media in Indonesia. Second, the variety of their activities in political participation. Third, their hopes and motivation by carrying out activities related to political participation. Fourth, mention that their online environment is easily and frequently accessed for political participation activities and relevant explanations.

Keywords

 Urban Young Adults · Online Media Activism · Political Participation

I. Adila · I. R. Yustisia · F. Avicenna

Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science,
Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

e-mail: ismaadila@ub.ac.id; yustisia.ika@ub.ac.id; fitria.avicenna@ub.ac.id

ENVIRONMENTS ARE CONNECTED. They engage daily in the online environment via mobile phones. Online engagement allows opportunities for people to exchange individual ideas and, in so doing, to decide collaborative attitudes and behaviors. At that time, he changed the people's aspirations towards their country, leaders, environment, and their ability to create a better environment. Among a group of people, the younger generation is fast adopting constant changes (namely technology and the internet). Through the results of HIVOS and DEMOS research in 2016, political participation is defined as the activities of citizens, including young people aged 15-30 years, to influence government actions, either directly by providing input on implementing public policies or indirectly by voting in the election of policymakers. Not limited to the realm of elections, one's political participation can be in various forms: nominating oneself to become chairman of an organization, giving advice/criticism on a policy, demonstrating, making petitions, or civil disobedience. The level of youth political participation is undoubtedly influenced by many factors, including exposure to knowledge of Human Rights (HAM), media exposure, family ties, and activeness in organizations.

According to <http://statista.com>, the most popular social media platform in Indonesia as of 2016 based on age group is Facebook, and Twitter is ranked third. The Facebook platform is in first place, with the number of users in the age range of 20-25 years at 86.1%, Instagram users at 73.8%, and Twitter users at 41.5%. Furthermore, in 2016, Twitter users reached 30.1 million users. According to Rabia Karakaya Polat (2005), the internet can increase participation because it is easier and more convenient to search for information and public spaces. However, if the lack of political participation stems from a lack of resources or motivation, the potential role of the internet will be less significant. The use of the media for news, culture, and political engagement is an essential part of the

country's shared democratic political system (Saldaña et al. de Zúñiga, 2015).

Although it is recognized that the media has more influence on political participation behavior, several studies have been conducted to look at cross-national comparisons that lead to reporting on political involvement and its impact on society (Saldaña et al., 2015). It is this reporting that influences the perspective of young people as first-time voters in elections. Moreover, there is much news about politics in Indonesia that is negative. The media also causes a negative image of political parties or political parties. The activities issued or carried out by political parties or political parties create negative perceptions of the media, especially the mass media.

Meanwhile, according to data from the central KPU, the number of first-time voters cannot be considered minor. At least in the last simultaneous Pilkada, the number of first-time voters in East Java province reached 1,863,770 people, equivalent to 6.2%. This amount is the most significant compared to Central Java and West Java.

Understanding democracy and human rights is a beneficial provision for young voters in facing the upcoming general elections. Apart from that, the ease of obtaining these understandings is also a dimension of human rights, including young voters in Indonesia. However, if this is not fulfilled, decision-makers always regard it as something commonplace with various justifications, such as that equity has not been achieved because Indonesia has such a vast geographical space. An example of political movements in the region is the emergence of advocacy in the form of online petitions. Although they are not directly involved in practical political contestation, this shows that the community, especially young people in the regions, are showing awareness and enthusiasm regarding political participation. No less important than online petitions is the phenomenon of high school students in Malang, East Java, holding demonstrations regarding the change of school principals. Even though it happened in a local context, in the end, this activity became national news through social media platforms. It was reinforced by one of the definitions of political participation, which can be considered as a person's intention to influence government actions through various activities, either directly by influencing the formation or implementation of public policies or indirectly by influencing decision-makers (Vitak et al., 2011).

Research on the theme of political participation and how youth use social media platforms has previously been carried out, namely Online Political Participation: A Study of Youth Usage of New Media using a survey method by Ali Salman and Suhana Saad from the National University of Malaysia. This research analyzes the use of new media among adolescents to measure their use in relation to political participation. Using the survey and questionnaire methods as the instruments used to obtain data, the findings of this study indicate that as many as 89% of teenagers in Malaysia are social media users. However, matters related to political participation, such as comments on social issues and the political environment, are still very low. These teenagers are more likely to use new media for entertainment and social networking. Another research with the same style is by Xinzhi Zhang and Wan-Ying Lin in a study entitled Political Participation in an Unlikely Place: How Individuals Engage in Politics through Social Networking Sites in China. In this research, we examine how individuals participate in politics through Social Networking Sites (SNS) in China, where channels for participation are restricted and the flow of online information is censored.

Departing from this phenomenon, researchers feel the need to conduct a study that measures youth political participation, which is not only measured in the dimensions of voting in elections but broad political participation and can have a direct impact on the lives of young people in schools or universities. Therefore, this research will focus on mapping how young people in Indonesia display political involvement, especially on social media platforms.

4.2 Youth Political Participation

4.2.1 Youth Apathy to Politics

The myth about political apathy and the low level of political participation of the younger generation is the subject of debate among academics. This is because several study results, which generally present quantitative data, tend to justify this view. Take the example of research by Pirie & Worcester (1998, in O'Toole & Meier, 2004), which refers to the younger generation

as the "apolitical generation" (apolitical generation). They can draw this conclusion by researching first-time voters in England who are part of the millennial generation. This research highlights the low political involvement of the millennial generation compared to the older cohort by looking at the low participation of young voters in voting activities and their lack of knowledge of political issues at the local and national levels.

In the Indonesian context, research conducted by (Alfioty Putri, 2015) on 81 first-time voters in the 2013 Riau Governor Election recorded several exciting findings. The majority of respondents (39.5%) stated that the reason why they did not vote (abstentions) was due to an attitude of anomie (in the form of a feeling that candidates only make promises and that the Pilkada election does not bring any changes), as much as 25.9% because of apathy, 18.5% cynicism, and another 16% due to alienation. Rush & Althoff (2003 in Alfioty Putri, 2015) explain 4 (four) types of attitudes as to why people avoid all forms of political participation or only participate at a lower level:

- *Apathy* refers to a lack of interest in or concern for other people, situations, or phenomena in general and in particular (ignorance). The most prominent trait of an apathetic person is his passivity in political activities.
- *Cynicism* is a feeling that internalizes the actions and motives of other people with a sense of suspicion, that pessimism is more realistic than optimism, and that individuals must pay attention to personal interests because society is ego-centric. Politically, cynicism is the feeling that politics is dirty. The feeling that politicians cannot be trusted and that individuals are the butt of groups that manipulate—an extraordinary cynic who feels that political participation in any form is useless and useless.
- *Alienation* is a person's feeling of alienation from politics.
- *Anomie* refers to feelings of loss of value and directionlessness, where individuals lose the urgency to act. After all, they feel that what they are doing is useless because they see that the authorities also do not care about them.

4.2.2 Millennial Generation and Social Media Activism

The millennial generation is a generation of citizens and supporters of change (Terrace, 2014). According to McCafferty (2011), new media technologies such as social media have provided a modern platform for individuals to engage in activism as they can easily reach out to their social connections and make them aware of socio-political issues. Marwell, Oliver, and Prahla (1988) argue that the centralization of network ties has a positive effect on collective action.

Table 4.1 Millennial Generation Political Activities in Social Media

<i>In the past week, which of the following have you done in Facebook/seen in your news feed?</i>	<i>Percent of sample performing this behavior¹</i>	<i>Percent of sample observing this behavior being performed by others²</i>
Added or deleted political information from their Facebook profile	5.8%	26.8%
Added or deleted an application that deals with politics	3.8%	19.8%
Became a "fan" of a political candidate or group	8.8%	51.0%
Discussed political information in a Facebook message	8.9%	n/a
Discussed political information using Facebook's instant messaging system	6.9%	n/a
Joined or left a group about politics	13.8%	51.2%
Posted a status update that mentions politics	18.4%	70.0%
Posted a photo that has something to do with politics	10.0%	49.3%
Posted a photo of someone at a political event	9.6%	48.4%
Posted a wall comment about politics	20.4%	43.2%
Posted a link about politics	6.1%	41.9%
Posted a Facebook Note that has something to do with politics	3.6%	35.5%
RSVPed for a political event	13.8%	42.5%
Took a quiz that about politics	2.7%	11.1%

Source: Vitak et al., (2011)

Several political activities that show a certain level of participation from the millennial generation are shown in Table 2.3 above. These activities include joining groups that discuss political issues, posting statuses related to politics, commenting on other parties' posts that talk about political issues, and so on.

4.3 Method

This study uses a type of quantitative research. According to Kriyantono (2006), quantitative research describes or explains a problem whose results can be generalized. Quantitative research is a scientific/scientific method because it fulfills scientific principles, namely concrete/empirical, objective, measurable, rational, and systematic. Data collection in this study was carried out by distributing surveys online. Surveys are data

collection by taking a sample from one population and using a questionnaire as a primary data collection tool (Singarimbun & Effendi, 1989). The survey approach used is descriptive. According to Kriyantono (2006), a descriptive survey is used to describe the population being studied to make a systematic, factual, and accurate description of the facts and characteristics of a particular population or object.

This research was conducted online so that it could reach wherever the location of the respondents, who are the younger generation of Indonesia. The research will be conducted from May 2018 to September 2018. In this study, the research population is all of Indonesia's young generation, especially first-time voters with an age range of 18-25 years. This study will use quota sampling, with a minimum response expected to collect as many as 900 responses.

Before distributing the questionnaires, a pre-test was carried out by distributing questionnaires to 30 respondents. The pre-test was carried out to ensure that the questions in the measuring instrument were well understood and unambiguous. In addition, it is also to find out that the measuring instruments used have met the standards of validity and reliability. The results of the reliability test show that the online media activism measurement tool is quite reliable ($\alpha=0.63$) and political participation with a reliability value of $\alpha=0.55$ by deleting question number 4 (Table 4.1). With df 28 (n-2), the probability is 0.05, then the r table is 0.3061. In Table 4.2, the invalid online media activism question items are numbers 1, 4, 7, and 9, with r counting below the r table. In table 4.3, the political participation question items number 2 and 3 are invalid. Thus, only responses to valid questions will be continued at the analysis stage.

A total of 298 responses were analyzed and presented in table 4.1. In this study, 185 women and 113 men participated. With a target age range of 17-25 years, 56% (168 people) are young Indonesians aged 20 to 22. 87% of the participants (260 people) were students or students, with 72% (215 people) having last education at the SMA/SMK level.

Table 4.1 Respondents' demography

No	Question		Total
1	Gender	Female	185
		Male	113

2	Age	20-22 years old	168
		17-19 years old	80
		23-25 years old	50
3	Occupation	Student/College student	260
		Private sector employee	19
		Government employee	8
		Others	7
		Entrepreneur	4
4	Last academic level	High school/Vocational high school	215
		Bachelor	68
		Diploma	8
		Master's degree	6
		Others	1
		Elementary school	0
		Secondary school	0
		Doctoral	0

Source: authors

Most of the participants in this study came from the island of Java. Table 4.2 shows that the five domicile cities with the highest percentage are Malang (53%), Jakarta (7%), Bandung (4%), Batu (3%), and Tangerang (3%). If grouped, then the participants from East Java Province were the most than from West Java.

Table 4.2 Participants domicile

Domicile	Total
Malang	157
Jakarta	21
Bandung	12
Batu	10
Tangerang	10
Yogyakarta	8
Depok	7

Bekasi	5
Kediri	5
Surabaya	5
Blitar	4
Gresik	4
Tulungagung	4
Banyuwangi	3
Bogor	3
Madiun	3
Medan	3
Pontianak	3
Denpasar	2
Jombang	2
Lamongan	2
Makassar	2
Padang	2
Ponorogo	2
Samarinda	2
Bangil	1
Bojonegoro	1
Cikarang	1
Cilacap	1
Cimahi	1
Gading Serpong	1
Kupang	1
Lampung	1
Magetan	1
Nganjuk	1
Ngawi	1
Palembang	1
Pamekasan	1

Semarang	1
Soe	1
Solo	1
Trenggalek	1

Source: authors

In order to complete the needs of analysis, it is also necessary to know the tendency of participants to use the media to seek political information. Participants can choose more than one medium that they use to search for and collect political information. The table below shows that the use of social media, in general, is still the primary choice of participants. Second, online news sites/portals are the following choices for seeking political information. Then, the participants' choices are video-sharing platforms, social messaging systems, and websites or blogs. Other alternative sources of political information are in the mass media, such as television, newspapers, and radio. In addition, discussions with friends are also an option for sources of political information.

Table 4.3 Online Media Activism

No.	Online Media Activism	Yes	No
1	Looking for political information	234	64
2	Write political information and upload it	32	266
3	Become a "follower/subscriber" of the account of a political party/politics-related news	110	188
4	Pressing the "like" button on certain political news accounts/political parties/political figures	171	127
5	Giving responses in the form of comments on political news accounts/political parties/certain political figures	64	234

Source: authors

Online Media activism related to political information is shown in Table 4.3. 79% (234 people) of participants actively seek political information. However, participants did not provide feedback either in the form of joining and being actively involved in political-themed groups on the Social Messaging System (96%), joining political-themed groups on the Social Messaging System (such as WhatsApp, LINE, etc.) (93%), write political information and upload it (89%), respond in the form of comments on political news accounts/political parties/specific political figures (79%),

respond (in the form of emoticons, affirmations, questions, discussions, or forms of rejection/disapproval) to political information in political-themed groups on the Social Messaging System (78%), disseminate (repost) political information in the form of writing, audio, or video on personal social media accounts (70%), become "followers/subscribers" of an account political parties/news related to politics (63%), and pressed the "like" button on certain political news accounts/political parties/political figures (43%).

4.4.1 Perceptions of the Young Generation Against Politics

The most concrete form of political participation is shown through the political behavior of citizens. Statistical data records increased abstention among active voters, especially young people. In the simultaneous local elections in 2015, for example, the abstention rate reached 30.86%. The same thing happened in the Presidential Election where in the 2004 Presidential Election, the number of abstentions was recorded at 23.4% in the second round and then increased to 28.3% in the 2009 Presidential Election and again increased in the 2014 Presidential Election to 29.1% (data quoted from the .com).

The low participation of the younger generation in the political process is often associated with a certain skepticism that their perception of politics is already wrong. It is too apathetic, does not care, is pessimistic that there will be changes for the better, and results in the absence of political trust (both towards political parties, political actors, and even the Government). This finding was confirmed through several previous studies such as that conducted by Alfioty Putri (2015), which showed that the majority of respondents (39.5%) stated that the reason why they did not vote (abstentions) was due to the background of anomie (in the form of a feeling that the candidate only made promises and that the post-conflict local elections are deemed not to have brought any change). The findings from this study show different results on the apolitical myths of the younger generation. A total of 65.1% of youth who were respondents in this study admitted that they were interested when they heard the word "politics."

They also have a good understanding of what an ideal power relationship should be between society and political elites in the context of democracy. This can be seen from the agreement of most respondents (60.1%) that in a democracy, it is not suitable if the political elite and the Government hold more significant influence and power than citizens. This also means that, in fact, the younger generation actively observes the implementation of political practices in the life of the state and critically evaluates how the management and abuse of power by political elites can potentially damage democratic life itself. For example, from the results of this study, the majority of respondents (83.9%) still feel that political parties do not represent the interests of Indonesia's younger generation. This means that the younger generation is politically "literate," not completely apolitical, nor completely silent. The criticism of the younger generation towards political elites and political parties is also not necessarily an expression of political cynicism.

Political cynicism, according to Rush & Althoff (2003), refers to the feeling of living the actions and motives of other people with a sense of suspicion that pessimism is more realistic than optimism. The results of research conducted by CSIS (Center for Strategic and International Studies) in 2017 show generational optimism among millennial youth towards the Jokowi-JK Government. The survey was conducted on 600 young people aged 17-29 years and showed that 75.3% of the young millennial generation are optimistic about the Government's ability to improve people's welfare. In addition, 82.5% of millennial youth are optimistic about the Government's ability to increase development (CSIS et al., 2017). These findings open up new optimism that the perception of the younger generation towards politics in Indonesia has started to improve.

Based on this explanation, we should not reduce political participation only to a binary perspective that divides the younger generation based on active-passive behavior in formal politics and electoral participation (voting). Considering how the younger generation perceives politics, it is essential to see and map their political participation in a broader dimension. Freedom of speech is responsible, which can encourage the younger generation to promote the sustainability of democracy in Indonesia. The results of this study indicate that 62.75% of respondents claimed to be

actively involved in political discussion forums. They also feel that their voices or opinions are heard in the forum.

4.4.2 Trends in Forms of Young Generation's Political Participation

The presence of the internet and new media has opened up space for the younger generation to participate in politics online. A study conducted by Wargain-angin (2014, in Pergin-angin & Zainal, 2018) on "The Role of Social Media on Beginner Voters' Political Participation in the 2014 Election" was conducted on 1028 high school/vocational high school students in 6 (six) major cities in Indonesia shows that even though their political participation is in the low category (88.1%), the use of social media among first-time voters is in the medium category (58.4%).

This study continued in 2018 by looking at the use of the internet and social media for young voters by conducting interviews with 63 students in 3 (three) major cities in Indonesia. The study results show that social media is currently the primary reference source for seeking news or political information. The usual online political participation activities are: (1) giving a "like" sign for information or political news shared from other friends; (2) giving a "like" sign to friends' comments on certain political news/information; (3) forwarding political news/information to other friends; and (4) provide personal comments on political information/news.

The results of this study show the same thing regarding the use of social media by the young millennial generation as a reference for seeking information or news about politics (75.2%). Interestingly, however, this study can map a different picture of the tendency of the younger generation to form political participation. Most of the younger generation (52%) still choose voting activities as their primary form of political participation. This finding is similar to a study conducted by Henn et al. (2002), which noted that although the younger generation's perception of formal politics tends to be negative, most respondents still have a solid intention to be involved in the voting process. More than 50% of respondents also disagreed that voting wastes time.

The political activities/actions of the younger generation are currently manifested in offline political participation (participation in formal politics) and online political participation. The order of political

participation is based on the highest preference to the lowest preference, including (1) participating in general elections; (2) signing online petitions; (3) being a member of a political party; (4) interacting with politicians (either in person/face to face or using online/online media); (5) taking part in demonstrations legally; (6) following the support/boycott movement for a product/organization/figure, through the hashtag/hashtag (#); and (7) participating in donating money for political activities (both directly and through online/online media).

Even so, the top 3 political activities from the findings of this study represent a picture of a form of political participation that is the same as the conceptualization of Back et al. (2011, in Morissan, 2016) regarding people's political participation in a democratic country which includes:

- People can be involved in the public arena to promote and convey their demands to anyone who wants to listen, for example, following a demonstration.
- Communities can make law-making institutions (legislatures) or executive institutions as targets for political messages to be conveyed, for example, by signing a petition.
- The public can be involved in the selection process of those who wish to occupy public office by voting in general elections or by running for certain public or political offices.

The results of this study also show a tendency for offline political participation rather than online political participation. Seen from voting and membership in political parties are in the top order. However, the form of political participation of the younger generation today tends to show changes compared to the previous generation. If, in the past, the form of political participation was more conventional (for example, taking to the streets to carry out demonstrations or boycotts), then the political actions of today's youth are seen as something 'new' because they never happened a decade ago. (e.g., political participation via the internet and social media). The political actions of today's younger generation tend to be more individual, spontaneous (ad-hoc), based on specific issues, and less related to social differences (EACEA, 2012).

4.4.3 Forms of Online Political Participation

Respondents, of course, have sources considered the most adequate for carrying out political activities online. The findings in this study illustrate that there are various types of media and platforms as a place for these activities.

The highest percentage, 84%, of online political activity uses social media such as Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram. Furthermore, with a percentage of 67% using online news sites/portals, 37% use instant messaging applications such as Whatsapp and Line. For website and blog platforms, there is only a percentage of 12%. Political activity using Ask.fm also belongs to the realm of online activity because it is on a social media-based platform. Usually, the sharing of political information uses the voting and shout-out features available on the site.

The findings of this study also illustrate that political activity is not only carried out online or online. The percentage of 11% illustrates that there is still political activity using conventional media such as radio, newspapers, and television. Activities to participate in politics-related seminars and disseminate political information are also included. Apart from that, it has also become a tradition that the dissemination of political information is done by word of mouth, bearing in mind the high sense of integrity in society.

Based on the previous explanation, the use of social media as an alternative to seeking political information is relatively high, namely 84%. Indirectly, this percentage fulfills the characteristics of this study, namely the use of social media as a source and forum for carrying out political activities. This is similar to Novalinda's findings, which state that there is a positive influence on the use of social media Twitter on the level of political participation in adolescents from the Faculty of Communication and Informatics, Muhammadiyah University, Surakarta (Novalinda, 2017).

On the other hand, different research findings were carried out by Pang, who examined the effect of using WeChat as an instant messaging mobile application on the increase in online discussion forums. The research selected 282 students with a vulnerable age of 18 years and over. The results of this study state that WeChat is considered capable of increasing political activity with online discussions related to Government and politics. The findings of this study illustrate that instant messaging applications are considered superior for online discussion forums, in

contrast to the findings of this study, which consider social media types superior for online political activities (Pang, 2017). Based on the explanation above, it can be concluded that online or online political activities can be carried out with various alternative media that are considered the most adequate depending on the preferences of each individual.

Respondents' participation in online political activities has a different frequency for each item. Analysis based on behavior indicators illustrates that the highest online political activity is in the item participating in general elections by 52% or as many as 156 respondents. This is natural because the first thing an individual does when he meets the criteria to participate in the political field is participate in the general election. This explained that in the 2014 general election, as many as 57% of the participants came from individuals who had an age range of 17-21 years. Individuals at this age are also considered to be familiar with the use of media such as social media. Political participation in the form of general elections is also used as an effort to persuade individuals to participate, which is usually transmitted through various types of media (Friedman, 2009).

Still, in the behavior indicator, as many as 92 respondents also signed the online petition with a percentage of 31%. Then, become a member of a party (29%). The ranking of behavior items is further illustrated through the following percentages, namely, as many as 48 participants interacting with politicians (either directly/face to face or using online/online media by 25%. Then, 57 participants took part in demonstrations legally, with a percentage of 19%. For ranking, the two lowest items illustrate that only 51 respondents participated in the support/boycott movement for a product/organization/figure through hashtags/hashtags (#), with a percentage of 17%. Only 48 of the total respondents participated in donating money for political activities (either directly or through online/online media), or a percentage of 16%.

4.4.4 Forms of Searching for Political Information in Online Media

One type of online political activity carried out by respondents is searching for political information available in online media. The highest

respondents' tendency to carry out political activities online lies in the item, which states that 79% of respondents are actively involved in seeking political information, and 21% are not actively seeking political information. The search for political information is also closely related to the motives for using the media to fulfill the information needs of individuals.

Furthermore, 57% of political activity is carried out by pressing the like/like button on political news accounts/political parties/specific political figures, and 43% are not involved in pressing the like and like buttons. As many as 37% of respondents were also involved as subscribers/followers of parties/news related to politics. The remaining 63% of respondents were not followers and subscribers. With a percentage of 30% of respondents participating in disseminating (reposting) political information in the form of writing, audio, or video on their social media accounts, the remaining 70% did not participate in disseminating political information. One of the research findings conducted by Crowcoft et al. is that individuals are willing to disseminate articles related to politics if it is in accordance with their political ideology (Crowcoft et al., 2014).

In political activities in online media related to giving responses (in the form of emoticons, affirmations, questions, discussions, or forms of rejection/disapproval) to political information in political-themed groups on the Social Messaging System, only 22% were involved, but 78% were not involved in responding.

4.5 Conclusion and Recommendation

- This research represents the younger generation, with the majority aged 20-22 years who are currently students or students who have final education at the SMA/SMK level. The majority of the youth generation live in Malang and use social media to seek and gather political information.
- The younger generation actively uses online media to seek political information. However, participants did not provide feedback either in the form of joining and being actively involved in political-themed groups on the Social Messaging System, joining political-themed

groups on the Social Messaging System (such as WhatsApp, LINE, etc.), writing political information and uploading it, responding in the form of comments on certain political news accounts/political parties/political figures, responding (in the form of emoticons, affirmations, questions, discussions, or forms of rejection/disapproval) to political information in political-themed groups on the Social Messaging System, disseminating (conducting repost) political information in the form of writing, audio, or video on personal social media accounts, become a "follower/subscriber" for a political party/political-related news account, and press the "like/like" button on political news accounts/political parties/figures particular politics.

- If ranked, the use of online is for signing online petitions, interacting with politicians (either in person/face to face or using online/online media), participating in support/boycott movements for a product/organization/figure, through hashtags/hashtags (#), and participate in donating money for political activities (both directly and through online media).

References

- Alfioty Putri, R. (2015). Studi Golput Pada Pemilih Pemula (Kasus Pemilukada Gubernur Riau Tahun 2013 Di Kelurahan Rejosari Kecamatan Tenayan Raya) Pembimbing: Drs. H. M. Razif. *JOM FISIP* (Vol. 2).
- Conway, M. (2000). *Political participation in the United States*. Kriyantono, R. (2006). *Teknik Praktis: Riset Komunikasi*. Jakarta: PT Kencana Prenada Media Group.
- Marwell, G., Oliver, P. E., & Prahl, R. (1988). Social Networks and Collective Action: A Theory of the Critical Mass. III. *American Journal of Sociology*, 94(3), 502–534. <https://doi.org/10.1086/229028>
- McCafferty, D. (2011). Activism vs. slacktivism. *Communications of the ACM*, 54(12), 17–19. <https://doi.org/10.1145/2043174.2043182>
- Morissan. (2016). *Tingkat Partisipasi Politik dan Sosial Generasi Muda Pengguna Media Sosial*. *Jurnal Visi Komunikasi* (Vol. 15). Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta. <https://doi.org/10.21831/informasi.v48i1.18078>

-
- O'Toole, L. J., & Meier, K. J. (2004). Desperately Seeking Selznick: Cooptation and the Dark Side of Public Management in Networks. *Public Administration Review*, *64*(6), 681–693. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6210.2004.00415.x>
- Rush, M., & Althoff, P. (2003). Pengantar Sosiologi Politik terjemahan.
- Saldaña, M., McGregor, S. C., & Gil de Zúñiga, H. (2015). Social media as a public space for politics: Cross-national comparison of news consumption and participatory behaviors in the United States and the United. *International Journal of Communication*, *9*(1), 3304– 3326.
- Singarimbun, M., & Effendi, S. (1989). *Metode penelitian survei*. LP3ES. Jakarta: LP3ES.
- Terrace. (2014). *Activism in cyberspace: Millennial engagement through new media (Doctoral dissertation)*. Wheaton College (Norton, Mass.).
- Vitak, J., Zube, P., Smock, A., Carr, C. T., Ellison, N., & Lampe, C. (2011). It is Complicated: Facebook Users' Political Participation in the 2008 Election. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking*, *14*(3), 107–114. <https://doi.org/10.1089/cyber.2009.022>

Youngsters and Main Information Source in The Pandemic Era

5

Reza Safitri

Abstract

The abundance of information about the COVID-19 vaccine from different sources underscores the need to identify individual preferences for information sources to support the government's COVID-19 vaccine program. The information source the community chooses will influence individual attitudes to take the vaccine or not. The purpose of this study was to identify and describe which media was most accessed by the public during the pandemic to seek information about the COVID-19 vaccine, as well as to analyze the relationship between the media as a source of information and people's attitudes. The method used is an online questionnaire with a cross-sectional research design on Indonesian society. Furthermore, demographic information, sources of information, and attitudes in responding to the COVID-19 vaccine will be analyzed using SEM-PLS to measure the relationship between demographics, sources of information, and attitudes in responding to the COVID-19 vaccine.

Keywords

COVID-19 vaccines · Information · Media

R. Safitri

Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science,
Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

e-mail: reza.fp@ub.ac.id

5.1 information and Information Sources

What does the word 'information' mean? We often hear this word in everyday life. However, what does this word mean? In the realm of Communication Studies, Shannon and Weaver (1949), through their book entitled *The Mathematical Theory of Communication*, provide a fundamental definition of the word "information," which can be understood as a measure of freedom when people choose messages. Therefore, information is not only related to a particular message but also to the communication situation as a whole. Consequently, the unit of information is considered as the degree of freedom in choosing the message.

To build effective communication, the communication model initiated by Shannon and Weaver (1949) describes communication as a process where information is sent as a message to the recipient (receiver). This communication model emphasizes the delivery of messages based on accuracy. This communication model has seven components contained in the communication process, such as information source, message, transmitter, receiver, destination, noise source.

In their book, Shannon and Weaver (1949) stated that information sources produce messages that can be communicated. In addition, the transmitter also plays a role in converting the message into a signal according to the signal used from the sender to the recipient. Based on the conceptualization contained in this communication model, this model can be applied in various communication contexts, such as interpersonal and mass communication.

Based on the other conceptualizations related to information, the word "information" has a different meaning of satisfaction for everyone. That definition may be satisfactory to some but not to others. This means that "information" can be a helpful message, and they assume this is new knowledge. Quoted from Buckland (1991) which defines information into three functions, including:

- *Information as a process*

When a message is changing, the role of information here is how to communicate that information. Examples such as communicating knowledge in news and actions to tell a fact.

- *Information as a knowledge*

Where information becomes a message that contains knowledge and communicates facts, subjects, or events. In addition, this knowledge can be a person's handle to respond to something. However, this knowledge sometimes also brings uncertainty.

- *Information as a thing*

This means that information can have forms such as data, objects, documents, and others. So that this information is not only in implied form but can be in explicit form and is believed to be "information." In addition, the information that becomes an object can be used in the field of education, for example, in a book.

During a crisis, especially during the COVID-19 pandemic, there is an increase in the need for information and internet dependency (Ishfaq & Mengxing, 2021; Kasirye, 2021). In this era of digitalization, internet dependency or dependence on the internet cannot be separated from social life, especially in the digital ecosystem. Korgaonkar and Wolin (1999) state that the increase in internet dependency is caused by the internet having seemingly limited resources and the internet's potential to satisfy many people for various purposes such as communication, information, entertainment, and transactional purposes. The situation during the COVID-19 pandemic can be categorized as a controlled situation where several parties control social life situations through the media, and people in this situation always depend on knowing what is happening outside their environment (Sarault, 2020). Therefore, it can be concluded that the existence of controlled situations during the COVID-19 pandemic has influenced internet dependency to increase in society.

At the start of the pandemic, information circulated extraordinarily. Factual news appears amidst hoaxes (fake news) and fake news. Information is spread widely and uncontrolled, provoking much misinformation in society. This fact causes the trust level in society to be low.

On the other hand, the COVID-19 pandemic has also made people more concerned with health information. However, they need correct health information, sourcing from the correct information source and trusted

media. The public must be able to choose and sort media and news sources that can be trusted.

It is undeniable that the media plays a huge role in disseminating information about COVID-19 and health in general. Klemm et al. (2016) explained that the existence of the media is able to generate media hype regarding an issue or condition that brings public panic during the pandemic. So, at the beginning of the last pandemic, many people felt panicked or anxious about the existence of this virus.

Research conducted by Lin et al. (2014) shows that trust and credibility can influence a person's choices in determining behavior regarding the information received. As long as someone feels that the information or message, they receive has credibility and is accompanied by evidence of the source of the information, it will give rise to trust and produce new attitudes based on the information received.

In Indonesia, not all information spread on the internet during the pandemic has valid credibility. In fact, according to Wang et al. (2020), the existence of the internet, the public has become a source of information that is of interest to explain the etiology of a medical disease.

Kouzy et al. (2020) explained that information on internet media was developing more quickly during the COVID-19 pandemic. However, it is undeniable that much misinformation has emerged and grown rapidly (Wang et al., 2020).

Unlike the internet, traditional or mass media provide essential information regarding an outbreak or disease. Garfin, Silver, and Holman (2020) explained that information about an epidemic or disease that is continuously repeated in the media certainly creates anxiety and panic in the public. Apart from that, people can also access information from friends, family, health workers, or the government (Wang et al., 2020).

The role of the media as a disseminator of information also plays a role in shaping one's attitude. Mohamad and Azlan (2020) explained that in an emergency such as during the COVID-19 period, there is a potent combination of journalists, influencers, and opinion leaders to bridge the information gap between the public and health workers in the media. They work to deliver persuasive messages to help reduce public anxiety, inhibit the circulation of false information, and carry out campaigns for proper health procedures.

In addition, Azwar (2003) stated that several factors, including the media, also form attitudes. The media carries news that contains information about a critical case, such as the COVID-19 virus, which is distributed widely to cover a large audience so that the information influences people in the news, resulting in the formation of attitudes or changes in attitudes.

Compared to Malaysia, Indonesia has the characteristics of a more diverse society. Quoted from Rahardjo (2010), it is explained that the pluralism of Indonesian society is due to cultural diversity. This can be seen from differences in language, ethnicity, and beliefs, as well as other cultural traditions and customs. Situations like this are what make Indonesian people perceive information differently.

According to Wang et al. (2020), the internet has become a popular medium during the pandemic. This is because the internet is considered capable of providing information about medical diseases such as the COVID-19 outbreak. Apart from that, the development of information on the internet is also getting faster, so it cannot be denied that misinformation is also getting faster. For this reason, the public must understand which information is false or not.

Apart from internet-based media, traditional media is no less popular during the pandemic, especially in providing information related to the COVID-19 outbreak. Garfin, Silber, and Holman (2020) explained that information that is continuously repeated in the media will increase people's levels of anxiety and panic during the pandemic. This is also in accordance with the statement of Klemm et al. (2016), who explained that the media brings an element of panic because people quickly access information during the pandemic.

Wang et al. (2020) also explained that accessing information can be done through individuals or groups, such as information from the government or information from the environment. Mohamad et al. (2020) explained that information is obtained from media such as social media and mass media. Meanwhile, individuals who communicate the message can come from friends, family, health workers, government, etc.

Madden (2000) explains that sources of information are information that is transmitted to the audience in order to understand the value of information and determine the process of forming attitudes and decisions. Mohammad et al. (2020) categorized information sources into two parts,

namely, the primary sources and the main media. Primary sources are information individual access and serve as guidelines or references, including authorities and personal sources. Meanwhile, the primary media are information media that serve as guidelines or references for individuals seeking information, including mass media and online media.

5.2 Mass Media

Mass Media is very diverse, with different operations. The main characteristic of the mass media is that they exist to be able to cover many audiences (McQuail, 2011). Mass media is one of the instruments of mass communication in disseminating information. The types and characteristics are very many, such as print to digital mass media.

Several forms of mass media are differentiated based on technology, format, institutional arrangements, and uses as described by McQuail (2011), including:

- *Book*

Compared to newspapers, books first appeared at the beginning of modern media. In the Middle Ages, books were used as a container for writing wise words rather than being used for communication. Printing technology eventually emerged and rapidly developed, turning books into market commodities that could be exported and imported. The essence of books has also turned into print media that can express opinions freely and disseminate them.

- *Newspaper*

A newspaper is a message conveyed through a letter bulletin distributed through the postal service system containing new events. (Raymond in McQuail, 2011). There are many types of print media, but the most popular media for conveying information is newspapers or newspapers. Print media that also carry messages in their writing include comics, flyers, brochures, and posters.

- *Radio*

Radio is one of the broadcasting media that proves that technology is getting more advanced. In contrast to television, which is capable of presenting audio-visual messages, radio is assigned to convey messages orally. Currently, the radio has emerged as the main feature that is sure to exist on a smartphone and is easy to carry anywhere.

- *Television*

Television is one of the digital media that has become a popular mass media platform. Television can present audio-visual, in which information delivery will be easier. In the beginning, television only showed black and white visuals without audio, so with the times, television was able to present an extraordinary appearance in its audio-visual. In addition, today's television has many TV channels with various content.

- *Online Media Portal*

Online news portals, websites, or web pages cover a wide range of news topics, including politics, economics, society, culture, and entertainment, encompassing both hard and soft news (Romli, 2018). Online news portals enable news writers to quickly and easily disseminate factual information to a vast internet audience.

5.3 Online Media

Along with the development of the times, online media is gaining popularity because of its easier access. The internet has become the basis for the rapid development of online media and is much loved by various groups. As a result of such rapid developments, how people consume information or understand news has changed and is different.

Suryawati (2011) defines online media or new media as a communication medium supported by internet devices, while the internet is a computer network consisting of various interconnected components, enabling continuous two-way electronic messaging (Severin & Tankard, 2011).

Ashadi Siregar (in Kurniawan, 2005) defines online media as general terminology for media based on telecommunications and media. In this

concept, online media is considered an integration of conventional media and the internet.

The key distinction between online media and traditional media is in the way information is disseminated, the level of interactivity, and accessibility. With internet support, these three elements in information management can be significantly faster and more efficient. Therefore, it can be concluded that online media is an interactive and real-time digital platform, allowing global access with low distribution costs, as well as various forms of content. In contrast, conventional media includes physical or broadcast media with limited reach, not interactive, and high production/distribution costs. Online media has the following characteristics, such as:

- Speed or actuality in the delivery of information
- Interactivity
- Facilitate online media users to collect relevant or needed information
- Expandable payload capacity
- The shared information can be stored and edited anytime, and users can search for it using search engines.
- There is no prime or specialized time because the information dissemination process occurs non-stop, only depending on when the user wants to access the information.

Margianto and Syaefullah (2012) stated that the internet brings new elements, one of which is interactivity. Online media makes the audience more interactive in listening to information. In addition, in online media, there is also two-way communication, where the communicator can get feedback directly from the communicator.

Nasrullah (2016) explains the types of online media that are popular in conveying information, including:

- *Email*

In the digital age, Email has become one of the most common and crucial forms of online communication, serving both personal and professional purposes. It allows for exchanging messages through email platforms like Google and Yahoo, primarily focusing on internet-based messaging, unlike traditional postal mail.

- *Blog and Website*

In general, the use of blogs and websites is to disseminate information, products, or services, facilitate the dissemination of content, and support interaction and the digital presence of an individual or organization. Web facilities can be divided into using a paid address (such as .com or .net) or a free address.

- *Messaging Applications*

Messaging applications via mobile phones such as Line, Whatsapp, Kakaotalk, and Telegram not only load text but also load data in the form of audio, visuals, documents, etc. Apart from that, messaging applications on mobile phones not only provide communication space for two people but more.

- *Social Media*

The presence of social networking sites, known as social media, makes freedom of opinion easier. Andreas Kaplan and Michael Haenlein (in Carr & Hayes, 2015) define social media as a series of online platforms that facilitate users to interact, share, and collaborate in creating and disseminating content with other users. This creates a communication network that focuses on collaboration and active participation of social media users. Also, disseminating information and carrying out trade transactions is also getting easier. Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram contain user profiles activities and even load user opinions about an event.

5.4 Media as an Institution and Media as a Medium

The media has become an element that cannot be separated from social life. In general, the media has two roles: as an institution and as a medium. Darmastuti (2012) states that in terms of its role as an institution, the media acts as an institution that actively produces, reproduces, and distributes knowledge in a series of symbols that lead to a holistic experience in social life. Through knowledge obtained from production, reproduction, and distribution activities, public opinion can be formed, which influences the dynamics of social life. Media as an institution also emphasizes the role of various parties involved, including media companies such as television

stations, newspapers, magazines, radio stations, online news portals, and existing social media platforms.

Meanwhile, the role of the media as a medium refers to the existence of channels or means of communication that can facilitate the delivery of messages or information from one entity to another. In general, the role of the media as a medium is used by various levels of media user entities, both at the individual and organizational levels, to communicate with audiences. The medium for distributing information can be television, radio, newspapers, the internet, and various other information channels.

In the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, the media as an institution has an important role as an institution that accommodates the information needs of the wider community regarding the COVID-19 pandemic. Activities in information circulation carried out by various media institutions include disseminating actual information about the development of the COVID-19 pandemic, steps to minimize the spread of the virus, and various relevant health information to the public. Meanwhile, the media, as a medium during the COVID-19 pandemic, played a role in facilitating the dissemination of various important information regarding the COVID-19 pandemic in a comprehensive manner to the wider community. Seeing the magnitude of the dynamics of information during the COVID-19 pandemic, it can be concluded that the use of media both as an institution and as a medium has an ethical responsibility to provide accurate and verified information so that media users or the general public can take appropriate actions during a pandemic. COVID-19.

5.5 Indonesian Citizens and the COVID-19 Pandemic

Judging from the population, Indonesia's population currently reaches 271 million people. As of December 14, 2020, there were more than 600,000 cases of exposure to COVID-19. A total of 510,957 people recovered, and 18,956 people died. In fact, as of January 27, 2021, Indonesia's position jumped to fourth place in Asia with a total of 1,012,350 cases.

One of the efforts made by the government is to carry out COVID-19 vaccination to prevent this from becoming more widespread. This vaccine is provided free of charge to all Indonesian. The government's target is approximately 180 million people out of 271 million. To convince people to want to be vaccinated, of course, they need good outreach from the government. One is through mass media and social media, which people in the country widely use, and through reliable sources of information.

Research conducted by Safitri and Rimayana (2022) tried to see what mass media and social media are widely used by people in the country. Also, what are the primary sources of information that are trusted by the community? In this way, it is hoped that the socialization provided can be maximized.

As a result, there were 1,220 participants involved. They come from 32 provinces in Indonesia and are aged less than 17 years to more than 65 years. The respondents obtained consisted of 738 women and 489 men. While most of the ages studied came from young people. The number is more than half of the respondents, namely, reaching 655 respondents or 53.4% (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1 Descriptive Demographic Age Characteristics of Indonesian Society

Age Category	Frequency	Percentage
<17	18	1,5%
17-25	655	53,4%
26-34	180	14,7%
35-45	156	12,7%
46-55	159	13%
56-65	54	4,4%
>65	5	0,4%

Source: Safitri & Rimayanti (2022)

5.6 The Most Accessed Media During the Pandemic

Based on research by Safitri and Rimayanti (2022), it was revealed that social media was the media most accessed by respondents during the COVID-19 pandemic. In addition to the information presented by conventional mass media and online news portals that are still trusted by the people in the country.

Table 5.2 Media Used to Find COVID-19 Information

No.	Media	Frequency	Percentage
1	Instagram	643	52,4%
2	Online Media Portal	601	49%
3	Television	507	42,3%
4	Youtube	400	32,6%
5	Whatsapp	352	28,7%
6	Governmental Website	329	26,8%
7	Facebook	281	22,9%
8	Twitter	274	22,3%
9	Line Today	147	12%
10	Newspaper	112	9,1%
11	Radio	55	4,5%
12	Telegram	33	2,7%
13	Magazine	22	1,8%

Source: Research results by Safitri & Rimayanti (2022)

From the table 5.2 above, it is revealed that 52.4%, or 643 respondents chose to use Instagram as a social media platform to obtain information about COVID-19. Meanwhile, the second most popular choice among the public for obtaining information about COVID-19 is online news portals, which 601 respondents, or 49%, selected.

Conventional media also continues to be trusted by the public as a primary source of information during a pandemic. A total of 507 respondents, or 42.3%, chose television as their primary source of information about COVID-19. Newspapers, radio, and magazines ranked

10th, 11th, and 13th, respectively. Newspapers were chosen by 112 respondents (9.1%), radio by 55 respondents (4.3%), and magazines by 22 respondents (1.8%).

Social media dominates other sources of information about the pandemic. These sources include YouTube (32.6% or 400 respondents), WhatsApp (28.7% or 352 respondents), and Facebook (22.9% or 281 respondents). Additionally, other social media platforms, such as Twitter, were chosen by 22.3% (274 respondents), Line Today by 12% (147 respondents), and Telegram by 2.7% (33 respondents).

Apart from conventional and social media, government websites have also become reference materials for the public during the pandemic. There were 329 respondents, or 26.8%, who sought information about COVID-19 from government sites.

The results of this study conclude that most respondents chose social media as their primary source of information. This choice can be attributed to the fact that the respondent profile predominantly comprises young people aged 17-25 years, accounting for 53.4% or 655 respondents. This generation is more familiar with social media.

This finding aligns with the statement made by Junawan and Laugu (2020), who explained that during the pandemic, there was a significant increase in the use of social media, particularly Instagram, WhatsApp, and YouTube. These three social media platforms are widely used by Indonesians, as indicated by research conducted by the Association of Indonesian Internet Service Providers (APJII) in May 2023 (Table 5.3).

Table 5.3 Social Media Users in Indonesia

No.	Platform	Users
1	Youtube	65,41%
2	Facebook	60,24%
3	Instagram	30,51%
4	TikTok	26,80%
5	WhatsApp	1,57%
6	Twitter	0,91%
7	Snack Video	0,17%
8	Linkedin	0,06%
9	Google	0,03%

Source: APJII May 2023/Detik.com data

Meanwhile, data from We Are Social and Meltwater places WhatsApp as the most used communication media platform in Indonesia, followed by Instagram, Facebook, TikTok, Telegram, Twitter, and other platforms. This research does not include YouTube as a social media platform but as a streaming medium (Figure 5.1).

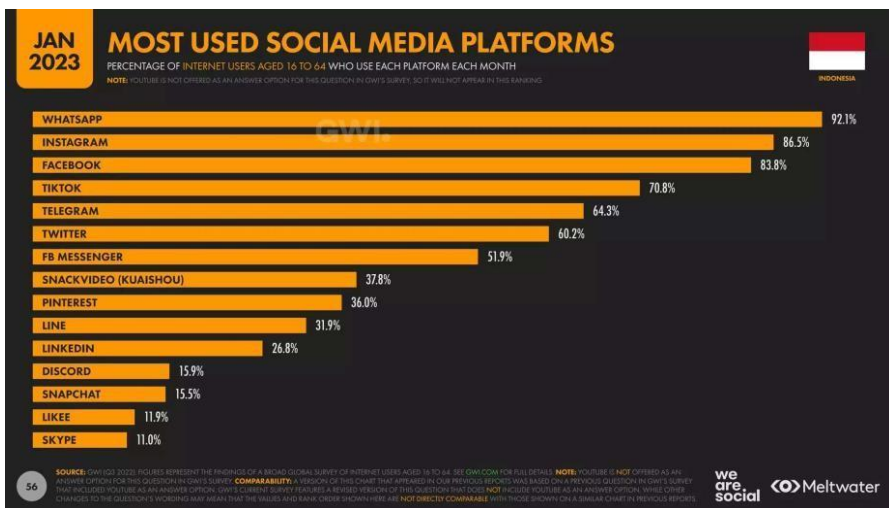


Fig 5.1 The Most Used Social Media Platform in Indonesia. Source: We Are Social and Meltwater data January 2023

A somewhat different condition seems to occur in Malaysia. According to research by Mohammad et al. (2020), the age range that uses Instagram the most is 30-45. Research in this neighboring country shows that women in this age range are 1.6 times more likely to use Instagram as a source of COVID-19 information than men.

5.7 Main Source of Information During a Pandemic

Regarding the most widely accessed information sources, Safitri and Rimayanti (2022) concluded that people prefer official explanations from the government or trusted institutions to obtain information about COVID-19. This can be seen from the sources chosen by respondents. More than half of respondents (52.4%) chose the primary source regarding COVID-19 from the Ministry of Health of Indonesia (Table 5.4).

Table 5.4 Key Descriptive Information Sources

No.	Media	Frequency	Percentage
1	Kemendes RI (Ministry of Health Indonesia)	848	52,4%
2	Satgas COVID-19 RI (Indonesian Republic COVID-19 Task Force)	707	42,3%
3	Health Workers	411	32,6%
4	WHO	338	27,5%
5	Family	314	25,6%
6	Friends	289	23,6%
7	Others	142	11,6%

Source: Research results of Safitri & Rimayanti (2022)

Another primary source of information that people in Indonesia trust is the COVID-19 Task Force, selected by 707 respondents (42.3%). Following that, information sources included health workers such as doctors, nurses, and others, with a total of 411 respondents (32.6%), as well as the World Health Organization (WHO).

The WHO, an international health institution, serves as a primary source of information for the community, with 338 respondents (27.5%) accessing information from this organization during the pandemic. In contrast, some people prefer to obtain information from family, friends, and other sources.

5.8 Research in Other Countries

How are conditions in other countries? Research conducted by Emma Mohamad, Jen Sern Tham, Suffian Hadi Ayub, Mohammad Rezal Hamzah, Hasrul Hashime, and Arina Anis Azlan (2020) discusses the attitude taken by the Malaysian public in facing the COVID-19 pandemic. The results are almost the same. They rely a lot on sources of information from the internet and mass media.

This research uses a questionnaire to determine the relationship between these two variables with a cross-sectional study research design. This research collected a total of 4,850 responses for research using multiple logistic regression because there are external variables involved in measuring this research.

As a result, even though times have progressed towards the internet, the source of information for the Malaysian people is mainly obtained through television. This conventional broadcast media is still very popular with the people of neighboring countries and is their primary source of information.

5.9 Conclusion

Based on research conducted by Safitri and Rimayanti (2020), several conclusions can be drawn:

- Digital media is the primary information source for the Indonesian people to obtain information about the COVID-19 pandemic. Two new media platforms that are frequently chosen are social media, specifically Instagram, and online media portals. The significant reliance on digital media for COVID-19 information appears closely tied to the high number of young respondents, accounting for more than 50% of the sample.
- Conventional media also continues to enjoy public trust as a source of information about COVID-19. This is evident in a survey that ranked television as the 3rd most preferred medium for obtaining information among the public.

- Throughout the COVID-19 pandemic, the primary sources of information most accessed by the Indonesian people were those provided by the Ministry of Health and the COVID-19 Task Force.

References

- Ali, K. F., Whitebridge, S., Jamal, M. H., Alsafy, M., & Atkin, S. L. (2020). Perceptions, Knowledge, and Behaviors Related to COVID-19 Among Social Media Users: Cross-Sectional Study. *Journal of medical Internet research*, 22(9), e19913.
- Arikunto, S. (1998). *Prosedur Penelitian: Suatu Pendekatan Praktik*. Jakarta: Rineka Cipta. Arikunto, S. (2006). *Prosedur Penelitian Suatu Pendekatan Praktik*. Jakarta: PT Asdi Mahasatya.
- Arnani, M. (2021, 01 13). *Vaksinasi COVID-19 Dimulai, Ini 6 Hal yang Perlu Diketahui soal Vaksin Sinovac*. Retrieved 01 31, 2021, from Kompas.com: <https://www.kompas.com/tren/read/2021/01/13/060200065/vaksinasi-COVID-19-dimulai-ini-6-hal-yang-perlu-diketahui-soal-vaksin?page=all>
- Azwar, S. (2003). *Penyusunan Skala Psikologi*. Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar.
- Azwar, S. (2007). *Sikap Manusia Teori Pengukuran Edisi ke 2*. Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar. Buckland, M. K. (1991). Information as a thing. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science*, 42(5), 351–360.
- Carr, C. T., & Hayes, R. A. (2015). Social media: Defining, developing, and divining. *Atlantic journal of communication*, 23(1), 46-65.
- CNNIndonesia. (2020, Maret 21). *Update Corona 21 Maret: 450 Positif, 38 Meninggal, 20 Sembuh*. Retrieved Maret 21, 2020, from CNN Indonesia: <https://www.cnnindonesia.com/nasional/20200321151321->

[20-485605/update-corona-21-maret-450-positif-38-meninggal-20-sembuh](https://www.cnnindonesia.com/internasional/20200319180211-113-485085/china-cabut-lockdown-Wuhan-jika-tak-ada-kasus-baru-corona)

CNNIndonesia. (2020, Maret 20). *China Cabut Lockdown Wuhan jika Tak Ada Kasus Baru Corona*. Retrieved Maret 21, 2020, from CNN Indonesia:

<https://www.cnnindonesia.com/internasional/20200319180211-113-485085/china-cabut-lockdown-Wuhan-jika-tak-ada-kasus-baru-corona>

CNNIndonesia. (2020, Februari 29). *COVID-19 Mirip HIV, Tapi 1.000 Kali Lebih Kuat dari Sars*. Retrieved Maret 21, 2020, from CNN Indonesia:

<https://www.cnnindonesia.com/gaya-hidup/20200228135822-255-479058/COVID-19-mirip-hiv-tapi-1000-kali-lebih-kuat-dari-sars>

CNNIndonesia. (2021, 01 13). *Ribka Tjiptaning Orang Pertama Menolak Vaksin di Indonesia*. Retrieved 01 31, 2021, from CNN Indonesia:

<https://www.cnnindonesia.com/nasional/20210113074635-32-592938/ribka-tjiptaning-orang-pertama-menolak-vaksin-di-indonesia>

Darmastuti, R. (2012). *Media relations: konsep, strategi, dan aplikasi*.

David, E. R. (2017). Pengaruh Konten Vlog dalam Youtube terhadap Pembentukan Sikap Mahasiswa Ilmu Komunikasi Fakultas Ilmu Sosial dan Politik Universitas Sam Ratulangi. *Acta Diurna Komunikasi*, 6(1).

DetikNews. (2021, Maret 22). *Arahan Jokowi soal Vaksin AstraZeneca Usai Sowan ke Kiai*. Retrieved Maret 24, 2021, from detiknews:

<https://news.detik.com/berita/d-5503552/arahan-jokowi-soal-vaksin-astrazeneca-usai-sowan-ke-kiai>

Devito, J. A. (2011). *Komunikasi Antarmanusia*. Tangerang Selatan: Karisma Publishing Group.

Dzulfaroh, A. N. (2021, 01 27). *Tembus 1 Juta Kasus COVID-19, Bagaimana Posisi Indonesia di Asia?* Retrieved 01 31, 2021, from Kompas.com:

<https://www.kompas.com/tren/read/2021/01/27/073200865/tembus-1-juta-kasus-COVID-19-bagaimana-posisi-indonesia-di-asia?page=all>

- Febriyanti, N., Choliq, M. I., & Mukti, A. W. (2021). Hubungan Tingkat Pengetahuan dan Kesiediaan Vaksinasi COVID-19 pada Warga Kelurahan Dukuh Menanggal Kota Surabaya. *SNHRP*, 3, 36-42.
- Geladi, P. &. (1986). Partial Least-Squares Regression: A Tutorial. *Analytica Chimica Acta*, 185, 1-17.
- Ghozali, I. (2009). *Aplikasi Analisis Multivariate dengan Program SPSS (Edisi ke-4)*. Semarang: Badan Penerbit UNDIP.
- Hadhinoto, P. S., & Oktavianti, R. (2019). Komunikasi Persuasif Tentang Kesehatan Mental Melalui Komik Digital (Studi pada Akun Instagram @petualanganmenujusesuatu). *Prologia*, 3(2), 334-341.
- Hosmer, D., & Lemeshow, S. (2000). *Applied Logistic Regression*. Edisi ke-2. Canada: John Wiley and Sons Inc.
- Idurs, M. (2009). *Metode Penelitian Ilmu Sosial: Pendekatan Kualitatif dan Kuantitatif*. Jakarta: Erlangga.
- Intan, G. (2020, 12 16). *Jokowi: Vaksin COVID-19 akan diberikan secara gratis*. Retrieved 01 31, 2021, from VOA Indonesia: <https://www.voaindonesia.com/a/jokowi-vaksin-covid-19-akan-diberikan-secara-gratis/5701381.html>
- Irwan, I. &. (2015). Metode Partial Least Square (PLS) dan Terpaannya (Studi Kasus: Analisis Kepuasan Pelanggan Terhadap Layanan PDAM Unit Camming Kab. Bone). *Teknosains: Media INformasi Sains dan Teknologi*, 9(1), 53–68.
- Ishfaq, N., & Mengxing, H. (2021). Consumer usage behavior of Internet-based services (IBS) in Pakistan during the COVID-19 crisis from the perspective of the technology acceptance model. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, pp. 1–16.
- Junawan, H., & Laugu, N. (2020). Eksistensi Media Sosial, Youtube, Instagram dan Whatsapp Ditengah Pandemi COVID-19 Dikalangan Masyarakat Indonesia. *Baitul Ulum: Jurnal Ilmu Perpustakaan dan Informasi*, 41-57, 4(1), ISSN 2580-9903.

- Kasirye, F. (2021). Analyzing Media Dependency During Crisis. A case of COVID-19 in Malaysia.
- Klemm, C., Das, E., & Hartmann, T. (2016). Swine flu and hype: a systematic review of media dramatization of the H1N1 influenza pandemic. *Journal of Risk Research*, 19(1), 1-20
- Kompas. (2021, 01 13). *Vaksinasi COVID-19 Dimulai, Ini 6 Hal yang Perlu Diketahui soal Vaksin Sinovac*. Retrieved 01 31, 2021, from Kompas.com:
<https://www.kompas.com/tren/read/2021/01/13/060200065/vaksinasi-COVID-19-dimulai-ini-6-hal-yang-perlu-diketahui-soal-vaksin?page=all>
- Korgaonkar, P.K., & Wolin, L.D. (1999). A Multivariate Analysis of Web Usage. *Journal of Advertising Research*.
- Kouzy, Jaoude, A., Kraitem, Alam, E., Karam, Adib, et al. (2020). Coronavirus Goes Viral: Quantifying the COVID-19 Misinformation Epidemic on Twitter. *Europe PMC*, 12(3).
- KPCPEN. (2020, 12 14). *Data Sebaran*. Retrieved 12 29, 2020, from Komite Penanganan COVID-19 dan Pemulihan Ekonomi Nasional:
<https://covid19.go.id>
- Kriyantono, R. (2006). *Teknis Praktis Riset Komunikasi*. Jakarta: Kencana.
- Kurniawan, A. (2005). *Transformasi pelayanan publik*. Pembaruan.
- Lasagabaster, D. (2008). Attitude. In U. Ammon, N. Dittmar, K. J. Mattheier, & P. Trudgill, *Soziolinguistik: Ein Internationales Handbuch zur Wissenschaft von Sprache und Gesellschaft (2. Aufl.)* (pp. 399-405). German: De Gruyter Mouton.
- Lee, J. J., Kang, K.-A., Wang, M. P., Zhao, S. Z., Wong, J. Y., O'Connore, S., et al. (2020). Associations Between COVID-19 Misinformation Exposure and Belief With COVID-19 Knowledge and Preventive Behaviors: Cross-Sectional Online Study. *Journal of Medical Internet Research*, 22(11), e22205.

- Lin, L., Savoia, E., Agboola, F., & Viswanath, K. (2014). What have we learned about communication inequalities during the h1n1 pandemic: a systematic review of the literature. *BMC Public Health*, *14*(484), 1-13.
- Lukas, A. A. (2016). Komunikasi Persuasif Yang Diperlukan Di Pt. Jala Krida Wisesa. *Performa: Jurnal Manajemen dan Start-Up Bisnis*, *1*(5), 612- 616.
- Madden, A. (2000). A definition of information. *Aslib Proceedings*, *52*(9), 343–349. doi:10.1108/eum0000000007027 .
- Margianto, J. H., & Syaefullah, A. (2012). *Media Online: Pembaca, Laba, dan Etika*. Jakarta Pusat: AJI INDONESIA.
- McQuail, D. (2011). *Teori Komunikasi Massa*. Jakarta: Penerbit Salemba Humanika.
- Mohamad, E., & Azlan, A. A. (2020). COVID-19 and Communication Planning for Health Emergencies. *Malaysian Journal of Communication*, *36* (1), 1-2.
- Mohamad, E., Tham, J. S., Ayub, S. H., Hamzah, M. R., Hashime, H., & Azlan, A. A. (2020). Relationship Between COVID-19 Information Sources and Attitudes in Battling the Pandemic Among the Malaysian Public: Cross-Sectional Survey Study. *Journal of medical Internet research*, *22*(11).
- Mulyana, D. (2008). *Ilmu Komunikasi Suatu Pengantar*. Bandung: PT. Remaja Rosdakarya.
- Nasrullah, R. (2016). *Teori dan Riset Media Siber (cybermedia)*. Jakarta: PRENADAMEDIA.
- Neuman, W. (2013). *Metode Penelitian Sosial: Pendekatan Kualitatif dan Kuantitatif*. Jakarta: Indeks.
- Nida, F. L. (2014). Persuasi dalam Media Komunikasi Massa. *At-Tabasyir: Jurnal Komunikasi Penyiaran Islam*, *2*(2), 77-95.
- Nurdiana, T. (2020, 12 22). *Survei SMRC: Hanya 56% masyarakat yang percaya vaksin corona aman bagi kesehatan*. Retrieved 01 31, 2021, from Kontan.co.id: <https://nasional.kontan.co.id/news/survei-smrc-hanya-56-masyarakat-yang-percaya-vaksin-corona-aman-bagi-kesehatan>

-
- Nurgiyantoro, B. (2018). *Teori Pengkajian FIksi*. Yogyakarta: UGM Press.
- Perloff, R. M. (2003). *The Dynamics of Persuasion; Communication and Attitudes in the 21st Century*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publisher.
- Pratiwi, I., & Prijati, P. (2015). Pengaruh Faktor Demografi terhadap Jenis Investasi dan Perilaku Investor Pasar Modal Surabaya. *Jurnal Ilmu dan Riset Manajemen (JIRM)*, 4(2)
- Purnama, S. G., & Susanna, D. (2020). Attitude to COVID-19 Prevention With Large-Scale Social Restrictions (PSBB) in Indonesia: Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling. *Front. Public Health*, 8, 1-10.
- Ramzan, S. K. (2010). Dimension reduction and remedy of multicollinearity using latent variable regression methods. *World Applied Science Journal*, 8(4), 404–410.
- Romli, A. S. (2018). *Jurnalistik Online: Panduan Mengelola Media Online* (3rd ed.). Penerbit Nuansa Cendekia
- Rustan, A. S., & Hakki, N. (2017). *Pengantar Ilmu Komunikasi*. Sleman, Yogyakarta: DEEPUBLISH.
- Safutra, I. (2021, Maret 22). *Kemenag Keluarkan Surat Tidak Halal untuk Vaksin AstraZeneca*. Retrieved Maret 24, 2021, from Jawa Pos.com: <https://www.jawapos.com/nasional/22/03/2021/kemenag-keluarkan-surat-tidak-halal-untuk-vaksin-astrazeneca/>
- Sarault, J. (2020). *Understanding media consumption during the Coronavirus Pandemic*. ComScore, Inc.
- Sastroasmoro, S. (2011). *Dasar-dasar Metodologi Klinik*. Jakarta: Bina Rupa Asmara.
- Severin, W. J., & Tankard, J. W. (2011). *Teori Komunikasi: Sejarah, Metode dan Terapan di Dalam Media Massa*. Jakarta: Prenada Media
- Sitanggang, L. M. (2020, Desember 28). *Vaksin jadi upaya terbaru pemerintah menghadapi COVID-19*. Retrieved Maret 24, 2021, from

- Sehat Kontan.co.id: <https://kesehatan.kontan.co.id/news/vaksin-jadi-upaya-terbaru-pemerintah-menghadapi-COVID-19-1>
- Soegoto, H. (2011). Pengaruh Nilai dan Kepercayaan Terhadap Loyalitas Nasabah Prioritas. *Majalah Ilmiah UNIKOM.*, 1-13.
- Solehati, T., Rahmat, A., & Kosasih, C. E. (2019). Hubungan media dengan sikap dan perilaku triad kesehatan reproduksi remaja relation of media on adolescents' reproductive health attitude and behaviour. *Jurnal Penelitian Komunikasi dan Opini Publik*, 23(1), 40-53.
- Sugiyono. (2008). *Metode Penelitian Kuantitatif Kualitatif dan R&D*. Bandung: Alfabeta.
- Sumanto. (2014). *Psikologi Umum*. Yogyakarta: CAPS (Center of Academic Publishing Service).
- Sumantri, A. (2011). *Metodologi Penelitian Kesehatan*. Jakarta: Praned Media.
- Suryaningsih, A. (2020). Peningkatan motivasi belajar siswa secara online pada pelajaran animasi 2d melalui strategi komunikasi persuasif. *Ideguru: Jurnal Karya Ilmiah Guru*, 5(1), 9-15.
- Suryawati, I. (2011). Suatu Pengantar Teori dan Praktek. *Jurnalistik. Ghalia Indonesia*. Bogor.
- Tufte, T., & Mefalopulos, P. (2009). *Participatory Communication*. Washington, D.C: The World Bank.
- Wagiran. (2013). *Metodologi Penelitian Pendidikan: Teori Dan Implementasi*. Sleman, Yogyakarta: DEEPUBLISH.
- Wang, P.-W., Lu, W.-H., Ko, N.-Y., Chen, Y.-L., Li, D.-J., Chang, Y.-P., et al. (2020). COVID-19-Related Information Sources and the Relationship With Confidence in People Coping with COVID-19: Facebook Survey Study in Taiwan. *Journal of Medical Internet Research*, 22(6), e20021.
- Wang, P.-W., Lu, W.-H., Ko, N.-Y., Chen, Y.-L., Li, D.-J., Chang, Y.-P., et al. (2020). COVID-19-Related Information Sources and the Relationship With Confidence in People Coping with COVID-19: Facebook Survey Study in Taiwan. *JMIR Publication*, 1-8, 22(6).

-
- Xie, Y. (2000). Demography: Past, present, and future. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 95(450), 670–673.
- Yuteva A, S., & Yuyetta, E. N. (2010). Analisis Pengaruh Etika Kerja Islam Terhadap Komitmen Profesi Internal Auditor, Komitmen Organisasi, dan Sikap Perubahan Organisasi (Studi Empiris Terhadap Internal Auditor Perbankan Syariah di Kota Semarang dan Jakarta). (*Doctoral dissertation, UNIVERSITAS DIPONEGORO*).
- Zhong, B.-L., Luo, W., Li, H.-M., Zhang, Q.-Q., Liu, X.-G., Li, W.-T., et al. (2020). Knowledge, attitudes, and practices towards COVID-19 among Chinese residents during the rapid rise period of the COVID-19 outbreak: a quick online cross-sectional survey. *International journal of biological sciences*, 16(10), 1745.

Countering Misinformation on Indonesian Digital Media Through Islamic Perspective

6

Fariza Yuniar Rakhmawati and Nia Ashton Destrity

Abstract

The presence of digital media allows for more effective and less time-consuming information dissemination. Nonetheless, the readily available digital information may contain both reliable facts and unreliable content, with the latter increasingly escalating. Digital media, including contemporary online platforms such as social media and instant messengers, facilitate the dissemination of various forms of misinformation related to health, the environment (e.g., climate change), knowledge, and religion. Misinformation refers to false information regarding "factual matters" not supported by clear evidence or expert opinion. Previous studies have highlighted that social media has become a potent channel for presenting and disseminating misinformation. While social media is often criticized for being a primary source of and playing a significant role in spreading misinformation, it can also serve to correct it. According to some literature, several strategies can be implemented to combat the spread of misinformation, including expert correction, social correction, and algorithmic and platform correction. From a sociocultural perspective, particularly concerning religion, the solution to misinformation has been provided by Islamic tenets—major solutions to misinformation come from religious leaders, Islamic institutions, and the results of scientific studies. Religion is part of the cultural system that is a soft power in addressing crises. Individuals often turn to local or religious identities due to a lack of security in the modern nation-state. The existence of a study of solutions to the problem of misinformation within the Islamic tradition further supports the theory of communication from an Islamic perspective.

Keywords

Digital media · Inclusive economy · Misinformation

F. Y. Rakhmawati · N. A. Destrity

Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science,
Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

e-mail: farizayuniar@ub.ac.id; nia.ashton@ub.ac.id

6.1 Introduction

The presence of digital media allows for more effective and less time-consuming information dissemination. Nevertheless, readily available digital information may contain both reliable facts and unreliable content, with the latter increasingly prevalent. Communication scholars have expressed growing concerns about fake news since the emergence of digital media as a medium of political communication, which has led to the rapid spread of information to a broader audience. The web environment serves as a significant contributor to the climate of political misinformation (Gill & Rojas, 2020).

In addition to its political implications, digital media, including contemporary online platforms such as social media and instant messengers, also facilitate the disseminating of various forms of misinformation related to health, the environment (e.g., climate change), knowledge, and religion. Several researchers have extensively reported the widespread dissemination of false or misleading information across different subjects on social media platforms (Vraga et al., 2019). Briones, Nan, Madden, and Waks elucidated that a significant portion of this misinformation propagates through social media, facilitating the swift dissemination of information (Bode & Vraga, 2018). While social media serves as a worldwide source of information, entertainment, and social interaction, it has also faced criticism for being a conduit for misinformation (Khan & Idris, 2019).

6.2 Misinformation on Indonesian Digital Media

Nyhan & Reifler defined misinformation as false information regarding "factual matters" that is not supported by clear evidence or expert opinion (Lwin et al., 2021; Soto-Vásquez et al., 2021), and Brennen et al. (2020) used the term misinformation to refer to all kinds of false information regardless of the intention behind it (Lwin et al., 2021). Many researchers have expressed concerns that social media has exacerbated the effects of misinformation, causing various negative impacts on democratic societies (Vraga et al., 2019). Furthermore, Sunstein added that misinformation

related to elite polarization has facilitated tribal thinking, which, in turn, makes extreme ideas appear less radical and encourages group members to adopt an increasingly fanatical attitude (Rhodes, 2022).

In terms of health and public policy, misinformation can harm civil society's welfare, leading to distrust of authority and preventing the success of public health interventions (Soto-Vásquez et al., 2021), which may result in suboptimal health behaviors (Vraga et al., 2019). Besides generating public distrust in the government, misinformation can lead to state partition (LIPI, 2019). Kuklinski et al. (2020) articulated that misinformation can lead to a broader array of public preferences than if the public is provided with accurate information, which can have negative policy implications, causing people to believe in false information (Vraga et al., 2019). As a result, this condition can further distance the public from facts.

The public's easy access to information without strong digital literacy may result in the proliferation of uncontrollable misinformation. Purwaningsih elucidated that social media operates based on algorithms that provide users with only preferred or relevant information, eroding the logic in the reception of information and blunting the public's critical reasoning (LIPI, 2019). Data released by the Ministry of Communication and Information Technology reported that 800,000 sites in Indonesia have been identified as spreading false information by spreading negative content that causes anxiety and mutual suspicion in society (Yuliani, 2017). The Indonesian government highlighted that misinformation about the SARS-CoV-2 virus predominantly circulates on platforms like WhatsApp, which is reinforced by WhatsApp's features, including its ad-free nature, minimal device storage demands, and the absence of monitoring or moderation by the company (Wendratama, 2020). As a result of these attributes, WhatsApp has emerged as one of the platforms that facilitate the proliferation of misinformation. From this data, it is clear that Indonesia faces the challenge of the potential spread of misinformation through digital media, especially on social media.

Previous studies have highlighted that social media has become a potent channel for presenting and disseminating misinformation. Mitchell, et al. (2015) suggested that this is attributed to the increasing number of individuals who now depend on social media as their primary source of news (Bode & Vraga, 2017). This situation has exacerbated the adverse

consequences of misinformation because users who view social media as their primary information outlet are likely to perceive it as trustworthy. Additionally, Johnson and Kaye observed that those relying heavily on a specific platform are more inclined to regard it as a credible source (Bode & Vraga, 2017). According to Lewandowsky et al. (2012) the pervasiveness of misinformation becomes especially problematic if, as some argue, attempts to mitigate bias are ineffective or potentially counterproductive, inadvertently reinforcing falsehoods (Walter & Murphy, 2018).

6.3. Countering Misinformation through Social Media

Despite frequent criticism of social media as a primary source and facilitator of misinformation dissemination, it also possesses the potential to rectify misinformation (Bode & Vraga, 2018; Vraga et al., 2019). Within this framework, Gesser-Edelsburg et al. (2017) pointed out that social media offers a diverse blend of scientific literature, medical experts, government officials, and even pseudoscientific research, some of which can serve the purpose of rectifying misinformation (Soto-Vásquez et al., 2021).

The requirement for information validation has surged notably due to the prevalence of fake news and the dissemination of inaccurate information, particularly on social media platforms (Khan & Idris, 2019). According to some literature, various approaches can be employed to counteract the propagation of misinformation, encompassing expert correction, social correction, as well as algorithmic and platform correction (Soto-Vásquez et al., 2021). Expert correction involves posts from expert sources that provide credible evidence (Vraga et al., 2020). Thus, this study explains that expert correction is a corrective message for misinformation originating from expert and knowledgeable sources in relevant fields, meeting credibility criteria as information sources. Social corrections made by fellow social media users can be quite successful in diminishing misinformation, particularly in cases where (1) numerous corrections are made and (2) users offer a source to support their corrective information;

these results hold for both Facebook and Twitter platforms (Vraga & Bode, 2017). Social corrections entail information corrections from social network users, encompassing family, relatives, friends, and other users with weaker connections. Misinformation corrections were more frequently observed within the context of intimate and interpersonal interaction platforms (Soto-Vásquez et al., 2021).

Furthermore, other social media users with weaker connections also have the potential to serve as sources of information that correct misinformation. According to Bode, these less strong connections are especially efficient in disseminating information because they add diversity to news, viewpoints, and experiences due to their dissimilarity compared to close friends (Bode & Vraga, 2017). Algorithmic and platform correction refers to corrective information presented through algorithms. Algorithmic correction utilizes social media algorithms to trigger corrective actions for users (Huang & Wang, 2020). Partnering with social media platforms to promote the presentation of debunking information within algorithms has several limitations, including algorithm exclusivity and personalization, which might make social media companies less willing to engage in efforts to tailor their messages to specific issues (Bode & Vraga, 2017). Algorithmic correction might also engage a consensus heuristic by displaying correctives as items that have been similarly appreciated by others (Huang & Wang, 2020). Additionally, on social media platforms like Facebook, story algorithms are only active when someone clicks on external links, limiting the number of people who will see corrective information through that algorithm (Bode & Vraga, 2017). Citing Sundar et al. (2015), when algorithms display information based on the views or recommendations of other users, it can evoke normative perceptions and convey a feeling of social endorsement, consequently enhancing perceptions of credibility (Huang & Wang, 2020).

Media literacy intervention also needs to be strengthened to prevent the negative consequences of misinformation by providing media consumers with the knowledge to resist persuasion from untruth communication (Hameleers, 2020). In the context of this study, media literacy encompasses news literacy or news media literacy. When addressing misinformation, media literacy messages must educate individuals about identifying false information, enlighten them about the repercussions of deceptive information, and teach them how to differentiate between accurate and

false information (Hameleers, 2020). Therefore, media literacy focusing on news literacy emphasizes the knowledge, abilities, and skills of individuals, in this case, social media users, to critically assess the information they receive. News literacy messages that prompt individuals to differentiate between reliable and unreliable news and information have the potential to enhance the impact of correction efforts, leading to a reduction in misunderstandings (Vraga et al., 2020). According to a study by Hameleers (2020), news media literacy encompasses individuals' understanding of the existence of misleading information, knowledge related to how false information can be detected by assessing the source, type of evidence, and presented argumentation, and the ability to differentiate external reality from the (biased) media representation of reality.

Literate individuals will be able to think critically and possess the ability to evaluate the information they receive. According to Lewandowsky et al., the recipient of information shall evaluate the truth of a statement by paying attention to the following key messaging features: a) Does the information align with the existing beliefs? b) Is the information internally consistent? c) Does the information originate from a trustworthy source? d) Is the information trusted by others? To some degree, evaluating the truthfulness of information aligns with the common strategies employed to rectify misinformation. These strategies include appealing to consensus (such as emphasizing widespread agreement among scientists on climate change), ensuring coherence (like offering alternative explanations for misleading vaccine safety information), establishing source credibility (highlighting the disagreement between official agencies and claims about vaccine-autism links), fact-checking (verifying the accuracy of statements concerning political policies), and providing general warnings (issuing cautionary statements about social media-consumed news) (Walter & Murphy, 2018).

According to Vraga et al., (2019) there are two approaches, namely inoculation and observational correction, to counter misinformation on social media. The fundamental premise of the Inoculation theory, initially developed by McGuire and his associates, posits that individuals can be "inoculated" against misinformation by prior comprehension of the underlying mechanisms and logical fallacies frequently employed in the argumentation of skeptical counter movements (Schmid-Petri & Bürger,

2022). In general, inoculation messages consist of two critical components in their structure: a forewarning about the risk of misinformation (a direct alert about an existing hazard that requires prevention, such as a notification highlighting arguments that question the established scientific consensus on climate change) and counter-arguments that debunk the misinformation (clarification of the employed argumentative methods, which expose the logical fallacies, like employing fabricated experts to lend more credibility to skeptical arguments) (Schmid-Petri & Bürger, 2022; Vraga et al., 2019).

Citing Kahneman (2003), the primary objective of inoculation is to prompt individuals to move away from their reliance on heuristic information processing, allowing them to engage more extensively with the arguments they encounter and delve into a deeper level of processing (Schmid-Petri & Bürger, 2022). Inoculation messages vary widely, including rational-based messages (encompassing facts and logic), narrative-based, and humor-based messages. While the majority of inoculation research has traditionally focused on fact-based strategies (utilizing subject-related information to combat misinformation about that subject), recent studies have started to delve into logic-based methodologies (as described by Cook et al. (2017)). These entail the use of critical thinking techniques to expose the flawed reasoning within deceptive arguments) (Vraga et al., 2019). Narratives encompass various elements (such as plot, genre, tone, and the likability of characters, as described by Green (2018) that may interact with sidedness and influence processing and persuasion (Sangalang et al., 2019). Humor serves as a portal that can acquaint audiences with scientific information, and it has the potential to influence how individuals engage with the message (Vraga et al., 2019). Therefore, through such explanations, narrative, and humor have the potential to be employed in designing inoculation messages for social media users to combat misinformation. In addition to the inoculation mechanism, the second approach to combat misinformation is observational correction. Observational correction is manifested when individuals on social media modify their perspectives after observing another user receiving a correction (Vraga & Bode, 2017). Drawing from Vraga & Bode (2019), recent investigations into observational correction suggest that when numerous users share links to reputable sources,

corrections initiated by users can notably reduce misconceptions within the community (Vraga et al., 2019).

Both individuals and institutions need to raise their voices when they come across misinformation on social media (Vraga & Bode, 2017). For instance, authoritative bodies such as the World Health Organization (WHO) and the Ministry of Health should consistently generate and disseminate educational messages and corrections regarding health-related misinformation through social media. Organizations should also regularly monitor social media feeds and promptly counter misinformation whenever it emerges (Vraga & Bode, 2017).

Based on Lee & Van Dyke (2015), the communication of scientific information on social media frequently tends to be unidirectional or one-way (Vraga & Bode, 2017). With the various features provided by social media, science communication can be delivered through more interactive two-way communication and in a manner that encourages dialogue, thus enhancing opportunities for users to provide each other with feedback and corrections regarding circulating misinformation. Users can participate in this endeavor by countering misinformation and offering reliable links (Vraga & Bode, 2017).

Scheufele and Krause (2019) pointed out an unsettling reality, highlighting that while fact-checking efforts can occasionally correct individual misconceptions, a substantial body of evidence from the fields of political communication and social psychology suggests that fact-checking can have limited effectiveness or, in some cases, even lead to undesirable outcomes in situations where audiences are strongly motivated to uphold their pre-existing beliefs (Krause et al., 2020). Additionally, Ramadhan emphasized the growth of digital literacy initiatives, albeit their reach remains constrained, and the proliferation of fact-checking sources faces challenges in dissemination (Biro Kerja Sama, Hukum, dan Humas LIPI, 2019). Given the absence of traditional journalistic gatekeeping functions and the influence of social media algorithms in the contemporary media landscape, individuals rely on their judgment and social networks when consuming and sharing information. Consequently, subjectivity and audience biases are pivotal in how individuals interpret and distribute information on social media platforms (Khan & Idris, 2019).

Zubiaga and Ji (2013) elucidated that information and fake news frequently circulate, are retweeted, and spread across social media

platforms without undergoing verification by individuals (Khan & Idris, 2019). Consequently, individuals play a pivotal and significant role in addressing the proliferation of misinformation on social media. They can validate the information they encounter, especially within social media. Fallis supported this notion by emphasizing that as long as individuals try to differentiate false or inaccurate information from reliable sources, there is a decreased likelihood of being misled by erroneous information (Khan & Idris, 2019). Besides depending on the individuals, the group also has a crucial role in fighting misinformation. As previously explained, this point is indicated by the study by Kligler-Vilenchik (2022), who demonstrated that social correction (the rectification of misinformation by fellow social media users directed toward individuals within a specific social media network) constitutes one method to address the challenge of misinformation. Researchers have proposed a collective concept of social correction as an ongoing practice of information verification, which occurs in a group context. Thus, social correction is also highly influenced by the participation of individuals as part of the social user network, actively contributing to providing corrections for misinformation.

6.4 Islamic Perspective of Communication

Analyzing the issue of misinformation requires a sociocultural perspective. Media content, including digital misinformation, is inseparable from the social and cultural context. The dissemination of misinformation is connected to the value systems held by individuals (Farrell et al., 2019), and these values are shaped by culture (Rampersad and Althiyabi, 2019). The extent to which individuals respond to misinformation significantly varies based on different sociocultural contexts. It becomes apparent that individuals may either propagate or abstain from disseminating misinformation, with culture emerging as a pivotal determinant. Consequently, it is imperative to contextualize the overarching phenomenon of misinformation, including the discourse surrounding it and audience responses, within the encompassing framework of social, cultural, political, and economic dimensions, as posited by Wasserman (2020); Wasserman & Madrid-Morales (2019) and

articulated by Madrid-Morales, et.al (2021). A suitable sociocultural approach will enable professionals and policymakers to create more precise and effective strategies for combating misinformation (Jo, 2022).

Numerous research studies have highlighted disparities in how societies respond to misinformation in the realm of digital media, particularly when comparing across different cultures. Jo (2022) emphasize variations in the dissemination of misinformation within Chinese and American societies, where the role of FoMO (Fear of Missing Out) in promoting online information is consistently more prominent for American respondents than for Chinese respondents. Such findings are likely due to the more collectivist nature of Chinese society (Hofstede, 2011), which provides individuals with stronger offline connections with others, such as family ties, friendships, and coworkers. Conversely, in societies that prioritize personal liberty and individual autonomy over collective obligations, individuals tend to exhibit a higher susceptibility to FoMO as they strive to meet their social needs, a notion supported by the works of Jackson and Wang (2013) and Stump and Gong (2020). These findings find resonance in Balakrishnan's (2021; 2023) investigations into the motives behind disseminating false information during the COVID-19 pandemic, where sociocultural elements, notably the influence of one's social network (friends and family) and adherence to prevailing social norms (embedded in one's immediate environment and society), emerged as the most influential factors.

The Islamic approach provides a noteworthy alternative for addressing the challenge of misinformation from a sociocultural dimension. The Quran and Hadith, the foundation of Islam, provide solutions to all the challenges encountered by societies, encompassing the issue of rumors, falsehoods, and propaganda (Islam, 2019). Al-Qur'an and Hadith are comprehensive primary references used by Muslims to navigate life, encompassing their relationship with Allah (*habluminallah*) as well as their interactions with fellow human beings (*habluminannas*). As elucidated by Mowlana (2021), sociocultural facets, particularly those associated with religion and spirituality, present an intriguing lens through which to tackle societal issues. Religion, as an integral component of the cultural framework, assumes the role of soft power in resolving crises. People resort to their local or religious identities as a response to insecurity within the modern nation-state.

Based on the academic inquiry into communication from an Islamic perspective, a divergence between Western and Islamic paradigms becomes evident. It is undeniable that Western influence has held domination over communication theory. Nevertheless, a noticeable shift has occurred in recent years, marked by a growing body of research into communication science from an Islamic standpoint. This trend commenced with the introduction of an Islamic communication model by scholars like Hamid Mowlana and Muhammad Ayish (Kasmani et al., 2017; Khiabany, 2003). This model is context-dependent and is rooted in local values, with religion, particularly Islam, serving as a significant influence that consistently shapes communication among Muslims (Pintak, 2014).

Mowlana, as referenced in Khiabany (2003), introduced a model that challenges conventional Western communication models. This Islamic communication model comprises four fundamental principles, which Mowlana termed as "Tablig" or propagation: monotheism, the doctrine of responsibility (*amr bi al-ma'ruf wa nahy'an al munkar*), the concept of the Islamic community, and the principle of piety. Additionally, in Ahmed (2018), Mowlana delved into communication ethics, aligning them with journalism and drawing from Quranic concepts like monotheism (*tawhid*), God-consciousness (*taqwa*), and trusteeship (*amāna*). In a departure from conventional ethical models of Islamic journalism, as found in Mowlana (2007), he advocated for the establishment of ethical standards by professional associations of Muslim journalists, safeguarding the rights of individual local journalists, and promoting the education and training of young individuals, who constitute the primary human resource for culture and Islam. Moreover, Ayish (2003) expanded on these ideas by identifying four contrasting conceptual frameworks characterizing communication from an Arab-Islamic perspective: individualism-conformity, transcendentalism-existentialism, intuitive-rational processes, and egalitarianism-hierarchy.

The pattern of Arabic-Islamic communication is characterized as formalistic, indirect, hyperbolic, asymmetrical, metaphysical, and predominantly verbal. The emphasis on communication from an Islamic perspective is also evident through a working group called 'Islam and Media' within the International Association for Media and Communication Research (IAMCR). The main goal of this working group is to enhance research and assessment in the realms of media and communication,

emphasizing an Islamic perspective, with a specific emphasis on the concept of Tawhid, as articulated by Semati (2011).

6.5 Countering Misinformation from Islamic Perspective

Addressing misinformation from an Islamic perspective is intricately tied to the fundamental Islamic concept of 'tawhīd' or monotheism. The ethical principles governing reporting in Islam align with the universal ethical standards of media ethics, but the foundation of faith is what makes it different (Zaheril, 2019) or the principle of 'tawhid' (AlNuaimi & Azzi, 2022; Mowlana, 2007). 'Tawhīd' signifies the belief in the Oneness of Allah, acknowledging Allah as the Sole Creator and the exclusive object of worship. Therefore, individuals engaged in disseminating information may develop a heightened sense of ethics, responsibility, and accountability to Allah when seeking the truth (Ahmed, 2018). Additionally, Muslims staunchly uphold the Islamic principle of 'enjoining good and forbidding evil' (al-amr bi- l-ma'rūf wa-l-nahy 'an al-munkar). This obligation applies to all forms of social communication, including digital media platforms (Ahmed, 2018). Guided by this principle, it becomes incumbent upon Muslims to propagate the truth and counter misinformation.

Furthermore, the Quran emphasizes the importance of 'ilm' or knowledge for a Muslim. Knowledge is a fundamental human necessity, without which survival and success are improbable. The concept of 'ilm' in Islam implies that individuals have the inherent right to access information that is beneficial and pertinent to their lives. Therefore, Muslims are duty-bound to provide information on what is 'ma'rūf' (virtuous) and offer support while simultaneously identifying 'munkar' (wrongdoing) and opposing it (Ahmed, 2018).

In Islam, every Muslim bears a responsibility to counter misinformation by abstaining from disseminating unverified information regarding its accuracy and authenticity. This principle is delineated in the Qur'an (QS An-Nur: 24), as it states, 'When you received it with your tongues and said with your mouths that of which you had no knowledge and thought it was

insignificant while it was, in the sight of Allah, tremendous.' Likewise, Hadith reinforces the significance of refraining from indiscriminately sharing information. Abu Hurairah (May Allah be pleased with him) narrates that the Prophet (ﷺ) said, 'It is enough for a man to prove himself a liar when he goes on narrating whatever he hears.'

Research conducted by Zubair (2019) elucidates Islamic principles regarding the dissemination and sharing of information as a means of combating misinformation, encompassing both the processes of acquiring and evaluating information. Acquiring information entails a critical assessment of the credibility of its sources. Thoroughly scrutinizing the reliability of these sources is essential before accepting or refuting any information. In this regard, Islam places significant emphasis on the importance of information credibility, evident in the methodology of hadith transmission in Islam, which revolves around evaluating the credibility of hadith narrators. In this context, every narrator within the chain of transmission must be meticulously identified and possess sufficient credibility. Imam Muslim (rha) introduced his compilation of authentic Hadith with a chapter entitled, "The chain of verification (*al-isnad*) is part of the religion, and narrations are only accepted from the trustworthy (Parrot, 2018). The reliability of a hadith is assessed through an examination of the biographies of hadith transmitters. This includes comprehensive scrutiny of their biographical details, life chronicles, academic achievements, teachers, students, school of thought, political inclinations, and the perceptions of others regarding them (Ahmed, 2018). Based on the methodology for selecting hadith narrators, it is evident that reaching the original source is imperative to ascertain the credibility of a narrative. Furthermore, research conducted by Kadir et al. (2023) reveals that the criteria for evaluating the credibility of Islamic content shared on social media revolve around four pivotal factors: the source of the content, its accuracy, the authority behind it, and its authenticity.

The Quran instructs Muslims to engage in the practice of *tabayyun* when it comes to information. Ibn Katheer, as elucidated in Hossain (2023), expounds that Allah has directed believers not to hastily form conclusions without first verifying information, especially when it emanates from sources lacking credibility. Failing to do so may result in regrettable consequences and remorse. The concept of '*tabayyun*' underscores the necessity of ensuring the authenticity of information

through a preliminary investigation. It entails a meticulous examination of information to ensure its accuracy and truthfulness. 'Tabayyun' involves the active pursuit of clarification regarding the information and the acquisition of dependable evidence as precautionary steps in the verification process (Mohamad & Isa, 2022).

Similarly, the importance of verification, validation, or investigation of any news or stories is emphasized in The Quran (QS Al-Hujurat: 6), where it admonishes, 'O you who believe! If a troublemaker brings you any news, investigate, lest you harm people out of ignorance, and you become regretful for what you have done. In the endeavor to combat misinformation, the role of clarification and verification by experts in specific fields is paramount. These experts possess the knowledge and expertise to dissect complex information, rectify falsehoods, and offer precise insights that effectively debunk misinformation. This principle supports the Quran, specifically in Surah al-Anbiya', verse 7, which advises, 'If you do not know, ask people who know the Scripture.'

Moreover, combating misinformation can be achieved by cultivating robust information literacy skills. According to Parrott (2018; 2019), the concept of information literacy is harmonious with Islamic principles. Information literacy is in alignment with the core values of Islam that emphasize the acquisition of beneficial knowledge, the validation of truth, and the practice of intellectual humility. It encompasses systematic approaches for evaluating sources, seeking guidance from experts and expert communities, structured learning, effective search methods, citation analysis, and proficiency in technical computer skills.

References

- Ahmed. (2018). "Fake News" and "Retweets": News Reporting and Dissemination Ethics in the Qur'ān. *Journal of Islamic and Muslim Studies*, 3(2). <https://doi.org/10.2979/jims.3.2.05>
- Alimardani, M., & Elswah, M. (2020). Online Temptations: COVID-19 and Religious Misinformation in the MENA Region. *Social Media and Society*, 6(3). <https://doi.org/10.1177/2056305120948251>

- Allen, M. (2017). The SAGE Encyclopedia of Communication Research Methods. In *The SAGE Encyclopedia of Communication Research Methods*. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781483381411>
- AlNuaimi, A. J., & Azzi, A. (2022). Islamic Ethics & Social Media Use: A Study in Theory & Practice. *Journal of Positive School Psychology*, 3(3), 6698–6710.
- Ayish, M. I. (2003). Beyond Western-oriented communication theories: A normative Arab-Islamic perspective. *Javnost*, 10(2). <https://doi.org/10.1080/13183222.2003.11008829>
- Azzuhri, A. (2020). Tabayyun As A Crucial Aspect In The Quranic Concept Of Ummah Analysis Of “Tabayyun” In Sura Al-Hujuraat (49:6). *Hunafa: Jurnal Studia Islamika*, 17(2). <https://doi.org/10.24239/jsi.v17i2.603.27-46>
- Balakrishnan, Vimala, Kee S. Ng, and Hajar Abdul Rahim. 2021. “To Share or Not to Share – The Underlying Motives of Sharing Fake News amidst the COVID-19 Pandemic in Malaysia.” *Technology in Society* 66. doi: 10.1016/j.techsoc.2021.101676.
- Balakrishnan, Vimala, Luqman Hakim Abdul Rahman, Jia Kai Tan, and Yee Sin Lee. 2023. “COVID-19 Fake News among the General Population: Motives, Sociodemographic, Attitude/Behavior and Impacts – a Systematic Review.” *Online Information Review* 47(5). doi: 10.1108/OIR-02-2022-0082.
- Biro Kerja Sama, Hukum, dan Humas LIPI, B. K. S. H. dan H. L. (2019, December 20). *Hoax dan Misinformasi Jadi Tantangan Media Sosial di Indonesia*. Badan Riset Dan Inovasi Nasional. <https://ipsh.brin.go.id/2019/12/20/hoax-dan-misinformasi-jadi-tantangan-media-sosial-di-indonesia/>
- Bode, L., & Vraga, E. K. (2017). See Something, Say Something: Correction of Global Health Misinformation on Social Media. *Health Communication*, 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10410236.2017.1331312>
- Brennen, J. S., Simon, F., Howard, P. N., & Nielsen, R. K. (2020). Types, sources, and claims of Covid-19 misinformation. Reuters Institute.

<https://reutersinstitute.politics.ox.ac.uk/types-sources-and-claims-covid-19-misinformation>

- Bryman, A. (2016). *Social Research Methods* - Alan Bryman - Google Books. In *OUP Oxford*.
- Cook, J., Lewandowsky, S., & Ecker, U. (2017). Neutralizing misinformation through inoculation: Exposing misleading argumentation techniques reduces their influence. *Plos One*, 12 (5), e0175799. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0175799
- Farrell, Tracie, Lara Piccolo, Serena Coppolino Perfumi, Martino Mensio, and Harith Alani. 2019. "Understanding the Role of Human Values in the Spread of Misinformation."
- Gesser-Edelsburg, A., Walter, N., & Shir-Raz, Y. (2017). The "new public" and the "good ol' press": Evaluating online news sources during the 2013 polio outbreak in Israel." *Health Communication*, 32(2), 169–179. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10410236.2015.1110224>
- Gill, H., & Rojas, H. (2020). Chatting in a mobile chamber: effects of instant messenger use on tolerance toward political misinformation among South Koreans. *Asian Journal of Communication*, 30(6), 470–493. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01292986.2020.1825757>
- Hameleers, M. (2020). Separating truth from lies: Comparing the effects of news media literacy interventions and fact-checkers in response to political misinformation in the US and Netherlands. *Information Communication and Society*, 0(0), 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1369118X.2020.1764603>
- Hofstede, Geert. 2011. "Dimensionalizing Cultures: The Hofstede Model in Context." *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture* 2(1). doi: 10.9707/2307-0919.1014.
- Hossain, Delowar ASM. 2023. "Roadmap to Social Reconstruction from Surah al-Hujurāt: Safeguarding Society from Misinformation and Disinformation". *IIUM Journal of Religion and Civilisational Studies*.
- Huang, Y., & Wang, W. (2020). When a story contradicts: Correcting health misinformation on social media through different message formats and

-
- mechanisms. *Information Communication and Society*, 0(0), 1–18.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/1369118X.2020.1851390>
- Islam, Md Tarequl. 2019. “The Impact of Social Media on Muslim Society: From Islamic Perspective.” *International Journal of Social and Humanities Sciences (IJSHS)* 3(3).
- Jackson, Linda A., and Jin Liang Wang. 2013. “Cultural Differences in Social Networking Site Use: A Comparative Study of China and the United States.” *Computers in Human Behavior* 29(3). doi: 10.1016/j.chb.2012.11.024.
- Jo, Hyerim, Fan Yang, and Qing Yan. 2022. “Spreaders vs Victims: The Nuanced Relationship between Age and Misinformation via FoMO and Digital Literacy in Different Cultures.” *New Media and Society*. doi: 10.1177/14614448221130476.
- Kadir, Kairulanuar, Noraidah Sahari Ashaari, Ratna Zuarni Ramli, and Juhana Salim. 2023. “Islamic Information Credibility Scale Development : Factors and Indicators Validation Using Fuzzy Delphi Technique.” *Information Development*. doi: 10.1177/02666669231163255.
- Kahneman D (2003) A perspective on judgment and choice: Mapping bounded rationality. *American Psychologist* 58(9): 697–720.
- Kasmani, M. F., Yusoff, S. H., Kanaker, O., & Abdullah, R. (2017). The Islamic communication paradigm: Challenges and future directions. *Advanced Science Letters*, 23(5).
<https://doi.org/10.1166/asl.2017.8904>
- Khan, M. L., & Idris, I. K. (2019). Recognize misinformation and verify before sharing: a reasoned action and information literacy perspective. *Behavior and Information Technology*, 38(12), 1194–1212. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0144929X.2019.1578828>
- Khiabany, G. (2003). De-westernizing Media Theory, or Reverse Orientalism: ‘Islamic Communication’ as Theorized by Hamid Mowlana. *Media, Culture & Society*, 25(3).
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0163443703025003007>

- Kligler-Vilenchik, N. (2022). Collective Social Correction: Addressing Misinformation through Group Practices of Information Verification on WhatsApp. *Digital Journalism*, 10(2), 300–318.
- Krause, N. M., Freiling, I., Beets, B., & Brossard, D. (2020). Fact-checking as risk communication: the multi-layered risk of misinformation in times of COVID-19. *Journal of Risk Research*, 23(7–8), 1052–1059. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13669877.2020.1756385>
- Kuklinski, J. H., Quirk, P. J., Jerit, J., Schwieder, D., & Rich, R. F. (2000). Misinformation and the currency of democratic citizenship. *The Journal of Politics*, 62(3), 790–816. doi:10.1111/0022-3816.00033
- Lee, N. M., & Van Dyke, M. S. (2015). Set it and forget it: The one-way use of social media by government agencies communicating science. *Science Communication*, 37, 533-541. doi:10.1177/1075547015588600
- Lewandowsky, S., Ecker, U. K. H., Seifert, C. M., Schwarz, N., & Cook, J. (2012). Misinformation and its correction. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, 13, 106–131. doi:10.1177/1529100612451018
- LIPI, B. K. S. H. dan H. (2019). *Hoax dan Misinformasi Jadi Tantangan Media Sosial di Indonesia*. Lembaga Ilmu Pengetahuan Indonesia. <http://lipi.go.id/berita/Hoax-dan-Misinformasi-Jadi-Tantangan-Media-Sosial-di-Indonesia/21910>
- Lwin, M. O., Lee, S. Y., Panchapakesan, C., & Tandoc, E. (2021). Mainstream News Media's Role in Public Health Communication During Crises: Assessment of Coverage and Correction of COVID-19 Misinformation. *Health Communication*, 00(00), 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10410236.2021.1937842>
- Madrid-Morales, Dani, Herman Wasserman, Gregory Gondwe, Khulekani Ndlovu, Etse Sikanku, Melissa Tully, Emeka Umejei, and Chikezie Uzuegbunam. 2021. "Motivations for Sharing Misinformation: A Comparative Study in Six Sub-Saharan African Countries." *International Journal of Communication* 15.

- McGuire WJ and Papageorgis D (1961) The relative efficacy of various types of prior belief-defense in producing immunity against persuasion. *The Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology* 62(2): 327–337.
- Mitchell, A., Gottfried, J., & Matsa, K. E. (2015). Millennials and political news: Social media – the local TV for the next generation? Pew research center. Retrieved from <http://www.journalism.org/2015/06/01/millennials-political-news/>
- Mohamad, Nor Musfirah binti, and Nurul Husna binti Mat Isa. 2022. “The Principles of Tabayyun According to the Qur’an Solutions to the Challenges and Strife of the Social Media.Pdf.” *Al-Burhān Journal of Qur’ān and Sunnah Studies* 6(1).
- Mowlana, H. (2007). Hamid Mowlana, Theoretical Perspectives on Islam and Communication. *China Media Research*, 3(4).
- Mowlana, H. (2021). The cultural dimensions of the coronavirus crisis: soft power revisited. *Journal of Multicultural Discourses*, 16(1). <https://doi.org/10.1080/17447143.2020.1863415>
- Parrott, J. (2018). Finding Truth in the Age of Misinformation: Information Literacy in Islam. In *Yaqeen Institute for Islamic Research*.
- Pintak, L. (2014). Islam, identity and professional values: A study of journalists in three Muslim-majority regions. *Journalism*, 15(4). <https://doi.org/10.1177/1464884913490269>
- Pondok Pesantren Islam Al Mukmin, P. P. I. A. M. (2021). *Pandangan Islam terhadap Berita Hoax*. <https://almukminngruki.or.id/index.php/23-fiqih/115-pandangan-islam-terhadap-berita-hoax>
- Rampersad, Giselle, and Turki Althiyabi. 2020. “Fake News: Acceptance by Demographics and Culture on Social Media.” *Journal of Information Technology and Politics* 17(1). doi: 10.1080/19331681.2019.1686676.
- Rhodes, S. C. (2022). Filter Bubbles, Echo Chambers, and Fake News: How Social Media Conditions Individuals to Be Less Critical of

- Political Misinformation. *Political Communication*, 39(1), 1–22. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10584609.2021.1910887>
- Sangalang, A., Ophir, Y., & Cappella, J. N. (2019). The potential for Narrative correctives to combat misinformation. *Journal of Communication*, 69(3), 298–319. <https://doi.org/10.1093/joc/jqz014>
- Scheufele, D. A., and N. M. Krause. 2019. “Science Audiences, Misinformation, and Fake News.” *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 116 (16): 7662–7669. doi:10.1073/pnas.1805871115.
- Schmid-Petri, H., & Bürger, M. (2022). The effect of misinformation and inoculation: Replication of an experiment on the effect of false experts in the context of climate change communication. *Public Understanding of Science*, 31(2), 152–167. <https://doi.org/10.1177/09636625211024550>
- Semati, M. (2011). Communication, culture, and the essentialized Islam. *Communication Studies*, 62(1). <https://doi.org/10.1080/10510974.2011.540975>
- Soto-Vásquez, A. D., Gonzalez, A. A., Shi, W., Garcia, N., & Hernandez, J. (2021). COVID-19: Contextualizing Misinformation Flows in a US Latinx Border Community (Media and Communication During COVID-19). *Howard Journal of Communications*, 32(5), 421–439. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10646175.2020.1860839>
- Stump, Rodney L., and Wen Gong. 2020. “Social Media Adoption and National Culture: The Dominant and Nuanced Effect of Individualism-Collectivism.” *Stump, Gong / Journal of Business and Management* 26(2).
- Suleiman, O. (2022). *Social Media, Misinformation, And The Assassination of Uthman (ra) | Khutbah | Yaqeen Institute for Islamic Research*. Yaqeen Institute. <https://yaqeeninstitute.org/omar-suleiman/social-media-misinformation-and-the-assassination-of-Uthman-khutbah>
- Sundar, S. S., Jia, H., Waddell, T. F., & Huang, Y. (2015). Toward a theory of interactive media effects (TIME): Four models for explaining how

- interface features affect user psychology. In S. S. Sundar (Ed.), *The handbook of the psychology of communication technology* (pp. 47–86). Wiley-Blackwell. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004>
- Vraga, E. K., & Bode, L. (2017). Using Expert Sources to Correct Health Misinformation in Social Media. *Science Communication*, 39(5), 621–645. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1075547017731776>
- Vraga, E. K., Bode, L., & Tully, M. (2020). Creating News Literacy Messages to Enhance Expert Corrections of Misinformation on Twitter. *Communication Research*, pp. 1–23. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0093650219898094>
- Vraga, E. K., Kim, S. C., & Cook, J. (2019). Testing Logic-based and Humor-based Corrections for Science, Health, and Political Misinformation on Social Media. *Journal of Broadcasting and Electronic Media*, 63(3), 393–414. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08838151.2019.1653102>
- Walter, N., & Murphy, S. T. (2018). How to unring the bell: A meta-analytic approach to correction of misinformation. *Communication Monographs*, 85(3), 423–441. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03637751.2018.1467564>
- Wasserman, Herman, and Dani Madrid-Morales. 2019. “An Exploratory Study of ‘Fake News’ and Media Trust in Kenya, Nigeria and South Africa.” *African Journalism Studies* 40(1). doi: 10.1080/23743670.2019.1627230.
- Wasserman, Herman. 2020. “Fake News from Africa: Panics, Politics and Paradigms.” *Journalism* 21(1). doi: 10.1177/1464884917746861.
- Wendratama, E. (2020). *Sekadar mengingatkan: misinformasi pandemi paling banyak ada di WhatsApp*. The Conversation. <https://theconversation.com/sekadar-mengingatkan-misinformasi-pandemi-paling-banyak-ada-di-whatsapp-135430>
- Yanti, Z. (2021). Online Fake News, Indonesia Law, and Islamic Perspective. *Jurnal Adabiya*, 23(2). <https://doi.org/10.22373/adabiya.v23i2.9169>

-
- Yuliani, A. (2017). *Ada 800.000 Situs Penyebar Hoax di Indonesia*. Kemenkominfo. https://kominfo.go.id/content/detail/12008/ada-800000-situs-penyebar-hoax-di-indonesia/0/sorotan_media
- Zaheril, Z. (2019). Islamic New Media Ethics. *Online Journal of Communication and Media Technologies*, 7(1). <https://doi.org/10.29333/ojcm/2584>
- Zubair, T., Raquib, A., & Qadir, J. (2019). Combating Fake News, Misinformation, and Machine Learning Generated Fakes: Insights from the Islamic Ethical Tradition. *ICR Journal*, 10(2). <https://doi.org/10.52282/icr.v10i2.42>
- Zubiaga, A., and H. Ji. 2013. "Tweet, but Verify: Epistemic Study of Information Verification on Twitter." *Social Network Analysis and Mining*. Retrieved from: <https://arxiv.org/abs/1312.5297>.

Strategic News Framing in Government Policy: Editors Perspectives in Malaysia

7

Azahar Kasim, Mokhtarudin Ahmad, Azman Bidin, Lisa Adhrianti, and Nurzalyna Mohd Zaki

Abstract

The media and the government are two institutions that rely on each other to fulfill the needs and responsibilities of both parties. The media has its own agenda, and the government has a policy agenda to convey the message to the community. The two agendas, coupled with the people's agenda, complement the three agendas used to convey the message to the people about government policy. This study focuses on the three agendas and message delivery techniques used to realize the three agendas through framing. This study examines the implementation of the media agenda, organizational ethics, journalism ethics, and strategic news in displaying government policy. This study was conducted to identify the degree of effectiveness of strategic news on government policy among the people. In-depth interviews were used in this study. A total of seven respondents, consisting of editors, were interviewed as experts. It was found that the framing of news and the use of words, phrases, and sentences were indeed done by journalists and editors in each assignment. Editors admit that news framing occurs in media organizations so that they

A. Kasim

School of Multimedia Technology and Communication (SMMTC), Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM), Kedah, Malaysia

e-mail: w_azahar@uum.edu.my

M. Ahmad

Faculty of Applied Communication, Multimedia University (MMU), Selangor, Malaysia

e-mail: mokhtarrudin@mmu.edu.my

A. Bidin

Faculty of Language Studies and Human Development, Universiti Malaysia Kelantan, Malaysia

e-mail: azman.bidin@umk.edu.my

L. Adhrianti

Faculty of Social and Political Sciences, University Bengkulu, Indonesia

e-mail: lisaadhrianti@unib.ac.id

N. M. Zaki

School of Government (SOG), Universiti Utara Malaysia, Kedah, Malaysia

strategize the news to allow readers to understand government policy more easily. They also acknowledged that the media agenda, in line with the other two agendas, was implemented with the help of organizational ethics and journalistic ethics to convey policies in the Government Transformation Program (GTP). This study concludes that the media and government need each other. Journalists and editors are the backbones of preparing writing materials and disseminating their writing strategically to make it easy to understand.

Keywords

Framing Strategic News · Journalism Ethics · Media Agenda · Media Organization Ethics · Policy Agenda · People's Agenda

7.1 Introduction

Mass media is a manifestation of recent advances in information and communication technology that enable faster and easier dissemination of information to society. The information that is spread not only influences society's pattern of thinking and lifestyle but also plays a significant role in shaping a race's culture (Sohana, 2016). In Malaysia, the media fosters unity within society by forming a collective public opinion on addressing public issues and shaping a healthy future for the upcoming generations (Norazleen et al., 2011).

The media is also seen as a potent connecting mechanism due to its profound impact on various aspects of life. Iqmar et al. (2015) state that the media serves as an intermediary between society and the government, facilitating the expression of public opinion and upholding human rights. It serves as a crucial communication channel for the government in its endeavor to develop and transform the nation positively. The media acts as a conduit for spreading ideas and opinions to the target audience in a way that allows readers to understand the content easily. Within the national context, readers are citizens seeking updates on the latest information. As a result, journalism plays a pivotal role as an information disseminator,

interpreter, and observer for the government, providing valuable insights to society through news articles (Mohd et al., 2018).

The journalism industry began in Malaysia in the nineteenth century, primarily through newspaper publications. Newspapers played a critical role in presenting news and satisfying the public's thirst for truth. Nowadays, newspapers are not only responsible for reporting news but also for educating and motivating society toward the government's development goals. They must align with government policies to maintain their position in the media landscape and ensure the continuity of the journalism sector (Normah & Faridah, 2018). Journalists and editors have a significant impact on shaping the public's perception of various issues, both positively and negatively. Objectivity is a prevailing sentiment in the world of journalism, serving as a benchmark for professionalism, especially in the United States, where it relates to the interpretative approach to news reporting (Mohd et al., 2016).

Nevertheless, newspapers have their procedures for writing and presenting news to the public. Media organizations involve the public in the news publication process, as the public serves as a reliable guide for decision-making regarding content and medium (Azimah & Samsudin, 2013). For a long time, mainstream media has played a central role in disseminating information, covering the latest news and current issues (both local and international), with society as the primary recipient of information from mainstream media sources (Mohd et al., 2019). While news and information should be presented relatively without bias, it is worth noting that media organizations may have their own agendas that differ from those of the public. The extent to which the media's agenda aligns with the public's agenda is undefined, particularly regarding the media's coverage of contemporary issues (Aini et al., 2017).

Simultaneously, according to Rani and Faridah (2013), traditional media is still influenced by the need to accommodate owners' interests, owner-driven agendas, national security-related restrictions, and bias. However, the interdependence of the media and the government in serving citizens' needs cannot be denied, necessitating each organization to pursue its own agenda, benefiting both the government and the media. From this perspective, the government has a vested interest in promoting programs with media coverage, given the media's role as the primary intermediary between the public and the government, explaining the reasons and

benefits of specific programs or government visions, as acknowledged by Shuaib (2014).

To achieve the goals of specific groups, media organizations often employ a writing style that incorporates doublespeak or implicit writing. Strategic news reporting techniques are crucial to influencing both the government and the public in social, political, economic, or policy terms. Zuwairi et al. (2016) propose an interpretative writing pattern that focuses on interpreting, evaluating, and explaining a particular issue rather than limiting exploration to presenting facts. This approach accounts for readers interpreting information and media imagery differently as they construct their own identities from their personal viewpoints (Suraiti et al., 2013). In this context, newspapers have equal access to facts about specific issues but disseminate information differently due to their distinctive data interpretation style (Muhammad et al., 2014).

Each issue forwarded by the media acts to provide space for an individual to interpret and evaluate the message conveyed by the mainstream media (Combs & Holladay, 2013), as well as being framed in a way that maximizes societal understanding (Lecheler & De Vreese, 2012). This is attributed to framing being a continuous process in determining the way of thinking, interpretation, presentation, selection, highlighting process, and making exceptions (Giltin, 1980). Zhang et al. (2018) stated that the influence exerted by message framing, chiefly matching the message framing with the monitoring of individuals, results in image perception being influenced. Moreover, Shoemaker and Resse (1996) stated that journalists have their own discretion in prioritizing their focus on specific issues, thus essentially determining the trajectory of public opinion towards a particular issue. Edelman (1993) also proposed that the attitude of humans is dependent on the media's framing of a particular issue for the public.

Therefore, issue framing's importance for the media and government cannot be understated. The media portrays and frames government policy because of its critical role in steering a nation's path to ensure the continuity of governance, not least because it serves as a medium for connecting the government with the people (Yahya, 2017). The media is also needed to gauge the public's reaction and opinion towards government policy. Policy itself refers to the actions of certain parties in crafting government policy. The government relies heavily on governmental support, thus causing their

policy to be based on fulfilling the needs of the people both for their comfort (Malike et al., 2018) and for securing support. As illustration, the Barisan Nasional (BN) coalition's government policies were blatantly oriented towards securing support at the expense of the country's economic health in the wake of their underperformance in the 12th general election. For example, the number of public servants skyrocketed within a certain period (Norman, 2018).

As a result of this, information exchange occurs between the government and citizens (Yahya, 2017). The actions taken by the government to tackle issues faced by the public are usually rooted in public policy and manifested through various programs, plans, and projects (Malike et al., 2018). To illustrate, in developed nations such as Finland and the Netherlands, journalists strive to ensure that the information they provide is accurate and free from elite influence. However, in Malaysia, editors have the discretion to edit news articles written by journalists due to the existence of legislation relating to media control, according to Yahya (2017), allowing the government to strategize and implement its agenda before the public receives the information. As a result, this media control results in the implicit propagation of the government's agenda in disseminating information to the public, leading to four effects. Firstly, the professionalism entailed in journalism is negatively affected due to inaccuracies in the portrayal of news to suit a specific party's agenda. Next, the second effect is that this style of news presentation narrows the horizons of society as the propagation of information becomes biased towards the government at the expense of public feedback. Thirdly, this media control strangles democracy and impedes freedom of speech due to the inaccurate presentation of information. Finally, the fourth effect is that state control scares publishers from exercising their constitutional right to freedom of speech by releasing publications that may be critical of the incumbent government's policies.

Modern empirical research (Figenschou & Thorbjørnsrud, 2015; Pallas & Fredriksson, 2014; Thorbjørnsrud et al., 2014) shows that the government cannot get away from its role in influencing media practices (Figenschou & Thorbjørnsrud, 2015; Pallas & Fredriksson, 2014). To illustrate, the implementation of the Mooncare health policy in South Korea resulted in its effects being analyzed through the involvement of the media in gauging whether the policy represented a success or failure. Jo

and You (2019) showcased that the understanding of Korean society towards Mooncare differed substantially from the government's goals in implementing said policy. In Malaysia, studies on public policy concern the perspective of youth towards the personality and administration of Najib Tun Razak (Noor et al., 2012) and the extent of the government's transformative programs (Maizatul et al., 2014), which focused on the implementation of GTP for citizens and public servants.

In addition, Bernama also reported that the failure of Wawasan 2020 was caused by missteps by the previous government in not entirely focusing their strategy and policy towards making Malaysia a developed country according to the government's own definition of success. However, Zanariah and Fadzilah (2016) argued that this policy could be presented linguistically due to the complex process and high cognition required in releasing news in writing. These skills are possessed by journalists and editors employed in media organizations due to their role as agents in conveying information.

Using language to help readers understand complex issues through literature is a simple way to frame the issues. Kuok et al. (2018) stressed the importance of the approach taken by the media in framing contemporary issues and their agenda. The process of framing issues in writing is critical when it comes to government policy, as citizens will more easily digest issues that pique the public's attention in terms of their meaning and the goals of the highlighted public policy. On the other hand, failure to convey meaning in writing will negatively impact the government, necessitating the presence of journalists and media editors with highly sought-after writing skills for conveying information. According to Shahid (2016), a combination of experience, cognitive maturity, writing skills, and the ability to manipulate their presentation of information as possessed by journalists in general provide them with a power that other parties have properly exploited. According to Garland, et al. (2018), journalists are given the chance to write news with their media and in their own words. In addition, Suriani and Kuok (2020) also found that media research heavily skews towards media and politics-oriented news in a nation, compared to the process of presenting actual news itself.

However, in the effort to ensure that the writing process adheres to the wishes of the government, media organizations possess their system with daily routines, organizational hierarchies, and the promotion of news as a

commodity to be traded with readers. This duty is performed by people who are specifically assigned to perform the process of collecting, editing, and publishing news (Siti et al., 2013). As a result, each media organization has different policies, which shape media workers' fundamental beliefs and their system of providing information to readers (Yahya & Sidin, 2011). It is practiced daily as media organizations carry the government's trust in providing media input to promote the government's stand on certain issues (Rodelo & Muniz, 2019).

This results in the fact that the government cannot be separated from the media and vice versa, with governments dependent on media support to retain power. For example, media support and tight media control helped to maintain Barisan Nasional's (BN) stranglehold on power as the ruling government of Malaysia. When asked, journalists frequently stated their relationships with their desks, such as sports, business, entertainment, and others, according to Macku (2013), and that journalists act as pawns for certain parties to strengthen their hold on power further (Chairil, 1992). In their efforts to enhance their hold on power, journalists and editors are bound to the systems of their media organizations, such as ethics, writing style, and management style, which directly affect the actions of both groups of individuals in framing and disseminating news before it is published.

The process of adhering to the system practiced by media organizations is something that must be adhered to by journalists and editors, in addition to direct influence by the government through ministers (De Vreese, 2005). Reich and Hanitzsch (2013), through their findings, further supported this statement, as they found that the subjective perception of journalists is skewed by influence from certain reference groups so that their news effectively caters to members of said groups. This perception is key to the practice of autonomous professionalism in journalism. In addition, this power is also wielded depending on the journalist's ownership, position in the media organization, and professional experience. Journalists, through their autonomy, can compose news that is suited to their wants and knowledge level. In addition, other main factors include journalists' professional experience, which allows them to strategically present news to achieve the maximum effect on all targeted aspects of the news, such as politically, economically, and socially. Jameison (1997) stated that news could be strategized by including interesting input and a conscious effort

to strategize the news. De Vreese and Elenbaas (2005) later researched strategic news by focusing on political candidates through five aspects: whether they won or lost their election, their internal wars, critiques, the candidate's style, and their stand on specific issues. Studies that are conducted to analyze the strategic aspects associated with news coverage of government policy are themselves essential to both the media and the government.

This can be attributed to the fact that both the media and the government have their agendas in disseminating information to readers, which must be framed in a certain way for consumption by the readers. This process is only achievable by framing issues first. Shaw (1979) states that the need for agendas stems from a need to catch society's attention, especially readers. According to Lancaster et al. (2011), there are four ways media can influence readers, which include setting agendas, framing particular issues, indirectly shaping an individual's and society's perspective in interpreting the risk of a policy, and encouraging political debates in society with a need for the public to decide their stand on issues. This indirectly leads to the government tacitly influencing the public to accept their policy through the media. Therefore, this research is conducted to provide an analysis of how media organizations frame their news based on the agenda upheld by those organizations, especially in terms of their portrayal of the government's policies and how news relating to these policies is written in such a way that it is easily understandable and interpretable by readers. Their understanding of the framed issue is assumed to lead them to support the government based on its policies. Since readers are also part of the electorate, which is instrumental in deciding the fortunes of the government, their understanding of issues is critical to foreshadowing the pathway of the government, as it relies heavily on public opinion, especially in the past few years.

7.1 Methodology

This is a qualitative study in which seven expert informants, consisting of editors from various media types, were interviewed in 2019. This study provides a view of the editors' stand and understanding of implementing

media agendas, organization ethics, ethical journalism, and strategic news in portraying government policy, especially those related to GTP and NKRA. Face-to-face interviews are conducted to obtain information, with their answers recorded and analyzed in order to answer the questions posed by the research.

7.3 Findings

Data analysis is performed based on the editor's view, such as the enforcement of the media agenda, organization ethics, ethical journalism, and strategic news for each news story that is portrayed in their own media. Each editor is given these questions in order to research and gauge their total commitment towards the four items above, as they form the core of the portrayal of news by a media organization.

7.3.1 Media Agenda

In the Malaysian media industry, the media agenda is crucial as a guide in ensuring that the portrayal of every single news story does not flare up provocations or spread propaganda that can affect national security and does not touch upon society's sensitivity, both emotionally and in terms of society's differences. In addition, each news item also implicitly has its importance in furthering the mission of a particular media organization. Based on the findings of the informants interviewed, their interpretation of the media agenda can be summed up as follows:

"Of course, we do have an agenda; every newspaper has one. "Our agenda is to explicitly be a free newspaper; but we do take sides on certain issues." Informant 3 (Editor, Malaysiakini)

"Our well-being, actually." Informant 1 (Deputy Chief Editor, BH Group)

"Some things drive the content of writers, in my opinion. Firstly, what is called an agenda defines the uniqueness of newspaper subscribers and what they stand for because if the editor takes a pro-government stand, there may be certain government policies that they want to highlight. This is what we call the process of setting the agenda: choosing contemporary

issues to be highlighted to the public.- Informant 5 (Head Executive Officer, MPI)

"The people are our agenda. In the early days of our group, our agenda was to stoke the spirit of defending our nation during the colonial era and later strive for independence. After independence, our agenda remains people-centered, but we follow the wants of our mostly Malay-Bumiputera readers, like how we want to improve awareness in education and be more strategic individuals. We don't want the people to merely act as bystanders to what's happening around us, do we?" - Informant 2 (Chief Group Editor, Utusan Malaysia).

"The media acts not only as a provider of information but also as a medium for promoting our diverse society. The media contributes to society and our nation." – Informant 7 (Editor, Bernama TV)

"The media has a heavy role in helping develop the country and once acted as a catalyst for development and linking the government with the public." – Informant 6 (Former Chief Editor, BH Group)

"Malaysiakini aims to be a free newspaper, but we take sides on certain issues, such as media freedom, where we oppose any sort of restrictions, and when it comes to issues relating to integrity, Malaysiakini will take sides in favor of our media agenda." – Informant 3 (Editor, Malaysiakini)

These examples prove that each media organization in Malaysia carries its own agenda, which acts as a guide in maintaining the credibility of said organization. Because editors are accountable to the owners of their companies, they prioritize the media agenda when disseminating information to the public. Respondents also added:

"A newspaper's media agenda distinguishes it from others. No media agenda means our journalism is half-baked. As if we merely report on facts, the media will think certain issues aren't problems that should be highlighted at all. They merely type out news without thinking at all, like robots." - Informant 3 (Editor, Malaysiakini)

"4 agenda filters with education and journalism ethics, which every journalist must follow."- Informant 1 (Deputy Chief Editor, BH Group)

A newspaper differs from its contemporaries by having its agenda. A newspaper without an agenda is equated with half-baked journalism. Therefore, the three-layer news filtration system involving the reporter, the assistant news editor, and the editor must play a crucial role in editing and presenting news to follow the agenda that the organization sets.

Next, the agenda practiced by each organization differs substantially in the mode of information presentation. Mainstream media tends to lean more towards the government, while alternative media is substantially more accessible. For example, government-owned media organizations must write news in a manner that favors the government, while those who are not attached to any political party exercise more substantial freedom in writing. According to two of the interviewed individuals:

"Now, the media agenda is to support the government, but whether it is the right thing to do or not is merely secondary to our concerns." – Informant 5 (Head Executive Officer, MPI)

"Malaysiakini highlights policy more in our agenda as we need to report on both sides without being tied to either of them." - Informant 3 (Editor, Malaysiakini)

It can be surmised that media agendas can be split into two categories: pro-government and non-partisan. Most long-established newspapers, such as *Berita Harian* and *Utusan Malaysia*, lean in favor of the government, while *Malaysiakini* is substantially freer as it is not attached to the government.

This is enhanced further by the sixth informant (former lead editor of the *Berita Harian* group), who stated that the media agenda causes the truthfulness of a news story to become secondary to the promotion of said agenda. However, the third informant (the *Malaysiakini* editor) maintained that his newspaper is not affiliated with any political party.

Certain media organizations' agendas can be seen in their prioritization of specific news stories that resonate the most with the public, the government, or the media. On the other hand, in setting agendas, issues that are considered essential will be used as their primary fodder for portraying information. This media agenda also proves the primary function of the media as a bridge between the public and the government.

7.3.2 Organization Ethics

Each media organization has rules binding to their employees, ensuring that a standard guideline for all staff is adhered to in performing their duties for the organization to profit from their ethics. Some media organizations list their ethics under their company, which all its employees must follow. These guidelines can also be amended with the cooperation of the

employees' union to make work easier for both the employer and employees. However, the ethics practiced differ substantially by one's level of employment, as illustrated by the research informants:

"All journalists and editors must follow the ethics of journalism, with news filtering performed by the chief editor before they decide whether the news should be released or not." – Informant 6 (Former Chief Editor, BH Group)

"I think there is no difference between media organizations, and each journalist can decide their workflow on their own. But once the news reaches the editor in complete form, only then will the news be reviewed." – Informant 3 (Editor, Malaysiakini)

Each organization practices the same ethics on the surface. However, the implementation of these ethics differs substantially by media organization. For example, in some organizations, while journalists must observe their organization's ethics in reporting news accurately, higher-ups such as the editor possess discretion to decide whether certain news should be published or not, as stated by the sixth informant, with the third informant concurring. This shows that while the primary responsibility of journalists is to produce news, editors can either accept or reject the journalists' submissions of news at will.

These ethics are also known as Standard Operating Procedures (SOP), which are specific procedures followed by a media organization in performing its operations according to the established rules and duties. The SOP is described as follows by an informant:

"I think all media are pretty similar to each other. It's just that here, our meetings, just like the previous one at 6 p.m., are open to the public because the setting of our agenda tomorrow will not be decided merely by authors. Our agenda at that time concerned the red-shirt demonstration, and Steven said I was powerless in the meeting. Senior journalists are the ones who will decide on tomorrow's assignment, and 40 to 50 people will suggest this particular story for tomorrow. Only after the story is complete and sent to the editor will it be reviewed." - Informant 3 (Editor, Malaysiakini)

"Each organization has its own SOP, but they're pretty similar to each other. When we talk about SOPs, we're talking about things like working hours and the workflow." - Informant 1 (Deputy Chief Editor, BH Group)

"Generally, when you say that journalism is the same, we're talking about the process from gathering and producing news, to news coverage

and write-ups that later end up at the editor's desk. That's the SOP of journalism in a nutshell." - Informant 5 (Head Executive Officer, MPI)

"The SOP depends on what levels you are in the hierarchy. The advertisement sector has its own SOP, etc. SOP usually deals with the technicalities." - Informant 2 (Chief Group Editor, Utusan Malaysia)

Based on the results of the interview with informants, journalists do possess the power to write based on their obtained information. However, they are bound to their organization's ethics, which are in turn observed by editors as well in editing the journalists' news. Therefore, each organization has its SOPs, which will result in the production of high-quality news. The SOPs practiced by each media organization in Malaysia do not differ substantially. Based on the interview with the Malaysiakini informant, however, the order of news to be reported is not decided by the editors but rather by meetings that are open to the public to determine the type of news to be shown the next day. Instead, senior journalists are assigned to check and verify the news to be shown the next day, and only after the news is chosen will it be filtered and edited by the editors. Therefore, ethics provide a big boon in reviewing decisions made.

The SOPs used by the media help to prevent the spreading of unverified news, as they act as another form of unspoken rules in the media and can act as a guide for media practitioners. As stated by informants regarding this matter:

"Our SOP is that we must receive a response, and if not, we have to withhold the respondent's identity. We don't know if the accusation is correct or not. A wrongful accusation will be a slap in the face of the respondent, and we don't really want to be brought to court over defamation. As long as the person or company has not responded yet, we won't divulge the identity of a person involved in news." - Informant 3 (Editor, Malaysiakini)

"At BH, there is no dedicated SOP official, but we will definitely know if a story breaks our SOP like plagiarism. For example, the work of a journalist who can explain the gist of their respondent's interview differs substantially from that of a plagiarist. We will check on whether the journalist's work adheres to the SOP at the management level." - Informant 1 (Deputy Chief Editor, BH Group)

According to the informant, the SOP's implementation is vital to preventing the dissemination of unverified news. The existence of SOPs

relating to public relations in an organization is one of the crucial aspects of controlling and influencing the media in Malaysia.

Therefore, all media organizations must adhere to the established SOPs to prevent the risk of violating Malaysian journalism laws in reporting news.

To summarize, organizational ethics form part of the SOPs, as explained by editors in this interview. Although the work ethics practiced by staff are not explicitly visible, they play a crucial role in determining the path of the news written by journalists before it is edited by editors and published for public viewing. This process binds both journalists and editors until the information is published.

7.3.3 Ethical journalism

Journalists are expected to abide by the ethics of journalism, such as accuracy, fairness, lack of bias, and others. Respondents provided their views on journalism ethics as follows:

"Staff cannot be involved directly with political parties or certain groups. Then, reporters are also not allowed to report on organizations they have joined due to a conflict of human interest or being beholden to lobbying interests. Thirdly, we have a 'no gift' policy; any gifts that we have to receive will be auctioned off at the end of the year. But if invited, we will dine in because it is unethical to refuse food offered by others. That's our policy. Other parts of the codes of ethics, like NUJ, are the same."
- Informant 3 (Editor, Malaysiakini)

"The statement that BH is affiliated with the government is true because our role is to tell the truth, as that is our responsibility. Do not just look at BH from a political perspective because we are not restricted from reporting everything in education, crime, women's rights, etc. We also once exposed corruption practiced by customs and the police. We do not condemn our government, but we do reprimand them for their weaknesses, for that's our main job. Once again, it is our responsibility to tell the truth."- Informant 1 (Deputy Chief Editor, BH Group).

This insight shows that the ethics of journalism remain relevant for every journalist in performing their work on a daily basis, thus overriding claims from certain parts of society that deride modern-day journalists as showing bias and being unethical in conveying accurate news.

Other journalists also stated that their duty is to make decisions based on an existing code of ethics, which must always be adhered to avoid violating national or organizational laws. Every journalist, locally or overseas, conforms to the same code of ethics. Both the sixth and third informants agreed that journalists should not exercise bias in writing news and cannot be explicitly affiliated with any political party for fear of bias in favor of said political party.

"Journalism ethics must be understood by each journalist even though their job is just to report, such as reporting accurately and not exercising bias." – Informant 6 (Former Chief Editor, BH Group)

"Journalists cannot involve themselves explicitly with political parties or certain organizations. They also cannot report on their own organizations." – Informant 3 (Editor, Malaysiakini)

A professional journalist's ethics, for example, distinguishes them from regular journalists from within society. Public journalists, including netizens, are not bound by any codes of ethics. Therefore, they are more likely to publish inaccurate or false information, as supported by claims from informants:

"Okay, what differentiates journalism from sensationalism is ethics. We do acknowledge the existence of public journalism, but they are not bound to ethics like we do. So, we can see that there are several important principles that a journalist must adhere to at all times." - Informant 5 (Head Executive Officer, MPI)

"Journalists have ethics like they must write correctly, quickly, and accurately. They also must be responsible for their writings." – Informant 2 (Chief Group Editor, Utusan Malaysia)

However, some informants stated that the code of ethics in journalism is not official and merely serves as a persuasive guideline that may be violated by journalists if so desired, without any legal repercussions.

"No. Ethics are only persuasive in nature, and both journalists and organizations may opt not to follow them. Generally, journalism ethics are part of a guideline prepared by the Malaysian Press Institute (MPI) that may be voluntarily followed by journalists." - Informant 7 (Editor, Bernama TV)

Although ethics and guidelines have been established, informants agreed that some journalists still resort to violating ethics for the sake of promoting their news:

"Although the media does not broadly approve of the ethical standards imposed, their writing must follow as such. There are still journalists who insist on performing their duties unethically." – Informant 6 (Former Chief Editor, BH Group)

"Editors will evaluate the reports of journalists to determine whether their news is worthy of being published or not. This practice renders ethics secondary to the concern of ensuring the continued circulation of the newspaper as well as the safety of its political master. Yes, ethics still exists, but it is implemented in a different manner." – Informant 4 (Executive & Operation Director, Media Prima)

To summarize, ethics in journalism are practiced at all levels of a media organization. Although it is not an official law per se, every employee in this sector understands and conforms to the ethics. The necessity for such a guideline is crucial in the field of journalism, especially for mainstream journalists, in light of the threat posed by the propagation of unverified news through social media. Ethical journalism runs concurrently with existing organizational ethics practiced by journalists and editors. In other words, ethical journalism completes organizational ethics.

7.3.4 Strategic News

Society prefers simple language compared to the usage of bombastic language. Therefore, journalists must exercise their creativity and exercise effort in publishing high-quality news articles, such as searching for issues and performing their homework as necessary.

Therefore, news must be strategically planned, and each media organization has its approach to editing the news to be presented to the public to achieve particular objectives and promote its agenda.

The strategies used by modern-day newsreaders remain significant in reporting news with their agendas. The strategy planned by media organizations is vital in ensuring that plans can be carried out smoothly. However, not all strategic news publications will be successful, as they hinge upon the current situation. The view of informants towards strategic news can be summed up as follows:

"The way news is strategized differs by types of media, like TV3, which claimed that only 5 thousand people attended the demonstration when it was actually 15 thousand, and vice versa. This is because the media cannot

portray Bersih as having received broad support at the expense of the incumbent government, and thus the level of opposition to the government needs to be watered down and left to society to interpret the situation themselves." - Informant 6 (Former Chief Editor, BH Group)

"We tend to prefer simple sentences for the Malay language because we want others to easily understand our interpretation of the news. Our approach is to use the simplest language possible, preferably without using loanwords because our business is headline-reliant; people click on our news based on our headlines." - Informant 3 (Editor, Malaysiakini)

"The sentences presented must be simplified for the better understanding of the readers while being clear enough to convey their meaning and objectives. This also applies to headlines." - Informant 1 (Deputy Chief Editor, BH Group)

"There are important news items that need to be highlighted not only for both the government but also other institutes and the public to influence their opinion on that matter. Strategizing news becomes even more important in this case." – Informant 5 (Head Executive Officer, MPI)

"Therefore, the component of newspapers must be for the people, such as general issues facing the people like the housing issue and the youth. We just place an issue, and then the writer is at his liberty to write how he wants to convey his stand on an issue." – Informant 2 (Chief Group Editor, Utusan Malaysia)

"In strategizing news, certain parties won't divulge the actual purpose of the news but will instead convey their message by intentionally blurring out the message behind the news to achieve their objectives." – Informant 6 (Former Chief Editor, BH Group)

"Sometimes journalists will intentionally disguise the message being conveyed by a particular party in their writing." – Informant 7 (Editor, Bernama TV)

"Sentences are indeed used to strategize news." – Informant 4 (Executive & Operation Director, Media Prima)

It can be summarized by saying that the use of simple yet eye-catching sentences allows the public to understand better the ideas that journalists promote through news writing.

The use of techniques or sentence construction strategies helps to pique readers' interest in purchasing a newspaper. Therefore, to attract potential readers, editors must have specific strategies for presenting their news and

associated pictures based on arrangement and intention. This is because, generally, readers are more inclined to look at the main news article on the front page first before purchasing a newspaper. An attractive combination of headlines and an accompanying picture can influence the minds of readers, thus hammering home the importance of the usage of sentences in reporting new information strategically.

News is strategized differently by type of media due to the different ideologies of each. Informant 4, a high-ranking individual in one of Malaysia's most prominent media conglomerates (the Executive and Operative Director of Media Prima), admitted to the existence of strategic news, which differs substantially based on the journalist and editor's tastes and each media organization's different approaches to strategizing news. Generally, news should be strategized in a direction that favors the largest stockholder of the media organization, such as the Bersih 5.0 issue, claimed to have attracted around five thousand participants, even though 15 thousand participants joined the event. This can be attributed to the need for the media to support the government, as it could be perceived as a potential seed of the BN government's demise at the time.

Another point of view offered states that strategic news can be produced through the usage of specific phrases, terms, and sentences. News is written in a manner that is fair, effective, and profitable. Editors will filter news articles to prevent explicit bias and uphold the neutrality of the news on paper.

Strategic news can also be classified as a plan to achieve particular objectives before the news is shown to the public, relating to issues to be highlighted by a party to the public. This influences the general public to support or oppose specific groups or policies. Thus, a journalist's writing style influences others to support the media agenda. A respondent added that:

".. And this is where, certain terms must be created and employed to allow the public to accept the government's approach. This is the responsibility of journalists in strategizing news, like claiming that the rise of goods and prices reflects the sterling economy of our nation." - Informant 6 (Former Chief Editor, BH Group)

In addition to attracting the interest of readers, strategic news also carries other objectives, such as acting as a connecting medium for certain parties, which can be explained as follows:

"They will use mainstream media, both in print and electronically, to convey their planned vision strategically to such an extent that the public is unaware of the agenda behind the message they're trying to convey. In conclusion, news is published for a reason, but the objectives are achieved with other approaches." – Informant 6 (Former Chief Editor, BH Group)

"Of course they will go for the media, as it is only through the media that their plans can be realized." – Informant 7 (Editor, Bernama TV)

"The agenda of mainstream media and government is the same, to ensure that our nation is always prosperous." - Informant 4 (Executive & Operation Director, Media Prima)

All informants expressly stated that strategic news indeed exists for the purpose of achieving several goals in the news sector of media organizations. The fourth informant admitted that news was indeed strategically planned for specific reasons in order to extend their message to the public.

The role of news strategy extends not only to journalists but also to editors, as they are involved in fact-checking and eliminating bias before publishing news. The degree of success of a news strategy serves as a barometer for evaluating the news that is made public. A successful news strategy method makes it unclear for readers whether the media has its own agenda or not, as news is shown for its own reasons.

7.4 Conclusion

News is a component of the world of journalism. Without news, media organizations will dissolve, as the primary role of the media is to provide information to readers in the form of news. Each news article adheres to its respective format to enable readers to understand the writing of journalists and the editor's role and thoughts on certain issues.

The importance of news in media organizations cannot be overstated. However, each organization has its stakeholders, including different stakeholders and media organizations. Each organization has its own ethics, but they are mostly similar to each other due to the uniform workflow of media companies in obtaining accurate, fair, and bias-free information. Similarities can be seen in the employment of ethical

journalism by employees of media organizations in carrying out their daily duties.

However, there is a visible difference in the media agenda due to two groups that either support the government or prefer a more open-ended approach to journalism. This becomes important in news reporting as each media organization has its agenda, and thus, how news is portrayed must appease stockholders.

In a rush to implement media agendas, the fundamentals of ethical journalism remain in place, as the organization's code of ethics also serves as a guideline in carrying out its agenda. This is because journalists, editors, and editors are trained to use the most efficient language to write news and strategically convey information to readers, which results in the majority of them being unaware of their agenda. After all, strategically written news usually disguises itself behind the ostensibly neutral presentation of news to present an agenda.

In conclusion, the media agenda and the government agenda must run in tandem to achieve specific goals. The media will always have their own agenda as each government relies on them to realize their public policy visions.

References

- Ahmad Sauffiyah Hasan. (2019). Pendemokrasian Media dan Cabaran Keselamatan dalam Era Digital: *Malaysian Journal of Communication*, 35(1). 237-251.
- Aini Maznina A. Manaf, Malia Taibi, Kamaruzzaman Abdul Manan. (2017). Media agenda and public agenda: a study of issues during the 13th general election. *Malaysian Journal of Communication*, 33(2). 13-26.
- Azimah Abdul Wahab & Shamsudin Abdul Rahim. (2013). Kredibiliti media dan penyertaan dalam persekitaran pengdemokrasian maklumat di Malaysia. *Malaysian Journal of Communication*, 29(1). 141-160.
- Bakir, V. (2015). News, agenda building, and intelligence agencies: A systematic review of the field from the discipline of journalism, media, and communications, 131–144.

-
- Brants, K., De Vreese, C., Möller, J., & Van Praag, P. (2010). The real spiral of cynicism? Symbiosis and mistrust between politicians and journalists. *The International journal of press/politics*, 15(1), 25-40.
- Cacciatore, M. A., Scheufele, D. A., & Iyengar, S. (2016). The end of framing as we know it... and the future of media effects. *Mass Communication and Society*, 19(1), 7-23.
- Cairney, P. (2011). *Understanding public policy: Theories and issues*. Macmillan International Higher Education.
- Campbell, D. J. (1988). Task complexity: A review and analysis. *Academy of Management Review*, 13(1), 40-52.
- Capella, J., & Jamieson, K.H. (1997). *Spiral of cynicism: The press and the public good*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Carpenter, S. (2007). US elite and non-elite newspapers' portrayal of the Iraq War: A comparison of frames and source use. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 84(4), 761-776.
- De Vreese, C. H. (2005). News framing: Theory and typology. *Information Design Journal & Document Design*, 13(1).51-61.
- Dimitrova, D. V., & Kostadinova, P. (2013). Identifying antecedents of the strategic game frame: A longitudinal analysis. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 90(1), 75-88.
- Entman, R. M., & Usher, N. (2018). Framing in a fractured democracy: Impacts of digital technology on ideology, power and cascading network activation. *Journal of Communication*, 68(2), 298-308.
- Faradillah Iqmar Omar, Hazlin Falina Rosli, NurZakira Afnee Zakaria, & Nuraina Nabila Dundai Abdullah. (2015). Hubungan penggunaan media sosial dan penerimaan mesej dakwah. In *Proceeding of the 2nd International Conference on Management and Muamalah*.181- 191.
- Franklin, B. (2012). The future of journalism. *Journalism Studies*, 13(5-6), pp. 663 – 681.

- Garland, R., Tambini, D., & Couldry, N. (2018). Has government been mediatized? A UK perspective. *Media, Culture & Society*, 40(4), 496–513.
- Hamborg, F., Zhukova, A., & Gipp, B. (2019). Automated identification of media bias by word choice and labeling in news articles. In *2019, ACM/IEEE Joint Conference on Digital Libraries (JCDL)* 196-205.
- Hanitzsch, T., Anikina, M., Berganza, R., Cangoz, I., Coman, M., Hamada, B., Yuen, K. W. (2010). Modeling perceived influences on journalism: Evifrnvr from a cross-national survey of journalists. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 87(1), 5–22.
- Iwan Shu-Aswad Shuaib, (2014, 12 Mac). *Media main peranan penting sebar maklumat dasar kerajaan kepada rakyat – Hasan Malek*. The Star, (Mstar). Di akses daripada <https://www.mstar.com.my/lokal/semasa/2014/03/12/median-main-peranan-penting-sebar-maklumat-dasar-kerajaan-kepada-rakyat-hasan-malek>
- Julia Wirza Mohd Zawawi, Chang Peng Kee. (2013). Penentuan bingkai berita keselamatan awam dari penelitian respon kognisi dan ekspresi audiens. *Malaysian Journal of Communication*, 29(2), 141-158.
- Kiousis, S., Park, J. M., Kim, J. Y., & Go, E. (2013). Exploring the role of agenda-building efforts in media coverage and policymaking activity of healthcare reform. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 90(4), 652-672.
- Kok Jean Jie, Julia Wirza Mohd Zawawi, Akmar Hayati Mohd Ghazali (2019). The Framing of LGBT Issues on News Portal Media in Malaysia. *International Journal*, 4(17), 112-120.
- Lancaster, K., Hughes, C.E., Spicer, B., M. S.F., & Dillon P. (2011). Illicit drugs and the media. Model of media effect for use in drug policy research. *Drug Alcohol Rev*, pp. 30, 397–402.
- Lang, G. E., & Lang, K. (1991). *Watergate: An exploration of the agenda-building process*. Agenda setting: Readings on media, public opinion and policymaking, Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group, 277-289.

-
- Lecheler, S., & De Vreese, C. H. (2012). News framing and public opinion: A mediation analysis of framing effects on political attitudes. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 89(2), 185-204.
- Lee Kuok Tiung, Rizal Zamani Idris, Rafiq Idris (2018), Propaganda dan Disinformasi: Politik Pesepsi Dalam Pilihanraya Umum ke 14 (PRU-14), *Jurnal Kinabalu*, 171-171.
- Littlejohn, S. W., & Foss, K. A. (2009). *Encyclopedia of communication theory*. (Vol. 1). Sage.Publication.
- Lo, V. H., Chan, J. M., & Pan, Z. (2005). Ethical attitudes and perceived practice: A comparative study of journalists in China, Hong Kong and Taiwan. *Asian Journal of Communication*, 15(2), 154-172.
- Luo, Y. (2013). Mapping agenda-setting research in China: a meta-analysis study. *Chinese Journal of Communication*, 6(3), 269–285.
- Luo, Y. (2014). The Internet and agenda setting in China: The influence of online public opinion on media coverage and government policy. *International Journal of Communication*, Vol 8, pp. 1–24.
- Malike Brahim, Mohamad Zaki Ahmad, Musliza Mohamad. (2018). Menilai prioriti tuntutan rakyat dari perpektif dasar awan dan peranan wakil rakyat. *JEBAT: Malaysian Journal of History, Politics & Strategy*, 45(1), 25-146.
- Meraz, S. (2011). Using time series analysis to measure intermedia agenda-setting influence in traditional media and political blog networks. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 88(1), 176–194.
- Mior Kamarul Shahid (2016, 22 Januari), Manfaat ‘kuasa’ wartawan dahulu, Kolumnis Berita Harian. <https://www.bharian.com.my/node/116846>.
- Mohd Asri Mohamad, (2002). Pengaruh golongan elit pemerintah dalam pemaparan berita- berita etnik. *Analisis kandungan terhadap pelaporan berita akhbar Utusan Malaysia dan Berita Harian sejurus sebelum dan*

selepas pilihanraya umum ke-10 Malaysia, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Minden, Pulau Pinang.

- Mohd Syuhaidi Abu Bakar & Nur Shakila Hussain @ Othman, (2019). Tanggapan dan harapan masyarakat terhadap penulisan berita di media arus perdana di Malaysia. *e-Academia Journal*, 8(1).
- Mohd Yahya Mohamed Ariffin & Md. Sidin Ahmad Ishak, (2011). Pengaruh persekitaran ke atas polisi organisasi media dalam konteks perhubungan media di Malaysia. *Jurnal Pengajian Media Malaysia*, 13(1),1-16.
- Mohd Zuwairi Mat Saad & Normah Mustaffa (2018), Teknologi Pendorong Kepada Transformasi Corak Penulisan Berita Pilihan raya Malaysia, *Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, Vol 12 (3), 2018 14(303, e-BANGGI, 1-17.
- Mohd Zuwairi Mat Saad, Normah Mustaffa, Abdul Latiff Ahmad & Badrul Redzuan Abu Hassan. (2016). Transformasi corak penulisan berita dalam akhbar arus perdana malaysia. *e- BANGI*, 11(1), 300-316.
- Muhammad Hakimi Tew Abdullah, Abdul Rauf Ridzuan & Shafinar Ismail (2019), Kajian Perbandingan Bingkai Media dalam Liputan Media Blog di Malaysia. *Malaysian Journal of Communication*, 35(3) 2019: 21-40.
- Mus Chairil Samani. (1992). Sumber berita: Analisis isi kandungan empat akhbar harian nasional Malaysia. *Malaysian Journal of Communication* 8(1), 49–63.
- Nik Yusri Musa. (2011). Asas pemikiran ilmu takhrij dalam etika kewartawanan: Realiti dan cabaran In: Seminar Antarabangsa Sunnah Nabawiyah : Realiti dan Cabaran Semasa , 12- 13 July 2011, Universiti Malaya (UM), Kuala Lumpur. 1–10.
- Norazleen Mohd Nor, Edwin Michael, Afi Roshezry Abu Bakar, Ira Meilita Ibrahim & Mohd Azmir Mohd Nizah. (2011). Media baru dan demokrasi di Malaysia: Ke arah perpaduan nasional. *Persidangan Kebangsaan Perpaduan Nasional*. Kuala Lumpur, 1-14.

-
- Normah Mustaffa & Faridah Ibrahim, (2018). Pembingkai visual berita krisis Lahad Datu. *Jurnal Komunikasi: Malaysian Journal of Communication*, 34(1). 170-184.
- Normah Mustaffa, Shahrul Nazmi Sannusi, Ahmad Sauffiyan Abu Hasan, Mohd Zuwairi Mat Saad (2017). Journalism and News Industry in Malaysia: New Media, New Challenges. e- Bangi, 14(6).
- Norman Goh (2018, 13 Oktober). Peluang yang terlepas dan langkah seterusnya buat Malaysia. *Malaysiakini*. <https://www.malaysiakini.com/news/447259>.
- Obaji, N. O., & Olugu, M. U. (2014). The role of government policy in entrepreneurship development. *Science Journal of Business and Management*, 2(4), 109-115.
- Patanakul, P., & Pinto, J. K. (2014). Examining the roles of government policy on innovation. *The Journal of High Technology Management Research*, 25(2), 97-107.
- Pauline Pooi Yin Leong. (2015). Political communication in Malaysia: A study on the use of new media in politics. *JeDEM-eJournal of eDemocracy and Open Government*, 7(1), 46–71.
- Ragas, M. W., & Tran, H. (2013). Beyond cognitions: A longitudinal study of online search salience and media coverage of the president. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 90(3), 478-499.
- Rani Ann & Faridah Ibrahim. (2013). Kewartawanan dari warga kepada warga: Punca kewujudan dan perkembangannya di Malaysia. *Malaysian Journal of Communication*, 29(2), 175-188.
- Reich, Z., & Hanitzsch, T. (2013). Determinants of journalists' professional autonomy: Individual and national level factors matter more than organizational ones. *Mass Communication and Society*, 16(1), 133-156.
- Reinhardt, G. Y. (2015). First-hand experience and second-hand information: changing trust across three levels of government. *Review of Policy Research*, 32(3), 345-364.

- Rhee, J. W. (1997). Strategy and issue frames in election campaign coverage: A social cognitive account of framing effects. *Journal of Communication, 47*(3), 26–48.
- Rodelo, F. V., & Muñiz, C. (2019). Government frames and their influence on news framing: An analysis of cross-lagged correlations in the Mexican context. *Global Media and Communication, 15*(1), 103-119.
- Rohana Amdan, Md Azalanshah Md Syed & Fadli Abdullah (2020). Keseimbangan Pelaporan Berita Kesihatan dan Amalan Kod Etika Profesional Kewartawanan di Malaysia , *'Abqari Journal: Vol. 23* (1). 267-287.
- Schudson, M., & Anderson, C. (2009). Objectivity, professionalism, and truth seeking in journalism. In *The handbook of journalism studies*. Edited by Karin Wahl-Jorgensen, Thomas Hanitzsch. 108-121.
- Shahrul Nazmi Sannusi & Nawwar Aqilah Mohd (2017). Analisis Berita Kempen Calon Pilihanraya Presiden Donald Trump: Kajian terhadap Utusan Malaysia Online dan Astro Awani Online. *Jurnal Komunikasi: Malaysian Journal of Communication, 33*(1).
- Shaw, E. F. (1979). Agenda-setting and Mass Communication Theory. *Gazette (Leiden, Netherlands), 25*(2), 96-105.
- Siti Suriani Othman, Liana Mat Nayan & Lee Kuok Tiung. (2013). Pemilihan berita dari perspektif wartawan media cetak di Malaysia. *Malaysian Journal of Communication, 29*(2).51-68.
- Siti Suriani Othman, Liana Mat Nayan & Lee Kuok Tiung. (2013). Pemilihan berita dari perspektif wartawan media cetak di Malaysia. *Malaysian Journal of Communication, 29*(2).51-68.
- Sohana Abdul Hamid. (2016). Pengaruh media massa terhadap perubahan sosial masyarakat. *e- BANGI, 11*, 214-226.
- Stamati, T., Papadopoulos, T., & Anagnostopoulos, D. (2015). Social media for openness and accountability in the public sector: Cases in the Greek context. *Government Information Quarterly, 32*(1), 12–29.

-
- Swanson, D. L., & Mancini, P. (Eds.). (1996). *Politics, media, and modern democracy: An international study of innovations in electoral campaigning and their consequences*. Praeger Series in Political Communication, Westport, Connecticut, London.
- Syed Arabi Syed Abdullah. (1994). I teach what? You want what? Matching the training needs of media and media-related industries and needs of academe. https://dr.ntu.edu.sg/bitstream/handle/10220/2354/AMIC_1994_SEPOCT_15.pdf?sequence=1.
- Vujko, A., & Gajić, T. (2014). The government policy impact on economic development of tourism. *Economics of Agriculture, 61*, Economics of Agriculture, Institute of Agriculture Belgrade, 61, 3.789-804.
- Yahya Abdul Rahman. (2017). Impak kawalan state terhadap kebebasan media di Malaysia. *Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, Special Articles (December, 2017): 1-19.

Media Activism, Cultural Industry and Political Criticism Propaganda

8

Verdy Firmantoro

Abstract

Adorno and Gans's thesis regarding the cultural industry is essential to reflect and contextualize in understanding the communication phenomenon, namely, music as a medium for activism. The era of digitalization has given rise to a diversity of technologies that have enabled the birth of alternative platforms to channel creativity as a means of movement. Music is not only an artistic expression but also a medium for propaganda. This study carries out a conceptual analysis of Jerinx's political criticism propaganda practices in its movement music as an effort to influence, persuade, motivate, and even encourage real action to carry out change based on critical awareness. The strategy used by Jerinx to fight market logic represents social criticism, on the one hand turning its back on standardization formulas that lull society, but on the other hand, being able to negotiate the needs of the audience. Market encouragement does not eliminate the essence of culture as a dialectic of social life. Musicians, as critical communicators or activists, have a bargaining position to voice their aspirations. The role of technology in the cultural industry today is more substantial. The penetration of the internet with various platforms has had a significant impact on the framework of democratizing alternative voices. Technology is not just a "musical instrument" in the technical realm but also a movement tool.

Keywords

Activism media · Cultural industry · Political criticism · Propaganda

V. Firmantoro

Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science, Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

e-mail: verdy.firmantoro@ub.ac.id

8.1 Introduction

This writing is intended to show that not all characteristics of music in Indonesia are relevant to Adorno's thesis. The phenomenon of Jerinx as an agent in the music of the movement describes precisely the opposite condition, a condition that is unusual in general. Furthermore, it can be understood that there are a number of factors that make movement music, as articulated by Jerinx, not as gloomy as Adorno's view of the cultural industry. Combining several factors becomes an important finding that provides a more comprehensive explanation. It is not as simple as understanding the patterns of cultural industries in this context, where music is a product that has links with commercial territory on the one hand and, on the other, can be a means or space of activism.

The author explains through the analysis in this writing that Adorno's assumption that the cultural industry will not produce illuminating works, where it neither merely responds to market tastes nor encourages people to be passive and non-critical, or even merely submit to standardization, homogeneity, and repetitive patterns, does not always hold. By expressing the Jerinx phenomenon, the author wants to prove that the cultural industry does not eliminate the elements of rebellion nor make the audience passive. Instead, in an era like the Adorno era, where the analytical base is still in the early stages of development, the era of digitization or the emergence of technological diversity enables the birth of alternative platforms that do not limit creativity to large-scale industrial manufacture.

8.2 Jerinx, Superman Is Dead, and Alternative Music

I Gede Ari Astina, known by the stage name Jerinx, is a drummer of Superman Is Dead (SID). The band consists of three members, including Jerinx, Bobby Kool as the vocalist and guitarist, and Eka Rock as the bassist. The band has been active since 1995, with Jerinx as their main driving force. Prior to forming the SID band, Jerinx also had a background in the Thunder heavy metal band, a music stream based on blues rock. The flow has gained popularity in the United States and Britain. There are several rock bands in this stream, like Led Zeppelin, Deep Purple, and

Black Sabbath. This fast and loud music is associated with masculinity and courage. Venom, Metallica, and other top-level bands are inseparable from this rock-shaped music tradition.

In Indonesia, there are not many rock bands, and SID is one of them. The philosophy of the name itself is quite interesting. They were formerly called Superman Is Silver Gun, then turned into SID, which means human perfection is an illusion and an imagination. Through his guitar, Jerinx and SID create music that has elevated them to the top of the list of Indonesian bands. Their music is a genre of criticism that is identical to the narrative of resistance to the practices of oppression. Some of the songs that have gained recognition include *Kuta Rock City* (2003); *The Hangover Decade* (2004); *Black Market Love* (2006); *Angels and the Outsiders* (2009); *Aku Anak Indonesia* (2011); *The Early Years, Blood, Sweet, and Tears* (2012); *Sunset in Anarchy Land* (2013); *Three Pirates of Senja* (2018).

These songs often contain social criticism of the realities of life. For example, the fifth album, *Sunset in the Land of Anarchy*, released in 2013, clearly depicts an intense atmosphere of rebellion that contains values of resistance to tyranny, injustice, and all forms of discriminatory oppression. Therefore, it is understandable that fans of SID, known as the Outsiders for male fans and Lady Roses for female fans, have the exact reflection as the content of each SID song.

What is interesting about the songs that chant social-political criticism is that around 2002/2003, SID was signed by the major-class label Sony Music Entertainment Indonesia, which has popularized many top musicians. This allowed SID to reach a wider audience with their songs of resistance. While the entry of indie bands into the punk rock stream has been dramatized as a discussion among indie bands, SID's case was different. They were not actively seeking to join the big music industry but were offered by Sony Music, which allowed them to continue expressing their resistance through music.

Several awards became proof that a broad audience accepted SID. Some of these awards include Double Platinum Sony Music for the *Kuta Rock City* Album; The Best New Artist AMI Award; SCTV Music Award; the Best Rock Album AMI Awards; 50 Hype Things in Indonesia Music Industry, Rolling Stone Indonesia Readers' Choice Award, and others. Nevertheless, Jerinx and SID remain active in addressing social and political issues, especially those related to intolerance or racism.

Critical voices continue to be expressed by SID, especially Jerinx, both personally and as the driving force behind the band. However, after six contractual albums with Sony Music, the collaboration ended with the 2018 album *Three Pirates of Senja*. There is no specific reason for this, but what is clear is that Jerinx's commitment to keeping music on the alternative path remains unwavering.

Furthermore, in an interview with Jerinx on medcom.id, when asked about "What will SID do after leaving Sony Music?" Jerinx replied, "So far, we internally want more independence; we want our own production." Jerinx mentioned that the mechanism of SID's contracts with Sony Music differs from those of other bands. "It's different; bands have different negotiations. Our contract is special. Why? Because at that time, SID had a strong bargaining position. It was a time when many labels were trying to sign SID." (Alpito, 2018).

Jerinx's name continues to be in the media spotlight due to a number of controversial incidents. These ranged from a dispute with Via Vallen in 2018 regarding the cover of SID's *Sunset in Anarchy Land* without his permission, clashes with Anang Hermansyah in connection with the 2019 Music Regulation draft, confrontations with Ahmad Dhani on the issue of religious conspiracy in 2020, and his various critical reflections on COVID-19 conspiracies during the current pandemic, which he shares through his social media channels. Jerinx strongly asserts that behind COVID-19 lies the interests of the global elite, especially the WHO.

He stated, "COVID-19 has clearly turned into a business; thousands of people have already become victims of its scheme. Every disease is attributed to COVID-19. Millions of people have become impoverished; thousands have been declared COVID-19 cases without a compelling reason. Hundreds have committed suicide because they no longer have the will to live in the WHO's narrative." (written by Jerinx on his Instagram, June 11th, 2020).

Table 8.1 Songs of Resistance

Title	View	Like
I Believe in Siti Fadilah	255.188	36.270
Lawan WHO dengan Taji! Bali Ini Tanah Revolusi	212.412	27.871

Masih Adakah Pancasila?	195.501	27.821
-------------------------	---------	--------

Source: Instagram of Jerinx @jrxsid by June 13th 2020

As a form of fierce protest against the reality of the COVID-19 pandemic, together with his wife Vlaminora and friends Iwan Andrean, Adi Hydrant, and Agraless, he made several works of resistance music as a joint project, among them *I Believe in Siti Fadilah*, *Opponent WHO with Taji!* *Bali is a land of revolution and is still Pancasila?* (Table 8.1). On the other hand, Jerinx remains consistently on the critical track. Beyond his activities with SID, he seems to be creating alternative channels spread through social media. It does not take long. The works get feedback from the audience after being uploaded to Instagram.

Through the musical content above, Jerinx still voices the representation of the movement as alternative music. As he once said, after leaving Sony Music, he continued to work using alternative media channels, such as Instagram, one of the social media. He feels more independent and creative by producing content independently. Even during a pandemic like now, he had time to create virtual actions to entertain people under monitoring (ODP) and volunteers at the Athlete's Village.

8.3 The urgency of the Problem

The urgency of bringing the Jerinx phenomenon into this cultural industry study is in order to prove that Adorno's thesis in some contexts does not apply. The development of music globally, including in Indonesia, cannot be separated from market logic. In this context, industry is considered the commander in defense of existence. The shift in Lokananta's orientation from the essence of a government program umbrella to being part of the industry, including the mushrooming of the mellow pop music industry, has made Baper a representation of market demand that is always popular. Music in these conditions represents the strong centrality of capital, with the Madzab following profit-oriented tastes or market trends. If we listen carefully, almost all the songs on the air have the same pattern: standardization occurs in the lyrics, which makes people sympathetic and

alienated from their daily reality. Meanwhile, what is happening in the Jerinx phenomenon is different from the mainstream.

Another aspect that needs to be noted is that the music industry is not only concerned about commercial matters. Several alternative genres of music that carry critical aspirations are also worthy of further study. Remembering that music is a dialogue between various aspects, there is not enough capital or market opportunities, but there are also ideas or creativity and even identity. The understanding that the existence of music only depends on aspects of capital or market taste is too reductionist. Several musicians, such as Iwan Fals and Slank, can still survive today. They are relatively based on ideas and narratives of resistance in their works. A number of their works do not carry content with nuances of heartbreak, infidelity, or romance, but rather critical reflections on socio-political themes, such as Iwan Fals' works including *Ballad of Unemployment*, *Bento*, *Oemar Bakrie*, *Bachelor Young* or *Galang Rambu Anarki*, and Slank's works such as *Like Corruptors*, *Empty Tonk* and *Street Gossip*. Like those who rely on narrative ideas, Jerinx's critical reflections also represent the same thing, even though they are from a different musical genre. The point is that creativity and the invitation to "sane" critical thinking also have their own "market" in the more complex chain of the music industry.

The Jerinx phenomenon, which is on the anti-mainstream path, also makes its own contribution if read from Adorno's perspective. On the one hand, according to Adorno's reasoning, when music entered the industrial scheme, there was no longer any term for music as an artistic expression outside of its submission to the power of investors. However, what happened or experienced Jerinx was the opposite. This provides an opportunity to study more deeply that one perspective, or in this case, Adorno's view is not enough to cover all the realities that occur. Each context has the opportunity to contribute a different side. Simplification of the factors that influence the cultural industry is based on only one variable, unable to fully explain where reality lives in a context that is different from the assumptions held in it.

Moreover, Adorno's analytical framework, especially what was later written in *The Culture Industry: Enlightenment as Mass Deception* in a compilation of works initially with Max Horkheimer regarding *Gesammelte Schriften: Dialektik der Aufklärung und Schriften 1940–1950*

or Dialectic of Enlightenment: Philosophical Fragments is very different from the current state of development. It is at least seven decades away from the industrial reality that occurred when Adorno analyzed the current situation. In the 19th century, technology penetration, especially the internet, was not as massive as it is today with various channels or platforms available. The urgency of this problem means that with a different situation from Adorno's time, the assumptions are different, and the factors that influence it. This is where perhaps financial or economic-related factors are not the only determinant. However, there are some other factors that are important to consider in understanding the reality of the music industry in more detail.

8.4 Adorno's Thesis on the Culture Industry

Adorno's critical thesis regarding the cultural industry concentrates on several things, including First, the industry degrades the essence of culture, leading to lower-class culture. Manufacturing mechanisms are considered a factor that makes culture lose its essence or value. The assumption is that a culture not involved in industrial schemes can maintain its authenticity. However, after uniting with industry, culture only becomes a commodity or exchange value as part of commodification practices. In this condition, cultural products become homogeneous or uniform with specific standards that are easily interchangeable. In other words, Adorno saw the cultural industry as an instrument strengthening capitalism.

Second, the cultural industry forms the same perception of reality. This perception is a consequence of the uniformity of the products produced. Furthermore, cultural manufacturing, in this case, music, directs the creation of audiences as objects that the market can control—creating audiences as subjects is complex because the perceptions formed are the same in viewing reality. Third, the culture industry leads to the formation of false consciousness and false needs and only creates illusions that weaken human consciousness.

Adorno's term is mass deception, where the products produced by the cultural industry alienate them from true reality. In this realm, it will stimulate the creation of pseudo-individualism, where diversity or uniqueness seems present but is just a gimmick or artificial.

Fourth, the cultural industry makes society or audiences passive and not think critically. Obedience or discipline becomes authority that agents of power have structured. Power relations are formed asymmetrically as an effort to legitimize the existing structure. Through this practice, people's tastes can be shaped without people realizing it. The element of rebellion can be eliminated so that the expected conditions can be relatively stable by placing society as an object that obeys and submits to the system.

8.5 Discussion

8.5.1 Music as a Channel for Activism

Music is not only an artistic expression but also a channel for activism. This is evident from numerous articles. On January 16, 2020, Forbes Magazine published an article titled "Political Activism and Music in 2019" by Kristin Westcott Grant. According to Grant (2020), music has a significant influence on emotional connections with fans. Thus, narratives conveyed through music, including political messages, can profoundly impact. For example, Grant discusses the band 1975, which released a self-titled song, "Notes on Conditional Form," featuring a monologue from Greta Thunberg, an environmental activist from Sweden. Thunberg, known for her concerns about climate change, delivered critical messages, emphasizing that the world is facing a global climate emergency and a system failure that we must acknowledge to secure the future (Grant, 2020).

The channel for activism through music was effectively utilized by 1975, garnering over 124,000 views on YouTube and more than three million plays on Spotify. Activism is not limited to a single issue. For instance, after protests against the Hong Kong extradition bill on August 26, 2019, a local musician named Thomas Dgl Yhl, aged around 20, released a song titled "Glory to Hong Kong" on a forum website, effectively turning it into a new "national anthem" for the people of Hong Kong. The song embodies the values of freedom, democracy, and justice. Since being shared on YouTube on September 11, 2019, it has garnered over four million views (Grant, 2020). Technological advancements have allowed various activist movements to utilize music to address environmental concerns, human rights, sexual harassment, violence, racism, and many other issues in numerous countries.

The issue of racism, particularly prevalent in the United States, has been challenged through musical works. Digital media platforms provide alternative spaces for widespread advocacy of moral and inspirational messages. Success is often measured by the number of individuals who view a performance or listen to a song. In this context, technology

empowers movements by opening opportunities to create critical works, enabling anyone to produce content aligned with their chosen cause.

Muhanji and Straton's (2005) study on Activism Through Music also highlights how music serves as a channel for activism across various fields, including education, gender, race, and other social issues. The study underscores that learning through music can enlighten, motivate, and inspire people to take actual, concrete actions to effect change.

Jerinx also employs music as a channel for activism, both with his band SID and contemporary works. Rudholf Dethu, the SID manager, stated in SID's biographical book titled "Racist! Traitor! Poor Morals!" (2015) that music is a universal language, making conveying messages through music relatively accessible to all audiences. As Gerdy (2017) posited in his article "Music as a Tool for Activism," "Music is the universal language."

The following are the lyrics of SID's songs (Table 8.2), where Jerinx plays a pivotal role in creating works with a spirit of resistance within the punk rock genre, including his latest three songs, a collaborative project with his wife, Vlaminora.

Table 8.2 SID Song Lyrics

Title	Lyrics	Message
-------	--------	---------

Kuta Rock City	<p>Getting' dressed and getting' drunk, make some noise don't left behind And the scars around your back Never sleep and never fall, we are young and we are free So we sing it loud and clear Like a rocket like a bomb, do we have to take it slow And then here we are again Tequila blast and Cadillac girls With the music swingin' (really0 hard In Kuta Rock City, where the evil dance Kuta Rock City, where the hero dies Kuta Rock City, where's all my cash? Kuta Rock City, please don't break my heart again! It is late and getting' hot, with the engine runnin' fast Story of suburban trash Against everything you know, like a rebel with a gun No time for society Recognize and realize, move bit just a little fast And then here we are again</p>	<p>Inviting to build awareness of the occurring condition where noise from fast- running engines has distanced us from the true essence of society</p>
<i>Kuat Kita Bersinar</i>	<p>Ku tatap dunia Terasa perih luka di dada Pertempuran manusia yang Buta indahnya perbedaan Oh.. Indahnya Kau bisa engkau pun bisa Melupakan kebencian yang ada Bersama kita terluka Bersama kita bisa tertawa Dan tertawa... Ayo bangun dunia di dalam perbedaan Jika satu kita kuat kita bersinar Harus percaya tak ada yang sempurna Dan dunia kembali tertawa Bayangkan dan senyumlah Mahkota emas tiada artinya Ketika raja dan ratu</p>	<p>Fighting discrimination, inviting development unity and diversity</p>

	<p>Pemimpin dunia semua bersatu Dan bersatu Jabat erat tangan ku kawan Kau tak akan pernah sendiri Hancurkan dendam Dengan cinta di dada Untuk semua manusia</p>	
<i>Jadilah Legenda</i>	<p>Walau badai menghadang kau takkan pernah hilang Walau badai menghadang Lihat laut dan indahnya ombak Gemulainya pohon kelapa Para Gadis yang mulai menari Kibarkan Merah Putih Untuk Indonesia Kita punya semua seribu budaya dan kekayaan alam yang takkan terkalahkan Untuk Indonesia jadilah legenda Kita bisa dan percaya Darah Indonesia Akulah halilintarmu Darah indonesia Menggelegar untuk selamanya Darah indonesia Walau badai menghadang kau takkan pernah hilang Walau badai menghadang</p>	<p>Inviting to build a spirit of nationalism, patriotism and pride in the Indonesian nation "not inferior, we are a great nation"</p>
<i>Evil Country</i>	<p>Open the door and you will see another truth About the human rights and all the things They want to burn it down There you can see how government infect your mind With opinions stay in control, and we say you suck Now let's piss them off This country system is, into making someone rich A new day will be come And you greedy pigs, cry a river burn in hell! Look at religion how they fuck my country up Racist war run by some evil</p>	<p>Rallying against racism, silencing human rights, murder in the name of religion, the state capitalist system, and oligarchy</p>

	<p>They think they're a fucking God There you can see how just stupid people are Believe in killing someone gonna bring'em closer to the Lord Now let's piss them off We ain't scared of you, and your stupid little faith A new day will be come And you moronic pigs, cry a river burn in hell!</p>	
<p><i>I Believe in Siti Fadilah</i></p>	<p>Di sinilah akal kita terasa Kemerdekaan itu mewah Cukup sudah penindasan di dunia Suara kan amarah Satu per satu per lahan tumbuh Biarkan jadi kekuatanku Perlahan tumbuh nyali ini senjata tuk Lawan Belum kalah kau jangan menyerah Tiba saatnya tuk berontak Kebebasan patut dipertarungkan Gemuruh kan angkara Satu per satu perlahan tumbuh Perlahan tumbuh nyali ini senjata Tuk bungkam para durjana Menjadi Indonesia Sejati Nusantara Nyawaku untukmu Ini tanah airmu Usirlah para penipu Jadilah raja baru Satu per satu perlahan tumbuh Biarkan dia jadi kekuatanku Perlahan tumbuh nyali ini senjata Tuk bungkam binasakan melawan Penjajah Perlahan tumbuh oh nyali ini senjata tuk bungkam para durjana</p>	<p>Rallying the Indonesian people to fight and create awareness of oppression, colonialism, and the trampling of independence, and submission to the global elite where in this context, Siti Fadilah has become a 'victim' for her resistance against WHO as part of the global elite</p>

<p><i>Lawan WHO dengan Taji! Bali Ini Tanah Revolusi</i></p>	<p>Ini tentang cinta Tentang rumah kita Juga tentang rasa Apakah kau pun merasakannya Ini tentang persaudaraan Leluhur dan warisan budaya Antara semesta dan jauh dari tanah Dewata ini Mulailah berdiri Restu Mentari Berjuang kecup kening pertiwi Sekali lagi cinta Setara hidup mati di pulau ini Tentang persaudaraan Leluhur dan warisan budaya Antara semesta dan jauh dari tanah Dewata ini Mulailah berdiri Restu mentari Berjuang kecup kening pertiwi Bali revolusi Baliku tanah revolusi Puluhan tahun terlelap dalam mimpi Sisanya melawan tirani Bali revolusi Baliku tanah revolusi Puluhan tahun terlelap dalam mimpi Saatnya melawan tirani</p>	<p>Inviting people to be aware and critical, to wake up from the "long sleep" lulled by the authorities for the time to fight tyranny, to carry out a revolution as Bali is a legacy of the land of ancestral struggle</p>
<p><i>Masih Adakah Pancasila?</i></p>	<p>Buat kita bersinar Cahaya Nusantara Terus berpijar melawan semua Di barisan para petarung bangsa Mutiara tenggelam Merindu ditemukan Yang terpenjara Tentu melara Setia menangis di bakar mahkota Jalani hari benderang Tegakkan keadilan Tuk anak bangsa rakyat jelata Dengarlah duhai ini para penguasa Kita Indonesia Berjayalah semua Lepas semua penjajahan Berdiri di atas kaki sendiri Indonesia baru Adil untuk semua</p>	<p>Criticizing the rulers who in turn annuled Pancasila, it's time for justice to be upheld for all, Pancasila teaches freedom and living on one's own feet is concurrent with the full meaning</p>

	<p>Lepas dari segala penindasan Merdeka dari arti sebenarnya Darah ini tak mengering untukmu Darah ini tuk Indonesia Darah tak pernah kering untukmu Percayalah Merdekalah Kita Indoensia Berjayalah bersama Lepas dari penjajahan Berdiri di atas kaki sendiri Indonesia baru Adil untuk semua Lepas dari segala penindasan Merdeka dalam arti sebenarnya</p>	
--	---	--

Through Jerinx's works, the spirit of resistance is decisive in each of his songs. Words such as against everything, rebel with a gun, recognize and realize in the song Kuta Rock City, the terms human rights and racist war in the song Evil Country, or even during the COVID-19 pandemic, *lyrical narratives of the struggle against the global elite that is believed to be in a chain of conspiracies using some terms such as independence is a luxury, enough oppression in the world has come, the time has come to revolt, to silence the evildoers, my life is for you in the song I Believe in Siti Fadilah including the Balinese words revolution, it is time for opponents of tyranny to also appear in the lyrics of the song Fight WHO with Taji! Bali is the Land of Revolution.*

Music as a universal language is able to penetrate the recesses of consciousness and arouse the emotional atmosphere of its listeners. The language of upholding justice, standing on one's own feet, independence in the true sense in the lyrics of the song Is There Still Pancasila? Shows that words are an ideological weapon that becomes a channel for activism for musicians who do not just compose songs but also internalize the moral messages in them. Jerinx is a figure who carries out this practice, where he is an artist on the one hand and also an activist on the other who fights for human values in every work he produces.

The Instagram social media platform Jerinx uses is at least in introducing his critical songs such as I Believe in Siti Fadilah, Fight WHO

with Taji! Bali is the Land of Revolution, and Does Pancasila Still Exist? Able to reach hundreds of thousands of impressions and tens of thousands of likes. In this context, technology makes it possible to become an alternative media as a channel for activism.

8.5.2 Jerinx and the Art of Social Agency

Through the movement music that is sung, Jerinx is not just an artist who sings songs but rather a social agent who acts critically with social reflections in responding to the reality that occurs. Critical narratives in songs like this are familiar in punk rock music. Independence and thoughts considered close to the "common people" or down to earth give a deeper nuance. The dialogical relationship between thoughts, words, and actions that arise from the bottom up provides more progressive moral injections.

Jerinx with SID and his critical contemporary music project add to a long record that positions musicians as social agents. For example, punk rock bands in the world who pay attention to socio-political and economic aspects of criticism, such as the punk band Crass from England, which voices anti-racism criticism and supports feminist issues; Dead Kennedys voiced criticism of the Reagan regime's capitalism in the United States, including rejecting all forms of music commercialization practices; There is also a band that is popular because of its trademark political satire, namely NOFX where Fat Mike plays himself as a social agency through the initiation of his organization Punk Voter to campaign against political apathy by encouraging young people in the United States to care about politics.

Meanwhile, in the context of Jerinx, with its affiliated support for the movement against the reclamation of Benoa Bay, which is part of the Bali People's Forum Against Reclamation (ForBALI), it is noted that the agency's practices are not just a gimmick or image, but can lead to real action. With a musical approach, of course, it will be easier to reach and consolidate many people to equalize the frequency of support, especially from the younger generation. Obvious evidence that is felt from the existence of solidarity or public strength, especially resistance with the support of music, is very compelling in influencing policy, where stakeholders do not dare to take policies that are too at risk of fighting the fury of the masses, which generally move from ForBALI, supported by

some bands that have a relatively large fan base in Bali, such as SID, The Hydrant, Navicula as well as Nosstress and several other local bands (Fikrie, 2018) who have organically organized. Furthermore, they not only collaborate with bands but are also connected to a network of non-governmental organizations as well as youth bases and campuses.

During the current COVID-19 pandemic, Jerinx also played a role. This role, apart from being channeled through movement music, is also carried out through various social actions, such as raising donations and providing free food, including distributing PPE to medical personnel and affected communities. It is not uncommon, with followers on Instagram reaching almost one million or, to be precise, 949 thousand (as of June 13, 2020), Jerinx helps promote MSMEs from Bali by posting on his Instagram story so that their selling products are not paralyzed in the future. pandemic. Once again, this proves that the position of artists as social agents is powerful and influences society. As a public figure, these roles make a concrete contribution to emancipatory action.

8.5.3 Music vs Industry (Market) and the Middle Ground of Negotiations

The battle between music as an artistic expression on the one hand and an industrial mechanism on the other has never been finished. The essence of music in voicing various realities without limits and pressure or control from any party is the key to making quality art. However, it is not uncommon for this quality to be compromised or negotiated with the market. When music is on the artistic path, without paying attention to economic aspects, its existence or sustainability is relatively at stake. However, if music is subject to market tastes, music in this condition may no longer be positioned as a use value but an exchange value (commodity).

One of the genres of music that is widely accepted by the market is pop. Many famous bands fill the list of names in this cluster, such as Vegetoz, Ungu, Vierra, Noah, D'Masiv, Duo Maia, Hijau Daun, Project Pop, and Nidji. Pop bands are relatively loved by fans, apart from the fact that people like songs that are light, relaxed, and tend to be entertaining, including the effects of turmoil, and can also be emotionally publicized according to market tastes. These songs fulfill public demand, as represented by the relatively high number of fans who become followers on the official

Instagram of these bands and their personnel, for example, Noah (764 thousand) with Ariel as vocalist (2.7 million); D'Masiv (108 thousand) with Rian as vocalist (366 thousand); Ungu (212 thousand) with Pasha as vocalist (1.5 million).

Of course, all the bands that the author mentioned previously are under the auspices of music producers or significant labels, namely Sony BMG Music Entertainment Indonesia. This music recording company is, of course, an extension of Sony BMG Music Entertainment, which is headquartered in the United States. This network of music producers is worldwide, where every music they support can be distributed widely.

Interestingly, of the list of singers or bands managed by Sony BMG Music Entertainment Indonesia, SID is one of them. For other pop bands, it is easier to explain that music is a commodity accepted or accepted by market logic. Meanwhile, SID, with its movement music, was not accepted in the mainstream view because it shook the status quo. However, SID was also associated with major labels, similar to other music industries. In the book by Dethu & Satrio (2015), it is explained that SID became part of the major label Sony Music not by actively seeking registration but rather by receiving an offer or invitation to collaborate. SID interpreted this offer as a sign of the band's strong bargaining position. The note represents this bargaining position that even though it is part of the big recording industry, the genre of music, including narratives of resistance, remains the character of SID's music. They were contracted for six albums over approximately 15 years, from 2003 to 2018.

In Dethu's (2015) book, it is stated that many criticisms are unavoidable in deciding on an indie band like SID, which has a punk rock by bringing movement music to major labels in the music industry. The common assumption does not make sense, where most indie bands choose the alternative route of not joining a recording industry company. However, SID's choice cannot be understood simply by employing two binary viewpoints: one that suggests joining a music company will compromise your idealism and the other that claims that not joining a music company makes it impossible to survive, particularly regarding economic sustainability. These two opposing viewpoints appear inadequate in explaining the SID phenomenon. On one hand, SID is affiliated with a major label, but its song content remains true to its idealism and is not

influenced by financial interests. Even while under Sony Music, SID won the award as the best punk rock band at the AMI Award event.

In general, the relationship between music and the market does not run parallel. However, in the SID music phenomenon, these two things run parallel. The articulation of movement music can be accepted in the primary label music industry, generally met by market tastes. At the same time, SID answers segmented targets where the music genre is still enjoyed by those who enjoy it. In this context, there is a middle way where the negotiation process runs equally without controlling each other. After SID terminated its contract with Sony Music in 2018, SID prioritized music as a locomotive for the creative economy (Jerinx in sid-official account, 2020). This was corrected as a representation by Jerinx, although not directly representing SID as a whole, but rather a project with several colleagues who produced three songs, such as *I Believe* in Siti Fadilah, *Lawan WHO with Taji! Bali is the Land of Revolution*, and *Does Pancasila Still Exist?* Those songs are produced independently and can also be distributed directly through Instagram's social media channels so that they can be heard widely.

8.5.4 Adorno's Anti-Mainstream and Antithesis

The Jerinx phenomenon has become something anti-mainstream in the music industry. Through this analysis, the author wants to show that several of Adorno's theses may apply because the context is different. First, it is related to industry that degrades the essence of culture, leading to low-class culture. In the context of Jerinx, this does not happen. Critical articulations in Jerinx's music still contain attempts to distort or disorganize established forms. Problems related to the cultural industry in the Jerinx context are more about taste factors, which are more segmented in certain circles. This is relevant to Gans's (1974) thesis regarding taste culture.

The mechanisms of the culture industry are not necessarily understood in terms of downgrading the substance of culture itself. Each music has its own niche of fans. Of course, this is not relevant when it comes to understanding the Jerinx music phenomenon. Jerinx's music is enjoyed by people who agree that the world or regime is unfair. Some fans among young people show that taste is not a matter of dichotomy like Adorno's thesis, where there is only high and low culture. Jerinx's music has received

interest from the middle class, especially young people, who are looking for identity or identity on the one hand and those who are aware of Tan Malaka's message that "idealism is the last luxury that young people have." Music criticism of the Jerinx movement makes sense of the reality felt by young people, especially the thinking base who are used to reading books or watching films that invite them to think as depicted in the high and upper-middle culture clusters, so it is not the general public who are middle to lower relatively unfamiliar with the world of activism.

In the Jerinx phenomenon, the manufacturing mechanism does not make culture lose its essence or value. The practice of commodification, known to occur in the music industry in general, did not occur even though Jerinx and his SID received an offer to join a major label. SID's music produced after joining the record company is still the same as when he had not joined Sony Music. Standardization does not occur. SID's music content still carries anti-oppression language that is not uniform with other popular music genres. Music, in Jerinx's understanding, is not just an interchangeable product but instead interpreted as a representation of identity. There are partisan narratives that are represented, both when promoting the rejection of the reclamation of Tanjung Benoa and related to the COVID-19 conspiracy, which is linked to efforts to refuse to submit to the interests of the global elite, including the absence of Pancasila in upholding justice for a nation that is not yet "truly independent."

Adorno's second thesis, which states that the cultural industry forms the same perception of reality, is also irrelevant to understanding the musical phenomenon of the Jerinx movement. The same perception only arises from the uniformity of the products produced. If the product produced by SID is considered unnatural because it does not follow the mainstream, of course, what happens is not forming the same perception in looking at reality, but rather being able to deconstruct general perceptions, because the audience is not being objectified, but instead is being subjected to not be subsumed by market imperatives. Suppose pop music aims to build young people's perception that love and excitement are the primary reality. In that case, Jerinx's music actually builds another perception that forces them to understand the reality of the world differently. Imagine narratives against oppression in the style of Jerinx; compared to *I love you* narratives like pop song content, it will lead to a different perception of the world.

Adorno's third thesis regarding the culture industry leading to the formation of false consciousness, false needs, and only creates illusions that weaken human consciousness (mass deception) is also not proven in the Jerinx music phenomenon. Jerinx's music does the opposite. It encourages creating genuine awareness and needs that should be met and not covered up. The need for justice, for example, has so far not been optimally enforced, where political interests are still prominent while marginalized groups are powerless. Jerinx's efforts to narrate the lyrics by calling independence a luxury in the song *I Believe* in Siti Fadilah shows that so far, freedom of opinion is still primarily silenced, even though it is no longer like the New Order era. However, such practices cannot be said to be not happening nowadays. Jerinx's spirit directs the people of Indonesia, especially Bali, for example, not to be alienated from the actual reality. Sensitivity to the central issues around us is essential. That is what Jerinx instills in his music so that pseudo-individualism does not represent the characteristics of influence brought from his music because his genre is different and unique as alternative music outside the mainstream.

Adorno's fourth thesis relates to the cultural industry making society or audiences passive and not thinking critically, which is not reflected in the Jerinx phenomenon. Jerinx, or SID as a whole, when partnering with a record company, still had a bargaining position so that the power of investors in controlling Jerinx's freedom and creativity did not occur. As is the view of Gans (1974), when the role of musicians is like that of creators, they are strong and have a strategic bargaining position. The position of investors is no longer the only determining factor or has absolute authority. The Jerinx phenomenon illustrates that he is part of a strong group of creators so that the industry places him not as a subjugated party but as an equal partner. The asymmetric power relations that usually operate in the terrestrial private television industry also do not apply to the musical practices of the Jerinx movement. Jerinx, through his music, actually stimulates the rise of elements of rebellion rather than being eliminated, like Adorno's thesis. The success of Jerinx's propaganda in its movement music lies in its efforts to influence, persuade, motivate, and even encourage real action to make changes rather than co-opting critical consciousness.

Apart from that, in Adorno's relatively undeveloped era, various technologies were also noted, which meant that Adorno's perspective could

not simply be brought to explain current reality. SID was born in 1995 and, in 2003, released his first album through the major label Sony Music until 2018. After that, Jerinx relied more on independent content managed through his social media channels. This trip shows the role of technology in which digitalization encourages the creation of democratization. What Najwa does on television and what Jerinx does in music represent this. While the two may not be directly comparable due to their distinct underlying factors, technology plays a significant role. It eliminates the need for large-scale industrial patterns to create cultural products, allowing cultural industry players to be more independent and creative. This follows the long tail logic, where alternative spaces and channels are more open to offering products that diverge from the mainstream, embracing an anti-mainstream approach.

8.6 Conclusion

Adorno's thesis is not applicable to understanding the Jerinx phenomenon and the movement of music propaganda. Some of Adorno's key ideas from his time cannot be directly applied to comprehending Jerinx's reality. Borrowing Gans' perspective can provide a more complete understanding when analyzing the cultural industry. Adorno's concept of standardization, homogenization, pseudo-individualism, and the degradation of low-class culture, which created false awareness and passive, uncritical audiences, also does not fit the Jerinx phenomenon. This is because the Jerinx phenomenon exists outside the standards of the mainstream music industry, which operates based on market logic.

The emergence of Jerinx with music that represents social criticism diverges from the standardization formulas that often placate society. At the same time, it negotiates with market tastes to gain acceptance from a broad audience. In this context, Adorno's thesis fails to explain the relationship between standardization and market acceptance. The Jerinx phenomenon demonstrates that non-standard (anti-mainstream) musical works can still find acceptance among a segmented market. Musicians with characteristics like Jerinx cannot be reduced to viewing music merely as a

means of capitalization, as Adorno argued when criticizing the culture industry.

For Jerinx, music is a channel for activism and social agency. Dealing with the market or a record company does not always involve a head-on confrontation. Musicians can negotiate a middle ground that positions them as creators with a bargaining position, preserving their idealism without being subjected to market mechanisms or investor control. Market incentives do not erase the essential role of culture in the dialectic of social life. Musicians have bargaining power (bargaining position), while significant labels or record companies also continue to pursue their market-oriented objectives.

Another critical factor in this analysis is the role of technology. Unlike Adorno's time, technology plays a more significant role in the contemporary cultural industry. The widespread use of the internet and various platforms has significantly impacted the democratization of music production. Technology facilitates creativity and independence in creating musical works, serving as both a "musical instrument" in the technical realm and a tool for activism.

References

- Adorno, T. W. (1991). *The Culture Industry: Selected Essays on Mass Culture*. London: Routledge.
- Adorno, T. W. (1998). *On Popular Music dalam Cultural Theory and Popular Culture: A Reader*. Second Edition. England: Prentice Hall.
- Armando, A. (2020). Empat Faktor yang Membatalkan Pemiskinan dalam Industri Budaya. Materi Kuliah PJJ Seminar Industri Budaya.
- Dethu, R & Satrio, D. (2015). *Rasis! Pengkhianat! Miskin Moral!: Tiga Kontroversi Besar, Melelahkan & Nyaris Mematikan Karir Superman Is Dead*. Bali: Kuat Kita Bersinar.
- Fikrie, M. (2018). Rudholf Dethu: Propaganda, Musik dan Aktivisme. Accessed from <https://lokadata.id/artikel/rudolf-dethu-propaganda-musik-dan-aktivisme>.

-
- Gans, H. J. (1974). *Popular Culture and High Culture: An Analysis and Evaluation of Taste*. New York: Basic Books Inc.
- Gerdy, J. (2017). Music as Tool for Activism. Accessed from <https://www.johngerdy.com/blog-overview/music-as-a-tool-for-activism>.
- Grant, K. W. (2020). Political Activism and Music in 2019. Accessed from <https://www.forbes.com/sites/kristinwestcottgrant/2020/01/16/political-activism-and-music-in-2019/#34d244f97200>.
- Horkheimer, M & Adorno, T. W. (2002). *Dialectic of Enlightenment: Philosophical Fragments*. Terjemahan oleh E. Jephcott. California: Stanford University Press
- Instagram jrxsid. Accessed from <https://www.instagram.com/jrxsid/?hl=en>.
- Muhanji, C & Straton, J. C. (2005). *Activism Through Music*. *Inventio - Creative Thinking about Learning and Teaching*, 7(1).

Educational Messages to Combat COVID-19 Misinformation on Instagram

9

Nia Ashton Destrity

Abstract

Public health crises, such as the COVID-19 pandemic, have the potential to generate misinformation across various media, including social media. A multitude of health information sources, encompassing news portals, government agencies, non-governmental organizations, communities, and specific platforms, utilize social media as a means to educate the public and counter the spread of misinformation. These diverse sources play a crucial role in combatting misinformation. However, there remains a limited amount of empirical research concerning the educational messages used by different health information sources to counteract misinformation. This study seeks to describe and analyze the educational messages employed to combat COVID-19 misinformation on Instagram, utilizing various health information sources such as the Ministry of Health as a governmental organization, Tirta.id as a news portal, and Pandemic Talks as a specialized platform for COVID-19 information and official data in Indonesia. Through qualitative content analysis of message posts on official Instagram accounts belonging to these three distinct health information sources, this research aims to identify and compare the educational messages designed to counter misinformation related to COVID-19. This study elucidates and underscores the critical role played by various types of health information sources in crafting educational messages to counter misinformation during the COVID-19 pandemic, mainly via the social media platform Instagram. Furthermore, this research underscores the theoretical significance of disseminating educational messages regarding misinformation through social media platforms. From a practical standpoint, this research contributes to our understanding of social media's dual potential as both a channel for disseminating and combating misinformation.

Keywords

COVID-19 · Educational message · Health information · Misinformation · Sources · Social media Instagram

N. A. Destrity

Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science, Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

health-related information within communities. While it is crucial to authenticate and acknowledge health information, there is also a considerable possibility that a multitude of health-related details circulating in society might be inaccurate. Studies focusing on misinformation within the context of infectious disease outbreaks have consistently highlighted the rapid dissemination of misinformation (Meer & Jin, 2020). Several researchers highlighted that during the COVID-19 pandemic, misinformation or misleading information about this disease flourished in the mainstream media and social media (Hornik *et al.*, 2021). According to Chou *et al.* (2018), there is a substantial amount of misinformation available on the internet within the domains of health and science, and more and more researchers are emphasizing this as an issue with implications for both individual and public health (Tully *et al.*, 2020).

Tan *et al.* (2015) defined misinformation as information that is explicitly false based on what a consensus of experts deems to be untrue, excluding rumors, contradictory or disputed information, exaggerations, or preliminary health findings (Meer & Jin, 2020). Misinformation, as defined by Nyhan and Reifler (2010), pertains to instances where individuals' convictions about factual subjects lack substantiation from evident data and expert viewpoints (Vraga & Bode, 2017)—various topics of misinformation regarding COVID-19 circulating in society. Referring to Brennen *et al.*, 2020; Sharma *et al.*, 2020, much-circulating misinformation includes misconceptions regarding the virus's source (e.g., the virus being artificially created), baseless assertions about the virus's seriousness (e.g., the virus being less lethal than the regular flu), and incorrect declarations about the availability of a vaccine or remedy (e.g., the effectiveness of the malaria drug Hydroxychloroquine as a treatment)

(Hornik *et al.*, 2021). Some examples of misinformation circulating in Indonesia include COVID-19 being just a deception by the "global elite" and the notion that vaccination is meant to "implant microchips" into our bodies (Irfani, 2021), as well as the claim that hospitals receive money when COVID-19 patients die (Bernie, 2020).

Most COVID-19-related misinformation spreads widely through the internet, especially social media. The dissemination of this misinformation is facilitated by the characteristics of social media, where messages can spread very quickly. As stated by Vraga *et al.* (2017), scholars have voiced concerns about social media serving as a channel for the distribution of misinformation (Huang & Wang, 2020). Such concerns are also reinforced by findings from various studies, which indicate that numerous experts have expressed worries about how social media has worsened the impact of misinformation (Vraga *et al.*, 2019). Various features provided on social media make it easier for misinformation to spread, such as the retweet or repost feature. As referenced by several researchers, studies indicate that misinformation can spread more rapidly on social media than accurate information due to users who "like," "share," and "reply" to posts containing misinformation (Tully *et al.*, 2020).

A considerable number of Indonesians depend on social media as a source of information, including health-related content. This reflects a prevailing trust among Indonesians in the health-related information they access via social media. Moreover, some social media users struggle to discern accurate information and misinformation. This observation is further supported by Del Vicario *et al.* (2016), who point out that individuals seldom fact-check the information they acquire from social media (Bode & Vraga, 2017).

Besides facilitating the spread of misinformation, social media can also contribute to combating misinformation. Nonetheless, even though social media has the potential to spread misinformation, it can also function as a platform where inaccurate information is rectified (Bode & Vraga, 2017). This can be derived from the roles and purposes that social media can serve as mediums for delivering health education messages. For example, one finding from the study by Richter *et al.* (2014) indicated that seven out of ten hospitals use Facebook primarily to disseminate educational messages about health (Gonçalves, 2020).

In this study, educational messages are intended to enhance awareness, knowledge, and skills, as well as to include calls to change attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors of individuals in order to resist, be cautious of, and refrain from spreading misinformation, as well as to verify received information beforehand. Additionally, these educational messages also play a role in educating individuals, mainly social media users in this context, to distinguish between accurate and inaccurate information. Consequently, corrective messages addressing misinformation also form part of the educational messages to combat misinformation.

Various sources of health information, such as news media, government agencies, non-governmental organizations, or communities, utilize social media to educate the public about the spread of misinformation. According to Vraga & Bode (2017), it is suggested that expert organizations such as the CDC (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention) should promptly and directly counter health-related misinformation on social media platforms. According to Coombs (2014), misinformation is highlighted as one of the three consistent findings that should form the foundational understanding for crisis communicators, underlining the importance for organizations to combat inaccurate information actively (Meer & Jin, 2020). In Indonesia, the Ministry of Health stands as a reputable and authoritative institution in the healthcare domain. Furthermore, news media outlets and official platforms that specialize in COVID-19 information and data, such as Pandemic Talks, can be considered credible sources as well. The credibility of these three information sources can be utilized to facilitate the distribution of educational messages aimed at combating misinformation via social media. Therefore, these various sources are crucial in addressing misinformation.

The Ministry of Health, news media Tirtoid, and Pandemic Talks utilize their social media, including platforms like Instagram, to disseminate educational messages in response to the rapid spread of misinformation related to COVID-19. Leveraging Instagram's visual-based social media platform, these educational messages can be crafted to be as captivating as they can be by incorporating visual elements.

Several studies have been conducted to explore misinformation and corrective messages regarding misinformation, including research on the utilization of expert sources for rectifying health-related misinformation on social media (Vraga and Bode, 2017), a meta-analytical approach for

correcting misinformation (Walter and Murphy, 2018), a test on the Facebook News Feed that included misinformation, utilizing various mechanism for correcting it (one method included algorithm-generated news stories containing accurate data, while another method involved corrective news stories shared by different Facebook users) related to the Zika virus (Bode and Vraga, 2017), experimentation with two types of rhetorical correction (logic-based and humor-based) across topics like climate change, gun control, and HPV vaccination (Vraga et al., 2019), the potential for narrative correctives to combat misinformation (Sangalanget al., 2019), the effect of message format (narrative vs. non-narrative) and correction mechanism (social vs. algorithmic correction) for rectifying misinformation about e-cigarettes on social media (Huang and Wang, 2020), a meta-analysis on the influence of efforts to correct health misinformation on social media (Walter *et al.*, 2020), and the analysis of the effects of corrective information type (simple rebuttal vs. factual elaboration) and source (government health agency vs. news media vs. social peer) (Meer and Jin, 2020). However, empirical research into the educational messages to combat misinformation by different types of health information sources is still limited. This study aims to describe and analyze the educational messages used to combat COVID-19 misinformation on Instagram by various health information sources, including the Ministry of Health as a governmental organization, the Tirto.id as a news portal, and Pandemic Talks as a particular platform for information and official data on COVID-19 in Indonesia.

9.2 Social Media as a Channel for Health-Related Misinformation

Referring to Kaplan and Haenlein, social media is characterized as web-based tools that originate from the principles and technology of Web 2.0, facilitating the generation and sharing of content produced by users (User Generated Content) (Knoll, 2016). Social media platforms like Facebook or Twitter have gained immense global popularity, potentially serving as influential avenues to connect with a broad audience (Gabarron & Wynn, 2016). The use of social media platforms is progressively gaining

popularity as a means to disseminate public health messages on various subjects (Jain et al., 2020). Social media platforms have gained significant prominence in the healthcare landscape of the United States, with an increasing number of Americans relying on them as their main outlet for health-related information (Walter et al., 2020). As stated by Jang & Paek (2019), in recent infectious disease outbreaks, social media have served as primary information channels, allowing the public to access disease-related information and share it with their family, friends, and neighbors in real time (Oh et al., 2020).

With various features provided, social media holds the potential for misinformation dissemination. According to Vraga et al. (2020), misinformation refers to information that goes against the most reliable evidence, and drawing from various researchers, many have expressed particular worry about the proliferation of health-related misinformation on social media (Tully et al., 2020). Adopting Meer and Jin (2020), this study also follows the definition of misinformation in communication studies, which characterizes crisis misinformation as inaccurate details concerning a crisis, initially perceived as accurate but subject to subsequent correction or retraction, leading to individuals holding incorrect factual beliefs. The proliferation of misinformation is facilitated by social media, posing a danger to public health (Walter *et al.*, 2020). Evidence from existing research has confirmed that the prevalence and persistence of misinformation can have far-reaching societal consequences (Meer & Jin, 2020), for example, decisions made by individuals regarding health behaviors.

Social media exhibits vital characteristics that can drive the proliferation of misinformation. These primary characteristics include 1) the presence of algorithmically driven filter bubbles in the background of social media platforms, where these algorithms present content to users that align with their preferences, aiming to increase the time individuals spend on the platform (Mims, 2017; Pariser, 2011), and 2) as referenced by Lazer et al. (2017), social media enables users to follow individuals who share similar views, leading to the formation of highly personalized echo chambers (Rhodes, 2022).

Hoaxes or fake news is one form of misinformation that quickly circulates through social media. Various health-related hoaxes spread rapidly, shared across numerous social media accounts, believed by many,

and usually, to make them more convincing, these hoax stories are embellished with religious claims, provocative words, or testimonials from supposed doctors who cannot be found on any medical organization's list (Putri, 2019). According to various researchers, unusual, sensational, emotional, or exaggerated assertions, which frequently carry misinformation, tend to attract attention and propagate more widely compared to ordinary or impartial content on social media (Tully et al., 2020). According to a survey by the Indonesian Journalists Association (PWI) in 2017, health-related hoaxes in Indonesia ranked first as the most widely spread, where out of a thousand hoax news articles from February 2016 to February 2017 used as a research sample, 27 percent of them were health-related (Putri, 2019). Citing Vosoughi et al. (2018), while the majority of social media users are not responsible for generating misinformation, they can interact with it by sharing, retweeting, and replying to it, thereby disseminating and magnifying it across social networks (Tully et al., 2020).

9.3 Educational Message to Combat Health-Related Misinformation on Social Media

Social media platforms like Twitter and Facebook are widespread centers for health-related information (Walter et al., 2020). Similarly, health-related misinformation can thrive on this platform, as discussed in the previous subsection. While it holds the potential to facilitate the spread of health-related misinformation, on the other hand, social media can also serve as a means to disseminate educational messages aimed at countering health-related misinformation. Social media holds the capacity to expand the outreach of educational messages. Due to the interactive characteristics of social media, these educational messages can readily prompt engagement from the public, thereby enhancing the likelihood of their dissemination.

Education is suitable for improving individuals' understanding and providing them with the necessary knowledge concerning a particular subject (Lefebvre, 2013). In the context of this study, educational messages are aimed at increasing awareness, knowledge, and competencies while

also prompting individuals to adjust their attitudes, beliefs, and behavior in order to counter, be cautious about, and prevent the spread of misinformation, as well as to endorse the verification of information prior to acceptance. Furthermore, these educational messages play a role in guiding individuals, mainly social media users, to proficiently distinguish between accurate and inaccurate information. As a result, messages that rectify misinformation are essential elements of educational efforts aimed at combating misinformation.

Studies have investigated how the capabilities of social media can aid in rectifying misinformation, as exemplified by Vraga & Bode, through presenting correctives from expert sources (Huang & Wang, 2020). Referring to Bode & Vraga, studies on misinformation revealed that offering inadvertent exposure to corrective information on social media can undermine the credibility of misinformation and diminish the resulting misunderstandings (Huang & Wang, 2020). Therefore, social media users, especially authoritative organizations in providing health-related information, can leverage the features offered by social media to counter misinformation through educational messages. These organizations can present accurate information supported by various evidence and credible sources to combat health misinformation. The dissemination of educational messages by recognized and reputable institutions, along with the incorporation of expert health information sources, can enhance public trust in educational messages.

Drawing from Walter & Murphy, a notable hurdle in addressing misinformation lies in the persistent nature of entrenched misconceptions (Huang & Wang, 2020). This endurance might be attributed to individuals' inclination to uphold already established beliefs and perspectives. In line with Festinger's insights, individuals often tend to withstand information that contradicts their current convictions, aiming to avert cognitive dissonance, the inner unease stemming from clashing viewpoints or beliefs (Huang & Wang, 2020).

Lewandowsky et al. (2012) mentioned two recommended corrective information strategies, namely 1) factual elaboration, which emphasizes "highlighting facts" to reinforce accurate information, and 2) simple brief rebuttal, which employs fewer arguments to counter misinformation myths (Meer and Jin, 2020). Moreover, educational messages designed to counter misinformation can also leverage the contributions of reliable information

sources. According to Vraga & Bode, expert sources (including government health institutions), news media, and social peers have the potential to rectify information inaccuracies concerning public health crises (Meer and Jin, 2020).

Based on its purpose, educational messages can be categorized as persuasive messages. Educational messages aimed at combating misinformation should be capable of persuading the public to change their attitudes and beliefs regarding misinformation that they may have previously held. Drawing from empirical studies, it is recommended that those seeking to rectify misconceptions should counter the opposing viewpoint with strong supporting evidence and introduce some persuasive elements (Perloff, 2017). Especially in contentious issues where misinformation or deliberately disseminated disinformation about scientific facts exists, persuaders can highlight the consensus among most scientists (Perloff, 2017).

McCroskey defines evidence as factual statements derived from a source other than the speaker, objects not produced by the speaker, and opinions of individuals other than the speaker that are presented to support the speaker's assertions (Perloff, 2017). Evidence includes factual claims, quantitative data (such as statistics), statements from witnesses, testimonials, or opinions from credible sources (Perloff, 2017). In addition to evidence, educational messages to counter health misinformation can also take the form of narratives.

According to Dal Cin et al. (2004), narratives have the potential to counteract the influence of misinformation due to their ability to reduce resistance (Huang & Wang, 2020). Referring to Hinyard & Kreuter (2007), a narrative is defined as a well-structured and coherent story with a clear start, middle, and conclusion that conveys details about the context, characters, and central problem; introduces unresolved issues or conflicts and provides a resolution (Perloff, 2017). Narrative messages involve distinct psychological processes. Quoting Slater & Rouner (2002), unlike non-narrative messages that primarily alter attitudes through logical reasoning, facts, and statistics, the narrative is believed to engage a unique psychological process (Huang & Wang, 2020). There is some indication that narrative corrections, including emotional conclusions or not, can successfully diminish misconceptions and intentions (Sangalang et al., 2019).

9.4 Methods

By employing qualitative content analysis of message posts on official Instagram accounts belonging to three distinct categories of health information sources, this study examines and compares educational messages aimed at countering COVID-19-related misinformation. Qualitative content analysis is a research technique involving the subjective interpretation of textual data content by systematically categorizing and detecting themes or patterns through coding (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). The research elucidates and validates the essential contribution of diverse health information sources in formulating educational messages for addressing misinformation amid the health crisis posed by the COVID-19 pandemic, utilizing the social media platform Instagram. The educational messages through the Instagram social media platform that were successfully traced and analyzed in this research encompassed 26 posts from the account @kemenkes_ri, 23 posts from the account @tirtoid, and 71 posts from the account @pandemictalks. Based on three qualitative content analysis approaches, this study utilizes the directed content analysis approach. This approach is employed to validate or enhance a theoretical framework or theory, with existing theory or research aiding in refining the research question (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Referring to (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, 1999), by drawing from established theories or previous studies, researchers start by identifying fundamental concepts or variables as initial coding categories (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Subsequently, the theory establishes operational definitions for each category (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

9.5 Result and Discussion

The increasing use of social media for crisis communication could potentially complicate the issue of dealing with misinformation during public health crises (Meer & Jin, 2020). The presentation of results and discussion in this subsection is divided based on the three sources of information from educational messages to counter misinformation.

9.5.1 Combating Covid-19 Misinformation through Educational Messages by the Ministry of Health

According to Vijaykumar, Jin, and Nowak (2015), health organizations should proactively communicate with individuals and communities during public health crises to prevent potential harm to the public (Meer & Jin, 2020). The Ministry of Health of the Republic of Indonesia, through its Instagram account @kemenkes_ri, actively generates and disseminates educational messages to respond to the rampant misinformation during the COVID-19 pandemic. Based on the findings, the official Ministry of Health account has posted 26 educational message uploads aimed at combating misinformation, recorded from January 28, 2020, to August 26, 2021.

One of the topics of educational messages conveyed through the Ministry of Health's Instagram account is information regarding the hotline Halo Kemenkes (which is accessible 24 hours) to anticipate the circulation of misleading information and potential hoaxes that could create anxiety in the community. Additionally, there are also posts on similar topics informing about a specific website, namely <http://covid19.kemkes.go.id>, to access updates on the current COVID-19 situation. This includes the daily patient data in Indonesia, educational materials, the Hoax Buster feature, and a question-and-answer section related to COVID-19. Still on the same topic, educational message posts also promote other media that can be accessed to combat misinformation, namely the website sehatnegeriku.kemkes.go.id, other social media accounts such as Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, and Flickr.

Another topic of the educational messages posted includes corrections to issues such as the misconception that COVID-19 can be transmitted through eye contact, the false belief that COVID-19 can spread through

inanimate objects, the unfounded claim that thermal guns damage the brain, the status of 6 (six) cities as COVID-19 yellow zones, total lockdown, an email from the Ministry of Health advising for COVID-19 testing, extreme statements by Minister of Health Terawan Agus Putranto in chat groups, reports of 1000 students losing consciousness after undergoing rapid COVID-19 tests, the denial of funeral rites for individuals who died from COVID, alleged cases of death due to COVID-19 vaccination, and the misconception that asymptomatic individuals infected with COVID-19 cannot transmit the virus to others.

The educational messages used include direct explanations regarding misinformation, which are presented visually as posters. Opinions from credible sources often accompany these direct explanations of misinformation, for example, in the following post about Coronavirus not spreading through goods or clothing and related to thermal guns.



Fig. 9.1 Example of educational messages on the Instagram account. Source: @kemenkes_ri (February 7, 2020, July 22, 2020)

The post is accompanied by the following captions:

“Coronavirus Does Not Spread through Goods or Clothing. Regarding concerns from the public about whether the Novel Coronavirus (2019-nCoV) can spread through packaged goods, Secretary of the Directorate General of Disease Prevention and Control, Achmad Yurianto, stated that the likelihood of novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) transmission through items is very low. He explained that the virus cannot spread through inanimate objects. This is because it needs its host to survive. He also

likened the virus to a plant parasite that requires an intermediary.” (Caption related to Coronavirus does not spread through goods or clothing, Instagram account @kemenkes_ri, 2020)

“Still receiving messages or information about thermal guns causing brain damage? That information is not correct, Healthies, because thermal guns do not use laser, radioactivity like X-rays, only infrared. Let's together spread accurate information [#HoaksKesehatan](#) [#bersatuLawanCOVID19](#)” (Caption related to thermal guns, Instagram account @kemenkes_ri, 2020)

The examples of both posts demonstrate educational messages that provide direct explanations about misinformation and accurate information used to correct misinformation—including the opinion of an expert, dr. Achmad Yurianto, who holds the position of Secretary in the Directorate General of Disease Prevention and Control, enhances the quality of these educational message posts. Recent research, such as the study conducted by Southwell, et al. (2016), utilizing expert sources to rectify health-related misinformation on social media, has highlighted the potential for health organizations and governmental bodies to leverage their organizational credibility to counter misinformation successfully (Meer & Jin, 2020).

Another educational post, including credible information sources, is presented in a message to correct misinformation regarding a viral video claiming that healthy individuals infected with COVID-19 cannot transmit the virus to others. This educational message post contains fact-checking content supported by information sources from international research journals, which state that asymptomatic COVID-19 patients can still transmit the virus to others.

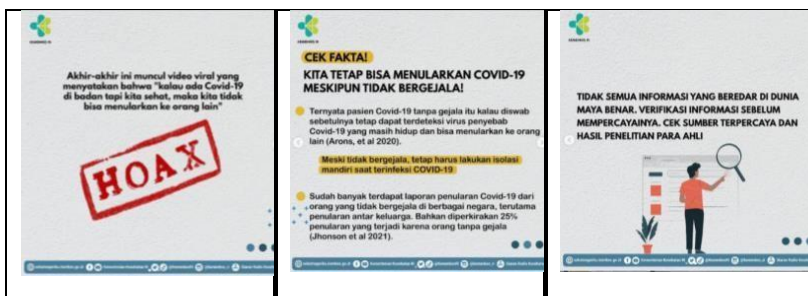


Fig. 9.2 Example of educational messages on the Instagram account @kemenkes_ri. Source: Instagram account @kemenkes_ri (June 28, 2021)

Educational messages in the form of posters also provide clarifications several times regarding circulating misinformation, including misinformation that mentions or claims to represent the Ministry of Health and the Minister of Health. These educational messages clarify that the Ministry of Health has never sent emails urging the public to undergo COVID-19 testing. Additionally, another educational message mentions that extreme statements attributed to Minister of Health Terawan Agus Putranto in chat groups or other social media platforms are false information. This message also adds evidence by explaining that such messages have appeared since 2018 on the Facebook social media platform. These educational messages are presented as posters, which display the misinformation messages along with prominent tags or labels indicating their hoax status.



Fig. 9.3 Example of educational messages on the Instagram account @kemenkes_ri. Source: Instagram account @kemenkes_ri (May 7, 2020, June 25, 2020)

The Ministry of Health also has special calls for their followers, namely “Healthies” and “Minkes” as self-addressed terms, often used in the captions of educational messages. In their educational message posts, the official Ministry of Health account frequently employs specific hashtags such as #AntiHoaksKesehatan, #WaspadaCOVID19, #Waspadaviruscorona, and #updatecoronavirus. In general, educational messages are also accompanied by calls to cease the dissemination of

information from unclear sources, begin seeking information from reliable sources, the call to filter before sharing, and remain calm and vigilant. Educational messages to combat misinformation are often accompanied by health promotion messages to maintain hygiene by washing hands with soap and running water, seeking immediate medical attention at the nearest health facility if experiencing symptoms related to COVID-19 (fever, cough, shortness of breath), practicing cough/sneeze etiquette, and maintaining personal and environmental hygiene.

In addition to posters, the Ministry of Health also produces educational messages in comics. One of these comic-based educational message posts provides explanations and corrections regarding the issue of public rejection of burials for those who have died due to COVID-19. This comic portrays a dialogue between a mother and a young boy. The child mentions that some people heartlessly reject the burial of a nurse who died from COVID-19. However, healthcare workers have been serving on the frontline against COVID-19 in hospitals. The mother responds by explaining that the public is concerned about the possibility of transmission from the deceased. However, based on the story of his sibling, the deceased individuals have undergone body preparation protocols. The comic also depicts the child's frustration upon reading this information. The mother reaffirms that those who refuse the burials are individuals who should already have an understanding, and she encourages prayers for the health of healthcare workers. The mother concludes by humorously assuming that her child might be sad from watching a Korean drama.



Fig. 9.4 Example of educational messages on the Instagram account @kemenkes_ri. Source: Instagram account @kemenkes_ri (April 27, 2020)

In the caption accompanying the comic post, it is stated:

"The burial protocol for COVID-19 related deceased individuals has been established in accordance with the protocols of the Ministry of Religious Affairs and the fatwa from the Indonesian Ulema Council, Number 18 of 2020. They are our brothers and sisters. They are part of our family who have become victims of this disease. Some of them have even fallen while carrying out their duties. Let us honor them, there is no reason to refuse or fear." (Caption related to burial protocol for COVID-19, Instagram account @kemenkes_ri, 2020)

From the post, it can be observed that the Ministry of Health employs a touch of humor in the educational message, as illustrated by the end of the mother's dialogue, where she playfully assumes her child is sad from watching a Korean drama. Additionally, the caption accompanying the comic also includes supporting evidence in the form of regulations established by the Ministry of Religious Affairs, which serves as the authoritative source regarding the information. Comics can be one of the forms of educational messages that are easily received by the public because the characters and dialogues depicted are designed to be relatable to the audience, making them easy to understand. Comics are also conducive to analogy, making abstract topics more concrete and accessible to readers (Vraga et al., 2019).

Another regulation included in the educational messages on the official Instagram account of the Ministry of Health is the regulation regarding sanctions that can be imposed on hoax spreaders. This educational message emphasizes the sanctions that hoax spreaders can face, which are stipulated in Article 28, paragraph 1 of Law Number 11 of 2008 concerning Information and Electronic Transactions (ITE) regarding the dissemination of false news through media. In cases of violation of this article, offenders can be subject to a maximum prison sentence of 6 years and a fine of IDR 1 billion. Regulation can serve as one of the elements used to combat misinformation. According to Robinson et al., regulation by the authorities

has been identified as a promising strategy to combat the potential negative impacts of online misinformation (Sun *et al.*, 2020).

9.5.2 Educational Messages Addressing COVID-19 Misinformation as Presented by News Media Tirto.Id

News media organizations are one of the types of information sources that can also be considered in disseminating information during a public health crisis. Tirto.id is one of the news portals that actively produces educational content through the Instagram social media platform. Based on the data collection, a total of 23 posts were obtained from the Instagram account @tirtoid from March 12, 2021, to July 15, 2021.

The educational messages aimed at countering misinformation conveyed through the Instagram account @tirtoid cover various topics. These topics include education to prevent panic due to COVID-19, explanations regarding the claimed benefits of ginger concoctions, questioning the validity of health information, thermal guns, the consumption of lemon and turmeric combinations, the hoax about hospitals receiving money for COVID-19 deaths, clarifications about masks causing bad breath, claims of decreasing COVID-19 cases, incorrect vaccine information, anti-vaccine content, COVID-19 conspiracy theories, the "vaksin nusantara" controversy, claims of virus-killing and COVID-19 patient-curing remedies, misrepresentations of pandemic management in Indonesia showing improvement, fact-checking hotlines, explanations to address doubts about the effectiveness of the COVID-19 vaccine, and regulations regarding the dissemination of hoax news content.

All educational messages are presented in infographics using illustrations of various characters or figures, some of which are drawn from characters in popular cultural products like movies. Additionally, a significant portion of the infographics features distinctive "tirto" characters. The various characters displayed are often accompanied by dialogue with a humorous approach. Every infographic includes the source originating from a specific article on Tirto.id. Several educational messages also imply criticism of the government's response during the COVID-19 pandemic health crisis and contain subtle remarks directed



towards the government. As shown in the post with the following caption:

Fig. 9.5 Example of educational messages to prevent panic due to COVID-19 in the form of an infographic on the Instagram account @tirtoid. Source: Instagram account @tirtoid (March 12, 2020)

"Being cautious about COVID-19 is acceptable, but don't let panic take over. For now, instead of relying solely on the government, to alleviate concerns, we can gather information from reputable sources like WHO to stay composed in facing COVID-19. #infografik #viruscorona #kesehatan #COVID19" (Caption related to prevent panic due to COVID-19, Instagram account @tirtoid, 2020)

The caption in the post reflects a sarcastic remark towards the Indonesian government, which is not reliable according to the public's perception. In another post related to conspiracy theory proponents, it is evident that the educational messages conveyed by Tirto.id also criticize the government by stating, "When conspiracy theorists persist in their anti-COVID-19 and anti-vaccine stance, we continue to face the fate of the virus and the threat of death, amidst a crisis of trust in the government's incompetence in handling the pandemic for the past year and who knows how much longer." In addition to captions, the displayed infographics also contain criticisms towards the government by quoting the opinion of an epidemiologist, stating that "What the government is doing by highlighting recovery rates alone is a statistical bias." In the same infographic, it is mentioned that the data regarding Indonesia's death rate, which is still above the global average at 2.8%, is not presented. Instead, the recovery data is highlighted. However, that is not an indicator of epidemic control. This infographic also emphasizes criticism of the government with the sentence, "This government propaganda is dangerous for the public as the



public's perception of the danger of COVID-19 decreases and tends to trivialize it."

Fig. 9.6 Example of educational messages to correct recovery rates in the form of infographic on the Instagram account @tirtoid. Source: Instagram account @tirtoid (October 23, 2020)

Here is a post that corrects misinformation about the claim of ginger's benefits as a cure for COVID-19. In this post, the displayed dialogue



features popular humor in Indonesia that is relevant to the conveyed topic, for example, "thought it was meat but it turned out to be ginger."

Fig. 9.7 Example of educational messages to correct the claimed benefits of ginger concoctions as COVID-19 medication in the form of infographic on the Instagram account @tirtoid. Source: Instagram account @tirtoid (March 18, 2020)

"It's perfectly fine to consume ginger and similar herbs to boost your immune system. What's incorrect is considering them all as a cure for COVID-19. So, instead of arguing about the various benefits of ginger concoctions, it's better to wash your hands thoroughly with soap." (Caption related to correct the claimed benefits of ginger concoctions as COVID-19 medication, Instagram account @tirtoid, 2020)

In addition to being evident in the dialogues, humor is also demonstrated through the captions used, such as the caption in the post questioning the accuracy of health information and the caption related to correcting the hoax that hospitals receive money if a COVID-19 patient dies.



Fig. 9.8 Example of educational messages related to questioning the validity of health information in the form of infographic on the Instagram account @tirtoid. Source: Instagram account @tirtoid (March 22, 2020)

"Some are making things even more complicated amidst the current critical situation of the disease outbreak lately: hoaxes. They do this to prevent that, eat this to cure that, do this to ward off... oh dear, oh dear, stop! And, don't search for information about disease symptoms on the internet by yourself, okay?" (Caption related to questioning the validity of health information, Instagram account @tirtoid)

"The hoax that hospitals receive money if a COVID-19 patient dies is very dangerous. So, don't immediately believe what your friend's cousin's father's acquaintance said, who lives in Surabaya but is studying in Jakarta, okay~" (Caption related to the hoax that hospitals receive money if a COVID-19 patient dies, Instagram account @tirtoid)

In the caption above, it is illustrated humor is infused, for example, in the sentence "They do this to prevent that, eat this to cure that, do this to ward off," and "So, don't immediately believe what your friend's cousin's

father's acquaintance said, who lives in Surabaya but is studying in Jakarta."

In the infographic post, evidence is also employed to support the persuasive message through statistical data. As seen in the post questioning the validity of health information, the infographic presents statistical data indicating that health hoaxes in Indonesia constitute the highest proportion of dissemination, at 27%. Meanwhile, in another post discussing the decrease in COVID-19 positive cases, the infographic is supplemented



with statistical data showing the number of new confirmed positive cases on November 1, 2020, the number of tests conducted during the same period, and a comparison with the average daily testing volume in mid-October 2020. This statistical data aims to correct misinformation about the claim of decreased COVID-19-positive cases and provides a logical and rational explanation that this claim results from a decline in testing, significantly below the average capacity of the previous period.

Fig. 9.9 Example of educational messages related to the decrease in COVID-19 positive cases in the form of infographic on the Instagram account @tirtoid. Source: Instagram account @tirtoid (November 7, 2020)

For specific posts correcting circulating misinformation, tirtoid employs infographics titled "Faktanya" accompanied by the hashtag #BenarNggakSih. For instance, they posted educational messages regarding the harmlessness of thermal guns on the body and the unproven

effectiveness of consuming a combination of lemon and turmeric to prevent COVID-19. Moreover, corrections are also made to misinformation claiming that masks cause bad breath. These two posts are illustrated in the following images.



Fig 9.10 Example of educational messages infographics titled "Faktanya" on the Instagram account @tirtoid. Source: Instagram account @tirtoid (September 29, 2020, November 6, 2020)

Educational messages that correct various misinformation are further reinforced by including statements from expert sources. The educational message concerning the harmlessness of thermal guns on the body is supported by a statement from Dr. Achmad Yurianto (the Government



Spokesperson for COVID-19). Another message related to masks causing bad breath quotes Steven Barefoot, a Doctor of Dental Surgery from DentaQuest. In producing educational messages, Tirto.id also includes credible sources by citing international journals to enhance the quality of information intended to provide deeper explanations about conspiracy adherents. In another post discussing the dangers of anti-vaccine content, the infographic also includes information from the WHO (World Health Organization), which classifies vaccine hesitancy and refusal as one of the top 10 global health threats.

Fig. 9.11 Example of educational messages related to conspiracy adherents and the dangers of anti-vaccine content on the Instagram account @tirtoid. Source: Instagram account @tirtoid (February 6, 2021, July 15, 2021)

Many educational message topics produced by Tirto.id indicate a focus on correcting misinformation regarding claims of COVID-19 remedies or treatment methods, as well as providing further education on conspiracy theories and anti-vaccine groups. This demonstrates that during a pandemic or public health crisis, there is a proliferation of misinformation concerning treatment methods and content like anti-vaccine sentiments that can foster public skepticism. The dissemination of misinformation is reinforced by the presence of social media platforms that provide features facilitating the spread of misinformation. In the study by Oyeyemi et al., it was reported that a considerable quantity of retweets during the Ebola outbreak in West Africa contained misinformation regarding potential



cures for the disease (Meer & Jin, 2020).

Fig. 9.12 Example of educational messages infographics related to claims about COVID-19 drugs on the Instagram account @tirtoid. Source: Instagram account @tirtoid (August 20, 2020)

Educational messages is aimed at increasing awareness and knowledge about widespread misinformation. One of the educational messages addressing excessive claims about COVID-19 drugs also includes a message intended to educate followers to become critical consumers and not easily believe in claims of drugs that are said to cure COVID-19. This educational message is conveyed through a sentence in the infographic, which states, "As consumers, try to think critically and doubt claims about COVID-19 drugs, even if advertised by celebrities or public figures."

Another topic addressed through infographics is the hotline for fact-checking, with a call to action for followers to contribute by verifying the accuracy of information circulating, especially related to COVID-19. They are encouraged to forward suspicious information containing hoaxes, where reports are anonymous, and if deemed necessary, the information might be featured in the weekly "Periksa Fakta" (Fact Check) article. The post also mentions that Tirtoid is an independent third-party fact-checker collaborating with Facebook and has been verified by the International Fact-Checking Network (IFCN).

Furthermore, here is an example of the content from "Periksa Fakta" regarding the claim that COVID-19 vaccines are unable to combat thousands of COVID-19 virus mutations. In the Fact Check infographic, various claims about the message are shown, followed by the fact-checking results stating that the message is false and misleading. It is clarified that COVID-19 vaccines are not specific to one variant, and evidence from WHO is provided, indicating that the vaccines currently being developed



or approved are expected to offer protection against several new virus variants.

Fig. 9.13 Example of educational messages infographics Periksa Fakta on the Instagram account @tirtoid. Source: Instagram account @tirtoid (July 10, 2021)

Another topic disseminated through educational infographics is the regulation related to spreading hoaxes, referring to the Information and Electronic Transactions Law (ITE Law) Article 45A paragraph 1, which stipulates that spreading false information about COVID-19 will result in a fine of up to 1 billion rupiahs. This infographic is reinforced with



evidence in the form of statistical data, including the number of cases of submitting takedown requests for COVID-19 hoaxes on social media from January 23 to July 13, 2021. It also includes the number of reported hoax news cases categorized by social media platforms, namely Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, and Instagram. Furthermore, this infographic is supported by a statement from the Minister of Communication and Information Technology, Johnny G. Plate, who states that producing or disseminating hoaxes is an unlawful act that could potentially result in criminal penalties of 5-6 years of imprisonment and a fine of 1 billion rupiahs.

Fig. 9.14 Example of educational messages infographics related to regulation on the Instagram account @tirtoid. Source: Instagram account @tirtoid (July 15, 2021)

All educational message posts also consistently include hashtags, such as #infografik (#infographic), #hoaks (#hoax), #kesehatan (#health), #kabarbohong (#fakenews), #COVID19, #antivaxx, dan #konspirasi (#conspiracy).

9.5.3 Educational Message to Combat Covid-19 Misinformation by Pandemic Talks

One specific information platform regarding the COVID-19 pandemic, Pandemic Talks, utilizes Instagram through the account @pandemictalks as a channel to convey educational messages to combat misinformation. Based on the search results, 71 posts were obtained from the account @pandemictalks covering the period from July 20, 2020, to September 1, 2021. The educational messages conveyed through the Instagram account Pandemic Talks are predominantly presented in infographics. These messages cover various topics, including explanations about treatment/therapy methods, claims about new drugs for COVID-19, data on the percentage of Indonesians who believe in conspiracy theories based on survey results, information about cluster and mortality rates, claims about UV light products that can kill the SARS-CoV-2 virus, pros and cons of owning a Pulse Oximeter, logical fallacy, misunderstanding about COVID-19 mutations and variants, clarification about the long-term side effects of the COVID-19 vaccine, misconception about vitamin D protecting us from COVID-19, the importance of maintaining health protocols even after being vaccinated, explanation of why we have not been infected with COVID-19 yet, addressing the claim that steam therapy can prevent and kill the virus, and clarification that the virus cannot spread through inanimate objects like shopping items. Some topics are categorized under specific infographic headings such as Global COVID-19 Update, COVID-19 Knowledge, and COVID-19 Update.

Most educational messages aimed at correcting misinformation emphasize the importance of health protocols. In addition, several messages also highlight the need for a comprehensive understanding, rather than a partial one, that vaccination is just one of the efforts in controlling the pandemic. Pandemic Talks often bases its arguments on research findings to strengthen corrective messages against circulating misinformation. This can be seen in the following example caption.

"There is a circulating video and chain message on WhatsApp claiming that inhaling hot steam can prevent and treat the Coronavirus. In reality, there is no officially validated health research confirming that inhaling hot steam can kill the Coronavirus. Hot steam also cannot kill the virus that has already entered cells. Engaging in the practice of inhaling hot steam can actually lead to accidents and is dangerous, as it carries a high risk of causing burns, especially if practiced on children. Therefore, the video and message circulating through the chain message can be categorized as a HOAX." (Caption Instagram account @pandemictalks July 10, 2021)

Most infographics produced by Pandemic Talks provide detailed explanations to correct and educate their followers about misinformation. For example, infographics regarding treatment/therapy methods are frequently discussed, especially among scientists and researchers. The presented infographics encompass categories of therapy types that are routinely used and beneficial, promising (having undergone initial clinical trials), temporarily effective and requiring further study, and not beneficial (harmful). In this post, several treatment methods that fall into the category of pseudoscience and/or hoaxes are mentioned, such as detergents, UV radiation, orange peel, and turmeric extract. These detailed explanations encompass parallel arguments with a logic-based approach that presents data and facts as the foundation of information. Parallel argumentation offers an alternative method to disseminate logic-based interventions (Vraga et al., 2019).

An educational infographic to correct misinformation on this account consistently includes supporting evidence to make the conveyed accurate information more convincing than the falsehood. Commonly utilized evidence includes credible sources such as news media like Narasi, Kompas, Republika, CNN, New York Times, Wall Street Journal, BBC, The Conversation, research outcomes, and international journals, for instance, the American Journal of Emergency Medicine. Authoritative institutions like WHO, the Ministry of Health, and other credible scientific entities such as Johns Hopkins University are often used as references, which weaken the credibility of the false information. When presenting survey results, the infographic also provides the number of respondents and the margin of error, thus reinforcing the evidence presented to enhance the quality of the argumentation for accurate information used to counteract misinformation. Supported by research findings, a

straightforward communication approach is recommended for public health authorities when addressing new health concerns, involving apparent and evidence-backed efforts to counter false or deceptive health information while providing suitable sources for supporting counterarguments (Bode & Vraga, 2017).

One example of the following infographic aims to correct misinformation related to the use of a thermal gun. The infographic emphasizes that a thermal gun cannot detect COVID-19 and can only measure fever, citing a reputable health authority, WHO. The infographic concludes with a call to action urging individuals to promptly seek medical attention or visit a hospital if experiencing high fever for further diagnosis.



Fig. 9.15 Example of educational messages infographics related to thermo gun on the Instagram account @pandemictalks. Source: Instagram account @pandemictalks (October 6, 2020)

Another infographic contains educational content to raise awareness about pseudoscientific information. This infographic includes explanations about actual science and pseudoscience, how to differentiate between them, the characteristics of pseudoscientific information in Indonesia, and the dangers of pseudoscience. It concludes with a warning message to always fact-check COVID-19-related news before spreading it. The infographic ends with a humorous message reminding followers not to become "WhatsApp scholars" from the "University of YouTube." This infographic is accompanied by a caption that provides supporting evidence, including a quote from an expert's writing featured in *Republika* news media. Parallel arguments are also conducive to being delivered in

humorous form, and humor is known to produce unique benefits for science communication (Vraga et al., 2019).



Fig. 9.16 Example of educational messages infographics related to pseudoscience on the Instagram account @pandemictalks. Source: Instagram account @pandemictalks (October 14, 2020, May 1, 2021)

Humor is also evident in the following post, which appears to quote a statement from the fictional character Herdy Immunitiawan, Chairman of the Alliance of Doctors from the Atlantis Continent, mentioning that "Not all information on the Internet, even in English, is true."

@pandemictalks

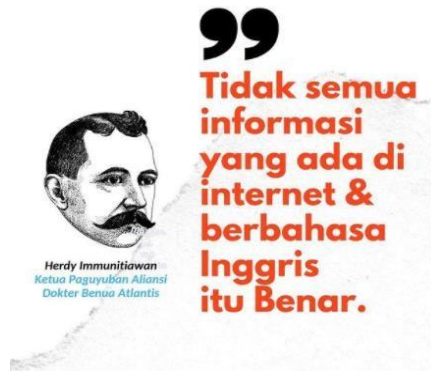


Fig. 9.17 Example of educational messages infographics on the Instagram account @pandemictalks. Source: Instagram account @pandemictalks (October 27, 2020)

Another educational message topic encourages followers not only to follow the Pandemic Talks social media account but also to follow the Kawal COVID-19 and Lapor COVID-19 accounts and actively share data, facts, and education from these credible sources to help hasten the end of the pandemic. Other posts also promote other channels that can be accessed to verify received news, such as the Antihoax Telegram Chat by @kemenkominfo @ditjenaptika.

In addition to infographics, Pandemic Talks also shares educational messages in the form of video podcasts featuring invited experts, including Dr. Pandu Riono, MPH., PhD, as well as Ahmad Rusjdan Handoyo Utomo, PhD, who share their perspectives on the phenomenon of new drug claims for COVID-19 by UNAIR, TNI-AD, and BIN from their scientific viewpoints. Video podcasts are also used to educate the public about vaccines as the primary tool to end the pandemic, featuring Biotechnology Expert Ines Atmosukarto. Another video podcast (episode 29) is used to correct misinformation regarding rumors about patients being "COVID-ed," which had even been legitimized by some officials, and episode 31

discusses the role of Pandemic Talks in filling the Information Gap during the pandemic.

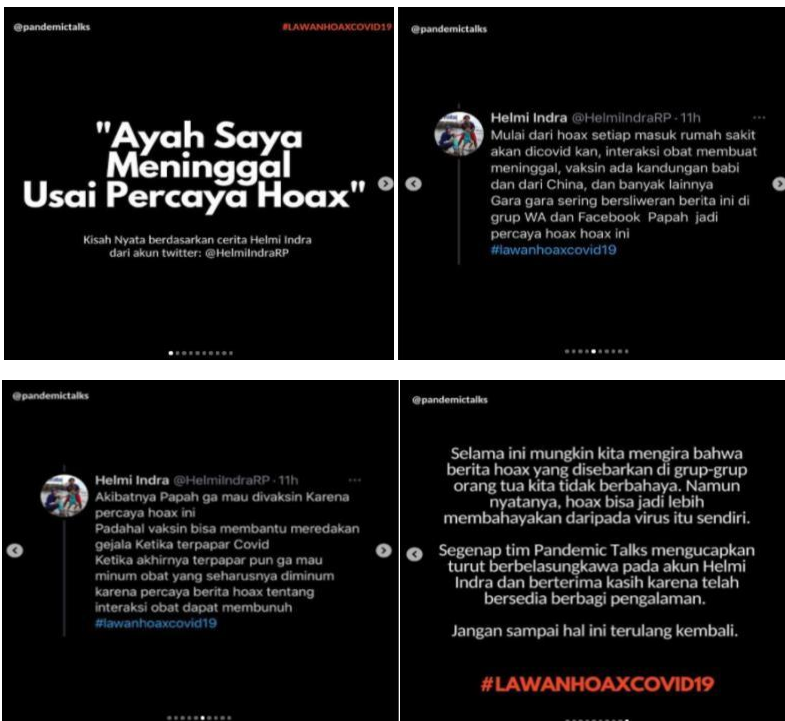
In general, Pandemic Talks' posts in the form of infographics consist of 1 to 10 slides. Pandemic Talks also frequently employs scientific and medical language or terminology, which is explained in educational messages, such as pseudoscience, logical fallacy, and the Swiss Cheese Model analogy. Furthermore, Pandemic Talks extensively uses popular terms commonly conveyed on social media, including trust issues, toxic positivity, and positive vibes. Additionally, several educational infographics produced by Pandemic Talks also employ a fear-based approach by conveying the message that hoaxes and conspiracies can lead to the deaths of others. This is seen in the following post, which emphasizes that participating in the dissemination of misinformation can result in death



during an outbreak.

Fig. 9.18 Example of educational messages infographics on the Instagram account @pandemictalks. Source: Instagram account @pandemictalks (October 27, 2020, June 20, 2021)

Another type of post utilized by Pandemic Talks takes the form of narratives. One story that contains educational content to combat misinformation is derived from a real-life account found on Twitter @HelmiIndraRP. Titled "My Father Died Believing Hoaxes," this message illustrates the story of a father who passed away due to COVID-19 with comorbid diabetes. The storyteller conveys that hoaxes played a significant role in causing the father to lose the battle against COVID-19. The father believed hoaxes that claimed entering a hospital would lead to being "COVID-ed," that interactions between medications would cause death, and that vaccines contained pork ingredients. As a result, the father refused vaccination, medication, and hospitalization. The story post concludes with a message emphasizing that while we often thought hoaxes were harmless, they can actually be more dangerous than the virus itself. Pandemic Talks then expresses condolences and gratitude for sharing the experience and message, urging that such incidents should never happen



again.

Fig. 9.19 Example of educational messages in the form of narrative on the Instagram account @pandemictalks. Source: Instagram account @pandemictalks (July 18, 2021)

Quoting Kim & Niederdeppe (2016), since a narrative's persuasive message is often implied through the events of the story rather than explicitly stated, it is less likely to be recognized as an attempt to persuade, reducing defensive reactions (Huang & Wang, 2020). In that narrative post, the story conveys the emotion of sorrow from losing a family member, followed by a concluding message that firmly underscores the dangers of misinformation. Narratives that incorporate emotional corrective conclusions are more effective in correcting attitudes compared to a straightforward corrective approach (Sangalang et al., 2019).



Fig. 9.20 Example of educational messages on the Instagram account @pandemictalks. Source: Instagram account @pandemictalks (April 15, 2021)

Pandemic Talks also employs analogies in its infographics. One example is seen in Figure 20, where the infographic features a dialogue that goes, "Makes sense, right? In that case, I won't wear a helmet tomorrow when riding a motorcycle, because the motorcycle already has brakes, doesn't it?" This dialogue analogizes health protocols with a helmet and vaccines with motorcycle brakes. Through this analogy, readers are expected to understand better that health protocols are still necessary even after being vaccinated, similar to how wearing a helmet is still necessary for a motorcycle rider even though the motorcycle has brakes.

9.6 Conclusion

The Ministry of Health, Tirto.id, and Pandemic Talks actively produce and share educational messages through their official Instagram accounts to counter COVID-19-related misinformation. These three sources of health information have similarities and differences in the educational messages they convey. Generally, the educational messages provided include direct explanations that counter misinformation through visual posters and infographics accompanied by captions. All three information sources consistently use evidence to support their arguments against misinformation, such as statistical data, expert opinions, and information from authoritative health institutions and relevant international journals. Alongside logic-based arguments, an emotional approach involving humor is also evident in the educational messages shared by these sources.

The Ministry of Health's educational messages correct and counter misinformation about organizations, including hoaxes about emails and extreme statements from the Health Ministry. Meanwhile, educational messages from Tirto.id and Pandemic Talks include criticism of the government. The Ministry of Health uses visual humor in the form of comics. Tirto.id highlights its distinctive visual character and incorporates humor dialogue in its infographics. Pandemic Talks covers various topics, utilizing various emotional approaches such as appealing to fear and narratives, explaining medical and scientific terms, using popular language closely related to the youth, and employing analogies in educational messages.

References

- Bernie, M. (2020) *Betapa Bahaya Hoaks RS Dapat Uang Jika Pasien Corona Meninggal*, Tirto.id. Available at: <https://tirto.id/betapa-bahaya-hoaks-rs-dapat-uang-jika-pasien-corona-meninggal-fSMr> (Accessed: 19 August 2023).

- Bode, L. and Vraga, E. K. (2017). See Something, Say Something: Correction of Global Health Misinformation on Social Media. *Health Communication*, pp. 1–10. doi: 10.1080/10410236.2017.1331312.
- Brennen, J. S., Simon, F. M., Howard, P. N., & Nielsen, R. K. (2020). Types, sources, and claims of COVID-19 misinformation. Reuters Institute for the Study of Journalism. <https://reutersinstitute.politics.ox.ac.uk/types-sources-and-claims-covid-19-misinformation>
- Chou, W. Y. S., Oh, A., & Klein, W. M. (2018). Addressing health-related misinformation on social media. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 320(23), 2417–2418. doi: 10.1001/jama.2018.16865.
- Coombs, W. T. 2014. State of crisis communication: Evidence and the bleeding edge. Institute of Public Relations, Retrieved from <http://www.instituteforpr.org/state-crisis-communication-evidence-bleeding-edge/>
- Dal Cin, S., Zanna, M., & Fong, G. (2004). Narrative persuasion and overcoming resistance. In E. Knowles & J. Linn (Eds.), *Resistance and persuasion* (pp. 175–191). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Del Vicario, M., Bessi, A., Zollo, F., Petroni, F., Scala, A., Caldarelli, G., Quattrociochi, W. (2016). The spreading of misinformation online. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 113, 554– 559. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1517441113
- Gabarron, E. and Wynn, R. (2016). Use of social media for sexual health promotion: a scoping review Use of social media for sexual health promotion: a scoping review. 9716. doi: 10.3402/gha.v9.32193.
- Gonçalves, G. (2020) Are hospitals our friends? An exploratory study on the role of Facebook in hospital organizations’ dialogic communication. *Health Marketing Quarterly*, 37(3), pp. 265–279. doi: 10.1080/07359683.2020.1805898.
- Hinyard, L. J., & Kreuter, M. W. (2007). Using narrative communication as a tool for health behavior change: A conceptual, theoretical, and empirical overview. *Health Education & Behavior*, 34, 777–792.

- Hornik, R. *et al.* (2021). Association of COVID-19 Misinformation with Face Mask Wearing and Social Distancing in a Nationally Representative US Sample Association of COVID-19 Misinformation with Face Mask Wearing and Social Distancing in a Nationally Representative US Sample. *Health Communication*, 36(1), pp. 6–14. doi: 10.1080/10410236.2020.1847437.
- Hsieh, H. F. and Shannon, S. E. (2005). Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative Health Research*, 15(9), pp. 1277–1288. doi: 10.1177/1049732305276687.
- Huang, Y. and Wang, W. (2020). When a story contradicts: correcting health misinformation on social media through different message formats and mechanisms. *Information Communication and Society*, 0(0), pp. 1–18. doi: 10.1080/1369118X.2020.1851390.
- Irfani, F. (2021) *Menyelami Isi Pikiran Penganut Konspirasi Anti- COVID & Anti-Vaksin, Tirto.id*. Available at: <https://tirto.id/menyelami-isi-pikiran-penganut-konspirasi-anti-covid-anti-vaksin-gapS> (Accessed: 19 August 2023).
- Jang, K., & Paek, Y. M. (2019). When information from public health officials is untrustworthy: The use of online news, interpersonal networks, and social media during the MERS outbreak in South Korea. *Health Communication*, 34(9), 991–998. doi: 10.1080/10410236.2018.1449552.
- Jain, P., Zaher, Z., & Mazid, I. (2020). Opioids on Twitter: A Content Analysis of Conversations Regarding Prescription Drugs on Social Media and Implications for Message Design. *Journal of Health Communication*, 25(1), pp. 74–81. doi: 10.1080/10810730.2019.1707911.
- Kim, H. K., & Niederdeppe, J. (2016). Effects of self-affirmation, narratives, and informational messages in reducing unrealistic optimism about alcohol-related problems among college students. *Human Communication Research*, 42(2), 246–268. doi: 10.1111/hcre.12073.

- Knoll, J. (2016). Advertising in social media: A review of empirical evidence. *International Journal of Advertising*, 35(2), pp. 266–300. doi: 10.1080/02650487.2015.1021898.
- Lazer, D., Baum, M., Grinberg, N., Friedland, L., Joseph, K., Hobbs, W., & Mattsson, CA.2017. Combating fake news: An agenda for research and action. In Combating fake news conference. Harvard University.
- Lefebvre, R. C. (2013). *Social Marketing and Social Change Strategies and Tools for Improving Health, Well-Being, and the Environment*. First. San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Meer, T. G. L. A. Van Der & Jin, Y. (2020). Seeking Formula for Misinformation Treatment in Public Health Crises: The Effects of Corrective Information Type and Source Seeking Formula for Misinformation Treatment in Public Health Crises: The Effects of. *Health Communication*, 35(5), pp. 560–575. doi: 10.1080/10410236.2019.1573295.
- Mims, C. A. (2017, October 22). How facebook’s master algorithm powers the social network; The algorithm behind Facebook’s News Feed, a “modular layered cake,” extracts meaning from every post and photo. Wall Street Journal. <https://www.wsj.com/articles/how-facebooks-masteralgorithm-powers-the-social-network-1508673600>
- Nyhan, B., & Reifler, J. (2010). When corrections fail: The persistence of political misperceptions. *Political Behavior*, 32, 303-330. doi: 10.1007/s11109-010-9112-2
- Oh, S., Lee, S. Y. & Han, C. (2020). The Effects of Social Media Use on Preventive Behaviors during Infectious Disease Outbreaks: The Mediating Role of Self-relevant Emotions and Public Risk Perception The Effects of Social Media Use on Preventive Behaviors during Infectious Disease Outbreak. *Health Communication*, 00(00), pp. 1–10. doi:10.1080/10410236.2020.1724639.
- Pariser, E. (2011). *The filter bubble: how the new personalized web is changing what we read and how we think*. Penguin.
- Perloff, R. M. (2017). *The Dynamics of Persuasion Communication and Attitudes in the 21st Century*. 6th ed.

- Putri, A. W. (2019) *Hoaks Kesehatan Bikin Penyakit Semakin Runyam*, *Tirto.id*. Available at: <https://tirto.id/hoaks-kesehatan-bikin-penyakit-semakin-runyam-edLY> (Accessed: 19 August 2023).
- Rhodes, S. C. (2022). Filter Bubbles, Echo Chambers, and Fake News: How Social Media Conditions Individuals to Be Less Critical of Political Misinformation. *Political Communication*, 39(1), pp. 1–22. doi: 10.1080/10584609.2021.1910887.
- Richter, J. P., Muhlestein, D. B., & Wilks, C. A. (2014). Social media: How hospitals use it, and opportunities for future use. *Journal of Healthcare Management/American College of Healthcare Executives*, 59(6), 447–460.
- Sangalang, A., Ophir, Y. & Cappella, J. N. (2019). The potential for narrative correctives to combat misinformation. *Journal of Communication*, 69(3), pp. 298–319. doi: 10.1093/joc/jqz014.
- Sharma, K., Seo, S., Meng, C., Rambhatla, S., & Liu, Y. (2020). COVID-19 on social media: analyzing misinformation in twitter conversations- [Preprint]. arXiv. <http://arxiv.org/abs/2003.12309>
- Slater, M. D., & Rouner, D. (2002). Entertainment-education and elaboration likelihood: Understanding the processing of narrative persuasion. *Communication Theory*, 12(2), 173– 191. doi: 10.1093/ct/12.2.173.
- Southwell, B. G., Dolina, S., Jimenez-Magdaleno, K., Squiers, L. B., & Kelly, B. J. (2016). Zika virus–Related news coverage and online behavior, United States, Guatemala, and Brazil. *Emerging Infectious Diseases*, 22, 1320–1321. doi:10.3201/eid2207.160415.
- Sun, Y. *et al.* (2020) The Battle is On: Factors that Motivate People to Combat Anti-Vaccine Misinformation. *Health Communication*, 00(00), pp. 1–10. doi: 10.1080/10410236.2020.1838108.
- Tan, A. S., Lee, C. J., & Chae, J. (2015). Exposure to health (mis) information: Lagged effects on young adults’ health behaviors and potential pathways. *Journal of Communication*, 65, 674–698. doi:10.1080/10410236.2017.1331312.

- Tully, M., Bode, L. & Vraga, E. K. (2020). Mobilizing Users: Does Exposure to Misinformation and Its Correction Affect Users' Responses to a Health Misinformation Post?. *Social Media and Society*, 6(4). doi: 10.1177/2056305120978377.
- Vijaykumar, S., Jin, Y., & Nowak, G. (2015). Social media and the virality of risk: The risk amplification through media spread (RAMS) model. *Journal of Homeland Security and Emergency Management*, 12(3), 653–677. doi:10.1515/jhsem-2014-0072.
- Vosoughi, S., Roy, D., & Aral, S. (2018). The spread of true and false news online. *Science*, 359(6380), 1146–1151. doi: 10.1126/science.aap9559.
- Vraga, E. K. and Bode, L. (2017). Using Expert Sources to Correct Health Misinformation in Social Media. *Science Communication*, 39(5), pp. 621–645. doi: 10.1177/1075547017731776.
- Vraga, E. K., Bode, L., & Tully, M. (2020). Creating News Literacy Messages to Enhance Expert Corrections of Misinformation on Twitter. *Communication Research*, 1–23. doi: 10.1177/0093650219898094.
- Vraga, E. K., Kim, S. C. and Cook, J. (2019). Testing Logic-based and Humor-based Corrections for Science, Health, and Political Misinformation on Social Media. *Journal of Broadcasting and Electronic Media*, 63(3), pp. 393–414. doi: 10.1080/08838151.2019.1653102.
- Walter, N. *et al.* (2020). Evaluating the Impact of Attempts to Correct Health Misinformation on Social Media: A Meta-Analysis Evaluating the Impact of Attempts to Correct Health Misinformation on Social Media. *Health Communication*, 00(00), pp. 1–9. doi: 10.1080/10410236.2020.1794553.
- Walter, N. & Murphy, S. T. (2018). How to unring the bell: A meta-analytic approach to correction of misinformation. *Communication Monographs*, 85(3), pp. 423–441. doi: 10.1080/03637751.2018.1467564.

Designing Risk Communication Strategy on Social Media for Disaster Risk Reduction in Community Based Tourism

10

Dian Tamitiadini

Abstract

This chapter delves into risk communication within the tourism sector. Indonesia boasts many tourist attractions known for their natural beauty, historical significance, and rich culture. Promoting community engagement in tourism planning is advocated as a means of fostering sustainable tourism. However, besides its diverse tourism potential, Indonesia is prone to various types of disasters in different regions. Climate change, floods, droughts, landslides, volcanic eruptions, tsunamis, and earthquakes are recurring disasters frequently associated with tourist attractions and areas. This chapter underscores the role of communication science in addressing disaster management issues in East Java, Indonesia. Situated in a high-risk disaster area, Indonesia places a strong emphasis on disaster risk reduction management. Disaster management programs have become a top priority in the National Medium-Term Development Plan (RPJMN) for 2010-2014. While the Indonesian government has made efforts to establish effective communication methods with local communities in disaster-prone areas, public participation and awareness of disaster risk still fall short of expectations. Furthermore, most basic information does not adequately prepare local communities for disaster risks. Social media is considered an alternative tool to enhance risk communication. With the proliferation of social media platforms such as blogs, Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and YouTube, users remain continually connected and engaged with each other. They share ideas, files, and risk-related messages in real time, allowing them to bypass institutional control of information. Kaplan and Haenlein (2010) defined social media as "a group of Internet-based applications" characterized by two key features: firstly, they build upon "the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0," permitting ongoing content modification and collaborative contributions from all users. Secondly, social media platforms "facilitate the creation and exchange of user-generated content," resulting in increased interactivity and the democratization of information.

Keywords

Community based tourism · Community resilience · Risk communication

D. Tamitiadini

Department of Communication Science, Faculty of Social and Political Science, Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

just forms of tourism (Benjamin et al., 2020). Since the COVID-19 outbreak has gradually faded, many people are visiting Malang, one of Indonesia's most popular tourist destinations. Tourists come not only from the Malang area but also from all around Indonesia and the world. Malang has many tourist attractions, including natural, religious, and man-made sites. However, in its early stages, not all managers are aware of the hazard risks posed by climate change, such as floods, landslides, and storms. Unfortunately, visitors and tourists who are more enthusiastic following the COVID-19 pandemic are unaware of this.

The community has a crucial role in creating public awareness about risks. This section will highlight Community-based tourism practices in Malang Tourism. Community-based tourism (CBT) is a tourist activity that strives to enable communities to promote tourism while also achieving community welfare, encompassing economic, social, and environmental sustainability. According to this definition, CBT is a tourist activity that is owned and managed by the community and has an impact on the welfare of the community by providing sustainable livelihoods and safeguarding valuable natural and cultural treasures, as well as socio-cultural traditions. As a result, CBT entails not only commercial relationships but also the assistance of the tourism community. Furthermore, according to Hausler in Wiwin (2018), there are three main elements of CBT, namely the involvement of local communities in managing and growing tourism, the equitable distribution of economic aspects to all levels of society, and the political empowerment of local communities to enact specific policies. The CBT approach benefits not just the tourism industry but also the welfare of local populations.

During a period characterized by reduced global tourist mobility, experts contend that the present moment presents an opportunity to enhance the tourism industry, aiming for a more sustainable and

responsible approach that minimizes adverse impacts on local communities and ecosystems. In order to enhance the sustainability and responsibility of the tourism business, it is imperative to bolster its resilience concurrently. According to Espiner, Orchiston, and Higham (2017), it is essential to note that resilience and sustainability are distinct concepts.

This section examines risk communication in the tourism industry. When conveying messages about imminent severe weather or disasters, which are on the rise due to climate change and sea level rise, tourism organizations must communicate with various stakeholders. There is also a growing need to inform tourism stakeholders about how to prepare for, maintain service during, and recover from disasters. Tourism industry stakeholders include business owners, government officials, and vacationers, all vulnerable to varying degrees in a destination when a threat occurs. Different messages regarding disaster preparation and recovery must be conveyed to the various constituents. Industry associations or convention and visitors bureaus are frequently responsible for this task. This chapter offers a summary of prior research on risk communication.

Risk communication refers to exchanging information about the risks caused by environmental, industrial, or agricultural processes, policies, or products among individuals, groups, and institutions (Glik DC, 2017). A number of the critical features of effective risk communications are embedded in this definition, such as risk communication, a dynamic and interactive process involving exchanges between different groups of key players and audiences. The principle of involving the public in matters of risk, whether it is risk assessment, decision-making, management, or communication, marks one of the crucial distinctions of risk communication in theory and practice (Covello & Sandman, 2001).

Risk communication is based on ongoing projections of the potential for future harm; crisis communication, by contrast, is a spontaneous and reactive process, often occurring in emergencies (Mileti, 1991). Risk messages emerge long before a crisis occurs and aim to reduce the likelihood of a crisis occurring in the long term (Sellnow et al., 2009). According to (Covello & Sandman, 2001), industries and governments historically ignored the public in matters of risk and crisis rather than involve it.

As risk communication emerged as a body of theory and practice, the public has played an essential role in managing risk. Today, there appears to be a broad acceptance that effective and responsible risk communication involves all interested parties, including the public. Effective communication must consider how various actors perceive risk, influenced by social and cultural factors, rather than just focusing on scientific knowledge only (e.g., Adam & Van Loon, 2007; Fischhoff, 2011;133). Community resilience will be the best result of effective risk communication in mitigating disaster.

Grabill and Simmons (1998) called the predominant linear risk communication models "the technocratic approach," which views risk communication as a one-way, linear process with scientists and experts functioning as knowledge producers offering risk analyses and the public as consumers of such knowledge. In Risk communication, social media will be beneficial to catch up with the public, understand the audience, and build awareness of disaster preparedness.

10.2 Community-Based Tourism Practices

Community-based tourism (CBT) is a variant of tourism that facilitates the empowerment and involvement of local communities in the management and advancement of tourism activities. In addition to the direct beneficiaries who are engaged in tourism enterprises, CBT also extends its advantages to communities that are not directly involved in the tourism sector. Community-based tourism is an approach to tourism development that prioritizes the involvement of local communities, regardless of their direct involvement in the tourism industry. This involvement takes the form of providing opportunities for participation in tourism management and development, ultimately leading to political empowerment and a more democratic way of life. Additionally, this approach aims to ensure that the benefits derived from tourism activities are distributed more equitably among local communities.

According to Beeton (2006), community-based tourism is a concept that seeks to establish a sustainable tourism sector by prioritizing the involvement of local communities in the planning and development

processes. According to Pongponrat and Pongquan (2007), community-based tourism emerged as a model to empower local communities to achieve self-sufficiency. This approach involves community participation in decision-making processes, upholding community rights and responsibilities, and facilitating the enhancement of community income and living standards through methods specific to each community.

In Malang, Indonesia, CBT is mostly run in rural areas. The object is close to natural and cultural tourism, for example, "*Wisata Petik Jeruk Bedengan*," "*Wisata Petik Apel*," "*Kampoeng Heritage Kajoetangan*," and "*Kampoeng Warna-Warni*." All the areas offer outdoor interaction between humans and nature. They also firmly deal with various risks, such as disaster and climate change, which may affect their business situation. The tourist attraction is managed by *Pokdarwis* (*Kelompok Sadar wisata*, or community with tourism awareness) with various backgrounds. It leads to different perspectives of risks they might perceive.

The concept of community-based tourism forced *Pokdarwis* to revolve around crucial considerations such as ownership, management, control, and evaluation of tourism activities. Communities through *Pokdarwis* as the owners take a significant role as the actors to derive benefits through the inclusion of expenditures made by non-local people, in addition to those made within the local economy. CBT is founded on the notion of sustainable development since it encourages community engagement in order to achieve more equitable and comprehensive development (Stone & Stone, 2020).

Being resilient in social welfare is the primary goal of running CBT. By focusing on local (rural, native, etc.) cultures, *Pokdarwis* assures that communities may be seen strategically as a means of enhancing the resilience of social and ecological systems, thereby contributing to sustainable development (Usmonova et al., 2022).

10.3 Social Media and Society

A social media platform refers to an internet-based medium that individuals utilize to establish and cultivate social networks or relationships with others who possess comparable personal or professional

interests, engage in similar activities, have similar backgrounds, or have real-life connections. The influence of social networks on adolescents is substantial. There is a growing recognition that social networks have become an integral aspect of individuals' daily existence. Many adolescents are utilizing laptops, tablet computers, and smartphones to access and monitor social media platforms for updates posted by their acquaintances and relatives. In CBT areas, most of the locals are high users of social media. Dominated by Gen Y, the communication process in information transmission is very dynamic. Technological advancements have become a critical need to develop effective communication platforms that facilitate interpersonal interactions and provide individuals with the means to reconnect with locals and visitors.

The proliferation of technological advancements has exerted a significant influence on individuals, compelling them to embrace diverse lifestyles. Social networking platforms have the potential to enhance the social competence of young individuals. Social media can be defined as an internet-based platform that facilitates the exchange of information and communication through various digital means. Social media platforms facilitate user engagement through the exchange of ideas, dissemination of information, and generation of digital content.

Social media encompasses a variety of platforms, including but not limited to blogs, micro-blogs, wikis, social networking sites, photo-sharing sites, instant messaging, video-sharing sites, podcasts, widgets, virtual worlds, and other similar mediums. Many individuals globally utilize social media platforms to disseminate information and establish social relationships (Akram & Kumar, 2017).

It is widely acknowledged that social media has had a significant influence on our culture. Specific social media platforms have revolutionized how users communicate and interact online. Communication platforms between individuals provide the opportunity for individuals to reconnect with their former acquaintances, colleagues, and companions. It motivates individuals to establish new social connections, share content, and exchange various forms of media such as images, audio, and videos. The advent of web-based social networking has significantly impacted the societal lifestyle.

Connectivity is regarded as the primary advantage of social media. Individuals from diverse geographical locations can establish connections

with individuals worldwide. Irrespective of the geographical context and religious affiliation. The appeal of social media lies in its aesthetic qualities since it allows individuals to curate and present content that is visually pleasing. Akram and Kumar (2017) explain several impacts social media has had on our daily lives.

- *Education*: Social networking platforms offer a multitude of advantages for both students and teachers. Acquiring knowledge using social media platforms is facilitated by the accessibility of expert and professional individuals, rendering the education process somewhat effortless. Individuals have the opportunity to engage in the act of following others in order to acquire knowledge and expand their understanding in various domains. Irrespective of one's geographical location and educational background, it is possible to acquire knowledge and skills through self-education without incurring any financial costs.
- *Help*: Assistance can be sought from the community to share one's concerns and receive support and encouragement. Irrespective of whether assistance is provided in the form of financial support or guidance, individuals can obtain it through the collective with which they are affiliated.
- *Information and updates*: both are crucial components in the dissemination of knowledge and the maintenance of current understanding. The principal advantage of online networking platforms is staying informed about global events and updates. In contemporary times, it is frequently observed that both television and print media tend to exhibit a biased perspective, failing to convey the authentic message effectively. According to the second source, by utilizing online social networking platforms, individuals can acquire accurate information and factual facts by conducting thorough research.
- *Advertising*: enables us to effectively reach a wide range of potential customers, thereby maximizing the exposure of our firm. The global landscape presents many opportunities for individuals to engage in promotional activities on a worldwide scale. This will contribute to the enhancement of profitability and the attainment of business objectives.
- *Noble Cause*: Social media platforms can also serve as a means to promote and support good causes. Social media platforms are

increasingly being utilized by the general public as a means of contributing to individuals in need, hence serving as an expedient avenue for assisting such individuals.

- Assisting in the Development of Communities Given the diversity of religious views and practices in our global society, individuals from various communities have the opportunity to engage in meaningful discussions and exchange relevant information pertaining to their own faiths.

The growing prevalence of social media platforms such as Twitter, Facebook, and LinkedIn have garnered significant interest as the preferred means of communication for bloggers, article writers, and content providers. These long-range informal communication destinations have provided bloggers with the opportunity to connect with their tech-savvy users. By sharing their expertise and articles, bloggers can encourage their viewers to share their content within their social circles, thereby expanding their network of followers. Both students and experts possess the necessary competence to engage in the sharing and exchange of information within their respective communities. They can seek feedback and opinions from those who share similar interests and expertise, hence facilitating a collaborative and knowledge-driven environment.

Social media platforms facilitate the opportunity to connect with individuals whom one may not have had the chance to encounter in offline settings. Social media platforms facilitate the dissemination of ideas beyond geographical borders. The platform offers an inclusive opportunity for writers and bloggers to establish connections with their clientele. It serves as a means of bringing individuals together on a large scale, to collectively attain specified objectives. This phenomenon contributes to beneficial transformations within the community.

10.4 Risks Communication Strategy

At this time, all levels of society require information on the hazards of emerging and developing problems. Risk communication is "the process

of exchanging information between stakeholders about the nature, magnitude, significance, or control of risk." Risk communication activities are organized and coordinated due to a public right-to-know mechanism that mandates organizations or institutions to tell the public about the potential repercussions of their existence (Palenchar, 2008). When communicators participate in public communication activities, the public becomes more engaged with the communication process, making it more effective, with initial questions focused on creating messages developing into questions about how the audience processes and acts on these messages and opportunities to produce risk communication research. Tamitiadini and Pradheksa (2022) explain the steps in designing effective risk communication strategies consist of 1) situation analysis, 2) communication objective analysis, 3) communicator analysis, 4) target audience analysis, 5) developing risk messages, and 6) developing media.

10.4.1 Situation Analysis

In the context of situation analysis, the risk manager may choose to create a risk mapping, which is also sometimes referred to as storyboarding. Storyboarding is one method that has been used to organize the content that will be presented in a communication product. In the process of developing overall risk issues as part of an effort to design a risk communication program, this strategy is in dire need of being implemented immediately.

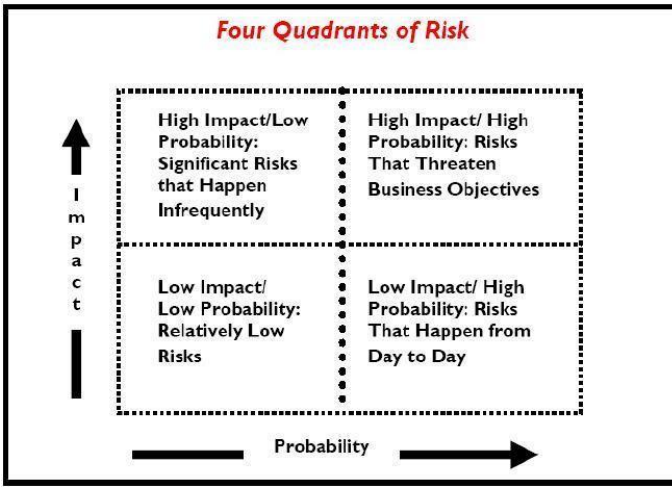


Fig. 10.1 Risk Mapping Quadrant. Source: Graham (2008)

Several standards have been devised to describe the extent to which particular dangers may cause varying degrees of harm. Figure 10.1 is one of the risk mapping models that makes it easy to perform the potential harm in the CBT context. According to the Risk Mapping Quadrant, most CBTs face several problems, such as global warming (climate change) and garbage issues (Figure 10.2).

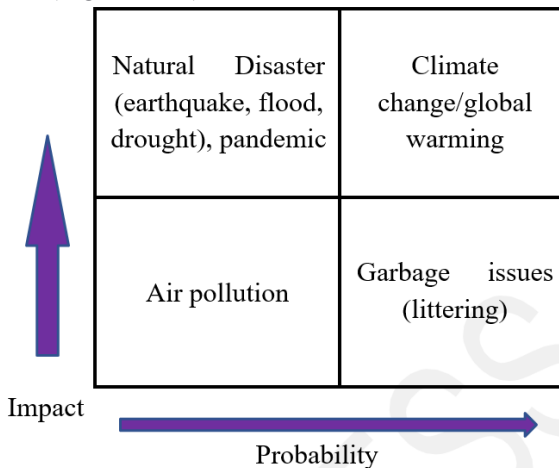


Fig. 10.2 CBT Risk Mapping. Source: Research Interview (2023)

One of the most common situations, for example, in tourist areas, is determining the influence of motorized vehicle density on pollution levels or air quality. Another technique to analyze risk is to base the comparison on the characteristics of distinct audience segments. In situational analysis, age groups, geographic areas, or lifestyles can be utilized as a reference for risk classification (Lundgren & McMakin, 2018). This stage allows for the customization of risk for each audience member.

Most of Community-Based Tourism (CBT) initiatives in Malang are led by individuals from Generation Y (Gen Y) or the Millennial generation, typically ranging in age from 25 to 40 years old. Lower-risk audiences tend to perceive risk messages as sources of entertainment or distraction, while higher-risk audiences may be more inclined to seek out solutions to mitigate those risks. Gen Y is regarded as a high-risk audience, and this is closely followed by Gen X, consisting of individuals aged 43 to 58 years old. Both generations play distinct but equally vital roles in managing communication within CBT. Its greater activity and extensive outreach characterize Gen Y, while Gen X is primarily engaged in making decisions regarding internal communication within the CBT framework.

10.4.2 Communication Objectives Analysis

In order to achieve success in risk communication, it is imperative to enhance efforts in comprehending the audience and tailoring communications to cater to their specific needs. Prior to commencing the communication process, it is imperative for the communicator to cultivate a comprehension of the underlying motivations, objectives, and intended outcomes of the communication endeavor. This entails discerning the purpose and desired achievements of the planned effort, as well as considering the frequency and content of the message.

One approach to comprehending the intention and objective of the communication endeavor is to analyze the desired actions that the communicator aims to elicit from the audience via the design of risk messages. In the context of risk communication, it is imperative to take into account two key variables: the underlying aim of the risk communication and the desired outcomes sought from the risk communication process. According to Morgan et al. (2002) from Carnegie

Mellon University of Pennsylvania, the authors analyze the different aims of communication efforts as seen by the audience.

Initially, the audience seeks guidance and solutions. Providing comprehensive and intricate information is of utmost importance for individuals who lack the resources and capacity to acquire knowledge within a limited timeframe independently. In this context, it is imperative to provide the audience with explicit guidelines on their course of action, which should align with their respective social dynamics and communities. Additionally, it is crucial to elucidate how individuals can cultivate their own preferred information sources. In the given context, the audience trusts the communicator, perceived as a reliable authority responsible for disseminating the most comprehensive technical expertise accessible without including subjective preferences or individual inclinations. When crafting communications for intended recipients, communicators must ensure that the information provided is comprehensive and encompasses significant particulars.

Furthermore, in the CBT context, individuals within a social group seek information to facilitate autonomous decision-making processes. Individuals desire autonomy in decision-making and seek guidance from technical specialists to access the necessary knowledge for evaluating decisions within their unique values and circumstances. In this scenario, the communicator should initially assess the decision-making process of the audience members, taking into account their stated or implied decision-making needs. Subsequently, the communicator should employ a deductive approach to ascertain the most pertinent information to facilitate the decision-making process. Frequently, these scenarios encompass concise pieces of data, such as bullet points, which serve to outline the circumstance at hand succinctly.

10.4.3 Communicator Analysis

The success or failure of every risk communication process is inextricably tied to how the audience perceives the communicator. From both practical and academic perspectives, the trust and trustworthiness of the communicator are of paramount importance. Effective communication hinges on understanding how messages resonate with both the overall audience and individual audience members. In the context of Community-

Based Tourism (CBT), communicators can be analyzed from the perspectives of two generations. Gen X, with a greater understanding of risk, should be considered potential communicators according to the risk mapping (Graphic 2). In Eastern cultures, respecting elder behavior remains a strong societal norm. Conversely, for Gen Z, risk communication should emphasize interactivity. The networking strength of Gen Z can be harnessed for disseminating information and facilitating the flow of technical information to meet the audience's needs.

In risk communication, communicators should create communication materials that serve as references for information seekers. Establishing partnerships with local government and regional disaster managers is crucial for enhancing the dissemination of scientific information about disaster risk around tourist attractions. Additionally, expanding partnerships with tourism content creators should be explored, particularly if CBT managers or *Pokdarwis* aim to maximize message outreach.

10.4.4 Target Audience Analysis

Audience analysis is the process of understanding the characteristics and needs of the intended audience. In the context of risk communication for CBT, this crucial step is often overlooked. In nearly every instance where risk communication efforts falter, the root cause can be traced back to insufficient or nonexistent audience analysis. To establish an efficient communication process, we must first comprehend the people we are communicating.

When it comes to gaining an awareness of the audience in CBT, communicators must take into account the goals and objectives of risk communication. Typically, someone within *Pokdarwis* communicates intending to raise awareness and influence behavior. The target behaviors encompass groups of employees, specific community subsets (such as religious groups, youth, etc.), and the entire CBT community. In cases where risk communication aims to secure agreements on risk assessment or management, it is essential to identify who should be part of that agreement. When dealing with crisis or risk communications pertaining to imminent threats, the primary objective is to alert the audience and propose strategies to mitigate the risks.

After reviewing the goals and objectives of risk communication, there may still be limited knowledge about the audience. The quantity of background knowledge required by the audience depends on what is stated and what needs to be achieved. Generally, more information is preferable to less. In raising risk awareness, communicators often need only a few key pieces of information, such as the audience's level of knowledge and their communication preferences. Assessing the audience's level of knowledge regarding risk in CBT livelihood should take into account their everyday experiences in responding to potential issues, not just their formal education. It encompasses the knowledge gained from interactions with family and experiences within their environment.

Conversely, to inspire changes in audience behavior, communicators require a more detailed psychological profile of the audience. This includes understanding why individuals engage in specific behaviors, their thoughts on risk, and the motivators that can drive them to change. For instance, in mitigating the impact of waste, communicators should engage households to support zero-waste or recycling initiatives. In other cases, communicators should investigate the relationship between communities and the elements of CBT. According to Lundgren and McMakin (2018), three distinct approaches can be taken when conducting audience analysis:

- *Baseline audience analysis*, taking into account information that is primarily relevant to the audience's capacity to comprehend the message being presented, such as the audience's reading ability, preferred style of communication, and level of animosity. Any effort to communicate risks should involve, at the very least, an audience analysis of the most fundamental kind. On the other hand, for communications during a crisis, this can be the only level required. For baseline audience analysis, the researcher or risk manager may classify the audience group according to the communication objectives and expected outcome. In Malang, Pokdarwis are classified as the leading actors in promoting any risk messages to the internal and external public. Since the communication objective is to enhance people's knowledge about the disaster risk and its impact, Pokdarwis could map the audience characteristics deeper to midline audience analysis.

-
- *Midline audience analysis*, which includes not only the fundamental information but also information on the socioeconomic position and occupation, demographic information such as age and gender, and information on cultural aspects of the audience. In most cases, audience analysis at this level is adequate to bring an increased awareness of dangers to the general population. Implementing midline audience analysis is similar to conducting demographic research. Most of the Pokdarwis members in CBT do not come from a tourism background. They formerly worked as farmers, artists, teachers, and housewives. Coming from medium-low income families, they put high expectations on CBT. Unfortunately, not all of them had proper training to catch up with the tourism business. In Midline audience analysis, the researcher or risk manager should classify the habit of the local community, their culture, and how they use communication mediums. In Malang, most Pokdarwis members and local communities speak Jawa-Malangan (traditional language). The local language plays a significant role in communicating risk. Language develops proximity between communicators and audiences, especially for delivering messages. Using the spirit "gotong-royong," our cultural value helps to transmit the meaning of risk based on personal and community experiences.
 - *Comprehensive audience analysis*, encompassing information at the basic and intermediate levels as well as psychological elements such as mental models of motivation and risk. When trying to reach a consensus through communication with the end objective of changing behavior, comprehensive audience analysis is typically required. Closer to reach communication goals, a comprehensive audience can be used in message design. In this analysis stage, most of Pokdarwis in CBT show their motivation to change audience behavior, starting from their internal group. Their primary motivation is to minimize the impact of risk in the future so it will not affect their business as much. They realize that their experience matter. However, they also do not feel confident in explaining science (of risk) without a significant background. Communicating citizen science will become a prospecting goal after exploring comprehensive audience analysis.

The key to developing a strategy is concentrating on the demands of various audience segments. A situational evaluation is another method for planning for audience demands. According to researchers David Dozier, James, and Larissa Grunig, who study excellence in public relations and communication organizations (Dozier et al., 1995), audiences in the CBT context can be divided into the following groups (adapted for use in risk communication) based on their risk situation and the organization's risk communication:

- *Nonpublic*: the audience not touched by the risk or the entity that conveys the risk (audiences or followers from social media).
- The latent public is affected by the risk but is unaware of it (local communities who live around the tourist attraction but have not participated in CBT).
- *Risk-aware public*: The audience is influenced by risks and knowledge of risk realities (local communities who live around the tourist attraction and recognize the pros and cons of being part of CBT).
- *Active public*: The audience is prepared to take action in response to the risk (communities who live around the tourist attraction and recognize the pros and cons of being part of CBT, and also advocate other locals and visitor to respond to the potential event in the future).

The types of information and communication systems used by each group may differ. Using this audience-focused strategy illustrates risk communication efforts to guarantee that all audience segments are considered in the communication process's implementation.

10.4.5 Developing Risk Messages

Three fundamental ideas play an essential role in the formation of any communication. The first topic that will be covered in this lesson is the constraints that messages have, both from the point of view of the communicator and the audience. When these limitations are understood before developing any communications efforts, it is easier to formulate concrete goals and objectives that will serve as a foundation for all of the activities that will follow. The next step is becoming aware of how vital it

is to bridge the gap between the information the audience already possesses and the information they require.

In the CBT context, there are a couple of purposes that widen the communication gap. First, *Pokdarwis* and communities who run and live around the organization not only need to promote their business but also need to educate people on how to deal with the risks they will face in the future, such as climate change, disaster (flood, drought, etc), and pollution. Second, *pokdarwis* also become the gate to educate the visitors without reducing any value of public interest to the tourism object they offer.

Again, before producing any message, it is necessary to develop a comprehensive audience profile by doing an in-depth investigation into a variety of criteria. The final idea serves to remind the communicator that the message should be prepared in such a way as to touch the emotional level of the occasional audience in the same proportion as the message exists to boost knowledge and awareness of the technical components of a scenario.

According to the Audience Map, most visitors are from family and youth groups. They all visit the tourist attraction to heal and celebrate their



achievements together. As communicators, *Pokdarwis* should consider using easy-going and casual language to deliver any risky message. Placing highly scientific information on-site will be disregarded by the audience and seen as unattractive communication. The complexity of the risk message is very challenging. *Pokdarwis* cannot stand alone in designing significant messages that are not only attractive but also knowledgeable.

Fig. 10.3 Illustration of risk messages in Tourist Attractions. Source: Pratama (2021)

The core risk information ensures that people will be aware of potential harmful situations. The message should explain that designing a risk message for CBT will be more effective if delivered shortly and followed with relevant illustrations to prevent the unfortunate situation (Figure 10.3).

In order to ascertain the appropriate media, the communicator may also do a preliminary assessment of the audience before disseminating it to a broader demographic. The purpose of this study is to investigate the correlation between the audience's perception of media content relevance and the specific qualities of the media they consume. In order to facilitate risk identification, it is advisable to use visual aids, such as photos or illustrations, that depict observable consequences of the risk, including discernible health effects and impacts on plants and food. Additionally, it is important to evaluate the identification of circumstances that contribute to or symbolize a potential hazard. This paper aims to conduct a comparative analysis of many choices and present a comprehensive list of the advantages and disadvantages of each option.

10.4.6 Developing Media

The process of risk communication is inherently intertwined with the evolution of media. Using written and unwritten communications as information items has been a longstanding practice within communication. Various methods can be employed to convey risk information through informative materials, such as bulletins, pamphlets, booklets, and fact sheets, as well as posters, advertisements, and displays. Additionally, risk communication can be facilitated through articles published in professional or trade journals, popular press magazines, blogs, and newspapers, as well as technical reports and books. Based on the unique information requirements and attributes of the medium, explicit suggestions are provided for each category of information.

Understanding the visitor's interest is very important. Rather than education or knowledge, most of the visitors came to the CBT area to

interact with the social ambiance and experience. Taking selfies (or family photos), shopping, and culinary are the most common activities in CBT. That is why putting any risk information in food stalls or small shops and announcement boards should be considered. However, after the pandemic, there are some behavioral shifts, especially in tourism.

Nowadays, people are attached to their social media. They use it as an information-seeking tool and share their daily activities. Social media platforms are frequently perceived as more engaging and customized to cater to individual preferences (Tamitiadini & Pradhaksa, 2022). This is a remarkable occasion to showcase technology-related visual aids across several tiers, encompassing concise graphical representations, elaborate visuals, communicative materials, and explanatory content for anyone seeking in-depth understanding. Multimedia messages incorporating dynamic elements such as animation, virtual reality, video clips, and video streaming are highly advantageous.

Social media is considered easy and very affordable for community-based businesses. Along with this idea, communicating disaster risk on their own platform can effectively build awareness. The massive technological information development may lead to behavioral shifting in information seeking. CBT is responsible for managing its social media platform. Twitter, Instagram, Facebook, YouTube, and WhatsApp are the favorite social media for tourist information seeking in CBT. This fact supports that disaster risk information should be attached to other social media content.

10.5 Disaster Risk Reduction and Community Resilience

Disaster risk reduction is the concept and practice of reducing disaster risks through systematic efforts to analyze and reduce the causal factors of disasters. Reducing exposure to hazards, lessening the vulnerability of people and property, wise management of land and the environment, and improving preparedness and early warning for adverse events are all examples of disaster risk reduction. According to Tamitiadini, Adila, and Dewi (2019), community-based disaster risk reduction refers to the systematic and planned efforts undertaken by community members to mitigate the impact of disasters, primarily using the existing resources.

These proactive measures are typically implemented before the occurrence of a disaster.

Community disaster resilience arranged by CBT offers much promise as a guiding paradigm for the promotion of disaster risk reduction and the enabling of disaster recovery through attention to and investment in local capacities for adaptation to a changing and uncertain environment. However, there remains work to be done in the clarification of the concept and the operationalization of the mechanisms leading to enhancing community capacity for resilience (Mayer, 2019). Community resilience links a network of adaptive capacities (resources with dynamic attributes) to adaptation after a disturbance or adversity. Community resilience is derived from four main categories of adaptive capacities, namely Economic Development, Social Capital, Information and Communication, and Community Competence (Norris et al., 2008). In Community-based tourism, these capacities collectively form a comprehensive approach to enhance disaster preparedness. In order to foster collective resilience, local communities such as pokdarwis must address risk and resource disparities to the internal and external public, involve residents in mitigation efforts, establish organizational connections with government and other formal tourism institutions, enhance and safeguard social support systems, and prepare for unforeseen circumstances by cultivating adaptability, practical decision-making abilities, and reliable sources of information that provided on social media.

References

- Akram, W., & Kumar, R. (2017). A Study on Positive and Negative Effects of Social Media on Society. *International Journal of Computer Sciences and Engineering*, 5(10), E-ISSN 2347-2693.
- Benjamin, S., Dillette, A., & Alderman, D. H. (2020). "We can't return to normal": Tourism equity in the post-pandemic age. *Tourism Geographies*. DOI: 10.1080/14616688.2020.1759130.
- Bosher, L., & Chmutina, K. (2017). *Disaster Risk Reduction for the Built Environment*. John Wiley & Sons.

- Covello, V., & Sandman, P. M. (2001). Risk Communication: Evolution and Revolution. In A. Wolbarst (Ed.), *Solutions to an Environment in Peril*. Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press.
- Dixon, A. W. (2013). Assessing The Economic Impact of Sports Tourist's Expenditures Related to a University's Baseball Season Attendance. *Journal of Issues In Intercollegiate Athletics*, 6(6), 96–113.
- Espinera, S., Orchiston, C., & Higham, J. E. S. (2017). Resilience and sustainability: a complementary relationship? Towards a practical conceptual model for the sustainability resilience nexus in tourism. *Journal of Sustainable*.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2017.1281929>.
- Graham, A. (2008). *Integrated Risk Management Implementation Guide*, Canada: Atlas of Public Management.
- Kaplan, A. M., & Haenlein, M. (2010). Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of social media. *Business Horizons*, 53(1), 59–68.
- Lundgren, R. E., & McMakin, A. H. (2018). *Risk Communication: A Handbook for Communicating Environmental Safety and Health Risks*. John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Mayer, B. A. (2019). Review of the Literature on Community Resilience and Disaster Recovery. *Current Environmental Health Reports*, 6(3), 167–173. doi: 10.1007/s40572-019-00239-3.
- Morgan, M., Granger, B., Fischhoff, B., Atman, C. J. (2002). *Risk Communication: A Mental Models Approach*. Cambridge University Press.
- Norris, F. H., & Stevens, S. P. (2008). Community Resilience as a Metaphor, Theory, Set of Capacities, and Strategy for Disaster Readiness. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 41(1-2), pp. 127–150.
- Pratama, R. (2021). Kampung Warna-Warni Jodipan Malang Sepi Pengunjung Pasca Banjir. <https://timesindonesia.co.id/peristiwa->

daerah/381604/kampung-warnawarni-jodipan-malang-sepi-pengujung-pasca-banjir. Access on 12 July 2023.

- Sellnow, T. L., Ulmer, R. R., Seeger, M. W., Littlefield, R. (2009). *Effective Risk Communication: A Message-Centered Approach*. Springer Science+Business Media LLC.
- Stone, M. T., & Stone, L. S. Challenges of community-based tourism in Botswana: A review of the literature. *Trans. R. Soc. S. Afr.* 2020, 75, 181–193.
- Tamitiadini, D., & Pradhaksa, P. Y. (2022). *Dasar-Dasar Komunikasi Risiko*. UB Press.
- Tamitiadini, D., Adila, I., Dewi, W. W. A. (2019) *Komunikasi Bencana: Teori dan Pendekatan Praktis Studi Kebencanaan di Indonesia*. UB Press.
- Usmonova, G., Alieva, D., & León, C. J. Yurt. (2022). Combining Tourists and Stakeholders Perceptions of Sustainable Community-Based Tourism in Central Asia. *Sustainability*, 14, 7540. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su14137540>.
- Wiwin, I. W. (2018). Community Based Tourism Dalam Pengembangan Pariwisata Bali. *Pariwisata Budaya: Jurnal Ilmiah Pariwisata, Agama, dan Budaya*, 3(1). <https://doi.org/10.25078/pba.v3i1.424>.
- Wolbarst, A. (2001). *Solutions to an Environment in Peril*. Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press.

Utilization of Social Media as a Support Group to Support Chronic Disease Patients in The Endemic Era

11

Azizun Kurnia Illahi

Abstract

Health communication is not limited to the relationship or interaction between patients and healthcare providers as the sole holders of health information. It also extends to the communication between doctors and patients during the treatment process. However, the scope of health communication encompasses more than these traditional interactions; it includes support groups as well. Support groups have been a significant component of the healthcare sector since the 1970s. Their presence is closely linked to improving health outcomes and reducing patient mortality. Receiving a challenging medical diagnosis can be a traumatic experience, and effective support systems are crucial in such cases. These support systems may involve friends, family, healthcare providers, or even patients with similar illnesses. The shared experiences among members of a support group act as a 'buffer' and can have both physical and psychological impacts, increasing adherence to the treatment process. Managing chronic diseases can become exceptionally complex for patients and their families without adequate support from their social environment. This challenge has led to the emergence of online support groups, providing individuals with the freedom to exchange information and discuss their health issues.

Keywords

Community based tourism · Community resilience · Risk communication

11.1 Introduction to Health Communication

11.1.1 What Is Health Communication?

The discussion about health communication has evolved over the last twenty-five years, becoming a dynamic field of study. For about twenty-five years, health communication has played a vital role in delivering health-related information, whether in health promotion, health campaigns, health services, or ethics, and in conducting interventions in the context of health communication.

Salmon and Poorisat (2019) also explained that health communication is the most essential and prominent sub-discipline of communication studies. However, it is surprising that too little attention has been paid to this field of study. According to Everett Rogers, in 1994, the Stanford Heart Disease Prevention Program (SHDPP) in 1971 marked a turning point in the emergence of health communication. Gary et al. (2014) highlighted that the pillar of health communication began in the 1970s. During those years, a community called the Therapeutic Communication Interest Group was formed, and shortly after, it became the Health Communication Division in the International Communication Association (ICA) in 1972. These events became the initial pillars of modern health communication studies (Salmon & Poorisat, 2019).

Research in health communication studies is currently beginning to develop. It is conducted not only in applied behavioral science but also in pragmatic influences on communication done by individuals towards health care providers and public health promotions. This research is also related to jobs or tasks in rural areas used to improve the quality of health care provision, for example, how health cadres work to maximize health care provision quality in villages. Therefore, modern health communication studies focus on problem-based research and identify, inspect, and provide solutions for health treatment and health promotions (Gary et al., 1998).

Why has communication become important in the health field, and why has health communication kept developing until now? In the preface of his book, Littlejohn (2017) illustrates that communication is one of the daily activities that relate to human life entirely, something we sometimes ignore despite its multifunctionality, importance, and complexity.

Communication, as the center of human life, affects every aspect of human life through our communication with others and even messages from people we do not know, close people, or those who are alive or dead (Littlejohn et al., 2017). This is also emphasized by West and Turner (2010), who state that many companies have agreed on the importance of communication. The National Safety Management Society (www.nsms.us/pages/opermishaps.html) reported that industry safety depends on the ability of employees and management to communicate clearly. In the health field, nurses also focus more on the value of communication, such as the relationship between a doctor and a patient. Research conducted by Cohen et al. (1985), mentioned that patients' recovery also depends on how much doctors offer medical advice to their patients. Another study conducted by Chan (2008) concluded that feedback positively affects students' studies. Lastly, research by Teichmann et al. (2020) explained that on social networking sites like Facebook, individuals in a romantic relationship use it as a communication medium by checking statuses, making commitments, and even expressing faithfulness. Therefore, it can be underlined that communication is a crucial behavior with consequences in our society (West & Turner, 2019).

Northouse and Northouse (1998) defined communication as a medium where information is conveyed and shared with others. In a formal condition, communication is seen as the transfer of information between a source and one or more recipients, a process of sharing meanings and using devices as a medium of communication (Berry, 2007).

The explanations from some of the communication experts above indirectly illustrate that communication is the main point in every process of human life. This means that communication cannot simply be defined as channeling information from the message's sender to the recipient or from the communicator to the communicant. Many factors will affect the continuity of a communication process. Like the research conducted by Teichmann et al. (2020) about romantic relationships formed with the help of social media until a commitment is formed, which certainly is not easy; it is also influenced by the communication process of that couple. Research by Afful-Dadzie et al. (2023) researched that a patient's recovery also depends on the relationship with the doctor as the source of the patient's health information, which means that trust could be formed in a relationship that has a mutual process.

West and Turner tried to provide descriptions of the complexity of the communication process that occurs. All crucial elements/keys in a human's life affect the communication process that will occur, including social, process, symbol, meaning, and environment (see Figure 11.1) (West & Turner, 2019).

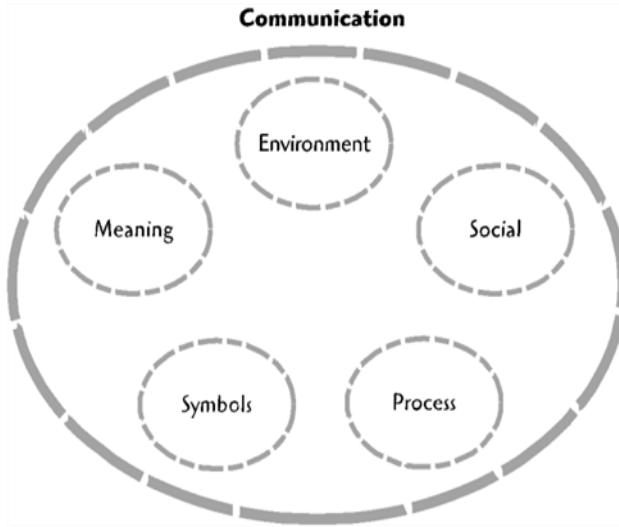


Fig. 11.1 Important Elements in Defining Communication. Source: West & Turner (2019)

Social process is one of the five essential elements for understanding communication. Every communication process involves human interaction, whether face-to-face or online, with two or more individuals playing integral roles as message senders or recipients. In the context of this social element, the communication process is dynamic, complex, and constantly changing, allowing for dynamic meaning-making.

The next element is the process itself, illustrated by a scenario where a mother, facing challenges with her 7-month-old baby's feeding strike, seeks solutions from other mothers through a WhatsApp group. This process evolves into a constructive discussion, providing emotional support and encouragement. The trait of a communication process can

change, leaving individuals either satisfied or facing new conflicts. West and Turner (2010) also note that each person's culture influences individual change.

The third crucial element is the symbol, representing a phenomenon. For example, a man giving a rose bouquet to a woman symbolizes love. Symbols play a vital role in communication by acting as necessary contingencies for eliciting intended meaning (Simpson et al., 1991). Meaning the core of a message is the next important element. It aids individuals in understanding the communication process. West and Turner (2019) emphasize that not every meaning can be shared, and participants in communication must be able to explain, repeat, and clarify messages to ensure understanding.

The final element is the environment, encompassing the context of communication occurrence, including time, place, historical period, relations, and cultural backgrounds of communicators and communicants. The environment influences individuals' thinking, opinions, and values. For instance, reactions to news about suicide tragedies vary among audiences based on their respective environments.

Littlejohn et al. (2017) defines health communication as a crucial element in prevention and treatment, involving the exchange of symbolic messages related to personal, organizational, and public health. Personal health communication involves interactions with family, friends, and health information providers, while organizational aspects include communication with healthcare providers. Health communication extends to messages conveyed through media, whether through non-commercial services or campaigns. It also includes information about supporting groups for people in need (Littlejohn et al., 2017).

Schiavo characterizes health communication as a multidisciplinary approach to reach diverse audiences and share health information, aiming to influence, involve, and support individuals, communities, health professionals, specific groups, policymakers, and the public. This approach seeks to defend, introduce, adopt, or preserve behaviors, practices, or policies that improve health outcomes. Schiavo provides a mapping of various definitions of health communication tailored to keywords (Schiavo, 2017).

Table 11.1 Health Communication Definitions

Keywords	No	Definitions
----------	----	-------------

To inform and influence (individual and community) decisions	1.	“Health communication is a key strategy to inform the public about health concerns and to maintain important health issues on the public agenda” (Schiavo, 2007).
	2.	“Health communication is a process for the development and diffusion of messages to specific audiences in order to influence their knowledge, attitudes and beliefs in favor of healthy behavioral choices” (Zarcadoolas, 2006).
	3.	“Health communication is the use of communication techniques and technologies to (positively) influence individuals, populations, and organizations for the purpose of promoting conditions conducive to human and environmental health” (Maibach and Holtgrave, in (Schiavo, 2007). “It may include diverse activities such as clinician-patient interactions, classes, self- help groups, mailings, hot lines, mass media campaigns, and events” (Thomas, 2006).
Motivating individuals	1.	“Effective health communication is the art and technique of informing, influencing, and motivating individuals, institutions, and large public audiences about important health issues based on sound scientific and ethical considerations” (Schiavo, 2007)
Change behaviors	1.	“Health communication, like health education, is an approach which attempts to change a set of behaviors in a large-scale target audience regarding a specific problem in a predefined period of time” (Lopez et al., 2022).
Increase knowledge and understanding of health-related issues	1.	“Communication means a process of creating understanding as the basis for development. It places emphasis on people interaction” (Segrin and Flora, 2019).
Empowers people	1.	“Communication empowers people by providing them with knowledge and understanding about specific health problems and interventions” (Muturi, 2005 in Schiavo, 2007).

Exchange, interchange of information, two-way dialogue	1.	“Health communication is the scientific development, strategic dissemination, and critical evaluation of relevant, accurate, accessible, and understandable health information communicated to and from intended audiences to advance the health of the public” (Berry, 2007).
--	----	--

The definitions presented highlight that the study of health communication goes beyond merely executing health promotions or conveying health information from healthcare workers to patients. Health communication can also be seen as the ability to empower others by providing knowledge and understanding about specific health problems and interventions. In today's world, health issues are of paramount importance.

As noted by Berry and Rogers (1996), health communication involves transactions related to health and is influenced by various factors (Berry, 2007). One crucial factor is the health information provided by healthcare workers to patients. This information clearly explains proposed treatments, associated risks, and recommended alternative options, impacting the quality of relationships and health-related interactions.

The COVID-19 pandemic has spurred increased public awareness of health, both physical and mental. A study titled "Survey Kesadaran Masyarakat dalam Meningkatkan Kesehatan Fisik di Masa Pandemi" indicates that public awareness of improving physical health during the pandemic has grown. People now realize the significance of maintaining good health and adopting healthy lifestyles for individuals and the environment (Hardi et al., 2021). The awareness of mental health has also surged. The paper titled "*Pandemi dan Mental Health: Meringkas Isu Kesehatan Mental selama Satu Tahun di Era Pandemi*" emphasizes that the pandemic affects not only physical health but also mental well-being. The quarantine, self-isolation, and social distancing measures have taken a toll on people's psychological health, potentially leading to stress, anxiety, and depression due to increased loneliness and decreased social interaction (Fidiansjah, 2020). These occurrences illustrate one of the facets of health communication involving information exchange and two-way dialogues. As social beings, humans naturally seek interaction with others, and forced isolation can lead to anxiousness.

The pandemic has also given rise to new experiences, including the use of social media for sharing health information. People from various social backgrounds, including those with chronic illnesses and their caregivers, access health information. In health communication, this support is known as a Support Group.

11.2 Support Group in Health Communication

11.2.1 What and Why Do They Need Support Groups?

The diagnosis of a chronic disease is certainly not something that could be accepted easily by anyone, either the patient or the patient's family. Non-contagious chronic diseases should be a task that has to be conquered immediately. Non-contagious diseases, commonly known as non-infectious diseases, are not only the focus of health problem solutions in Indonesia. However, according to the record of the World Health Organization that was recorded in the Health Profile of the Indonesian Ministry of Health in 2021, non-infectious chronic diseases cause at least 40 million deaths every year in the world. This number is equivalent to 70% of deaths by all causes at the global level (Kemenkes RI, 2022). From the same source, it was mentioned that the number of non-infectious disease morbidity tends to increase due to some factors, such as excessive tobacco consumption, decreasing physical activities, alcohol abuse, and unhealthy diet.

Non-infectious chronic diseases need a long-term treatment process. That long-term treatment process impacts the patient and the patient's guardian, both psychologically and physically. The uncertainty of being fully recovered is also a form of anxiousness faced by both the patient and the patient's guardian. Without the family's support, it would not be easy for the patient and the patient's guardian to overcome the anxiousness and uncertainty. Conflicts could also emerge due to uncertainty and anxiousness faced by the patient and the patient's guardian.

Research titled "Dinamika Faktor Intrapersonal pada Komunikasi Konflik dalam Keluarga Akibat Gagal Ginjal Kronis" mentioned that (Fajar et al., 2021): "Conflicts caused by chronic kidney failure disease

impacted interpersonal relationships within the family and social environment seriously. The research informant's family showed strong rejection and exclusion towards chronic kidney failure patients, which leads to complications of that disease and physical change as well as physiological changes in the patient. Exclusion and avoidance create tension and conflict between the patient and the social environment. Such conditions are also strengthened by interpersonal factors that directly affect a patient's interpersonal interaction with individuals in the patient's social environment. Emotional transmission—a part of interpersonal factors—in interpersonal communication also increases tension and conflict escalation, especially if there are different understandings and thoughts about a particular condition." Another research conducted by Illahi (2022) titled "Bentuk Pertukaran Dukungan: Dukungan dalam Online Support Group pada Penderita Penyakit Kronis dalam Konteks Komunikasi Kesehatan" mentioned that visible physical changes often become a conversation topic of other people who do not understand patient's condition. Such physical conditions could cause certain opinions from society, leading to patients feeling stressed and embarrassed to gather with society.

View, perception, and even mindset of our society towards a disease is still relatively minimal. It is also possible that those views, perceptions, or mindsets are influenced by factors such as education and culture that influence people's mindsets and lead to a stigma. The emergence of stigmas in society regarding the physical condition of chronic disease patients became an obstacle for the patients, which led to the patients withdrawing themselves from their social environment.

Fatin et al. (2020) conducted another research that explains the relationship between public stigma and a patient's condition. In their research, it was mentioned that "patients and the family always feel desperation when they are faced with schizophrenia diagnosis. Patients and families think that schizophrenia is a very severe chronic disease that cannot be cured. In the research, they also underlined that in several countries, it was mentioned that prejudice towards schizophrenia patients is a problem that is continuously found in society and among healthcare workers as well. Prejudice has a deeply negative impact on patients that causes difficulties in real life and emotional practice."

Therefore, the study of health communication emphasizes the existence of support groups that would be a shield and a source of encouragement and support for chronic disease patients and the patient's guardians. The weak social support would make it difficult for the patients to suppress the feelings of anxiety, uncertainty, and desperation that are caused by the treatment process that feels like it has no end. The patients and guardians need a support group with similarities or homophily.

In a paper by Guthrie and Kunkel, Cline (1999) explained that a support group is a group of people who support each other about common characteristics or dilemmas (Guthrie et al., 2016). In a support group, fellow members could empathize with each other, legitimizing their experiences, sharing strategies and information, and giving the feeling of togetherness. Support groups started to gain attention when it was proven that the existence of support groups could increase the availability of health services and became one of the methods in an effective and economical treatment process. Why is that so? This is because support groups could support the stability of a critical patient's condition, as concluded from several researches.

The support group was started by Dr. Josiah Prat, who started to treat his patients who were physically ill and accidentally found out that they tended to follow the needed treatment plan as a group member rather than an individual (P Rosenberg, 1984). Pfeiffer et al. (2011) said that in the 1970s, support group emerged as a precious component of health treatment, and it was found to help improve health and reduce the death rate. In the same year, a social movement that supported equal rights for minority groups emerged. It includes people with disabilities and mental health problems, as well as patients with other diseases. Therefore, community-managed health clinics were developed at that time to give them autonomy over their health care. The community managed those clinics and groups, currently known as support groups (Borkman & Munn-Giddings, 2008).

A paper titled "The Effectiveness of Support Groups: A Literature Review" defined a support group as a joint support group, a self-subsistent group, and a support group that a peer or a fellow patient leads. Why does it have to be peer-led? NSW Mental Health Commission (2014) mentioned that with a peer-led system, the members could run the group by supporting or helping each other with various health and welfare problems since they

have common conditions (Worrall et al., 2018). Common conditions or homophily would give each member the same empathy. By having the same feeling of empathy, openness between one member and the other members would easily be formed, and the members would encourage each other in going through treatment processes. Indeed, the condition of homophily would push each support group member to improve to gain condition stability.

The discussion about support groups continues to evolve along with advances in information and communication technology, and the discussion about online support groups is also starting to arise. In their paper titled *Communication in Support Groups*, Guthrie and Kunkel emphasized that scholars who study support groups have varied along with the emergence of the online world. However, most scholars focused on online rather than face-to-face support groups (Guthrie, Jennifer A & Kunkel, 2016).

11.2.2 Utilized Social Media for Online Support Group

Online support groups have developed in the last two decades. Online support groups for people with health problems began to be popular and developed in the late 1990s. Fox (2011) explained that research during the last five years has documented the growth of online information searching and support for people with health problems. For example, 60% of internet users in 2011 stated that they are involved in online activities, such as reading people's comments or experiences regarding health problems (Wright, 2016).

An online support group could be defined as an electronic mailing list with a particular topic with narrative messages exchanged by a group of cohesive individuals who usually have common illnesses, problems, or worries (Chung, 2013). Chung also quoted an explanation from Robinson and Turner (2003) that communication that is mediated by media makes online support groups an exciting place to seek support. Adding to that, it could improve mood and quicken the recovery from an illness. Thus, with the rapid growth of the internet over the last decade, the amount of people who provide online support also increased. Internet development makes patient communication mediated between fellow group members.

However, society sometimes is still unable to "accept" the diseases certain people suffer.

Lack of knowledge about particular diseases in society, the limited information that the patients could access, and stigma in society about chronic diseases or people's perception of the treatment process are some of the factors that lead to chronic disease patients limiting direct communication and interaction with their surrounding community. It is proven through past research that conflicts and stigmas still become the "scourge" of chronic disease patients (chronic kidney failure in particular) (Illahi, 2022).

This focuses on messages exchanged through online groups/communities of chronic kidney failure patients undergoing hemodialysis treatment as members. The purpose is to show what kind of messages are exchanged as a form of support the most often, as well as messages that contribute to bridging the knowledge gap regarding online support groups of chronic disease patients (chronic kidney failure in particular). So far, researches about online support group are mainly focusing on mental health. Therefore, the explanations focused on this are expected to be able to illustrate the form of online support groups in the chronic disease community, which is chronic kidney failure with hemodialysis treatment.

Hernandez's (2017) in his dissertation explained that there are other reasons based on the premise that people who experience the same difficulties, misery, pain, illness, condition, or distress can understand each other. West and Turner (2010) gave an interesting review about online support groups potentially impacting not only patients but also family members. They would feel emotional support given by other people with similar conditions. Online support groups also provide an opportunity for the group members to learn about the characteristics and treatment process of other group members.

In his paper titled *Communication in Health-Related Online Social Support Groups/Communities: A Review of Research on Predictors of Participation, Applications of Social Support Theory, and Health Outcomes* Kevin B. Wright explained that there are four predictions on the reasons group members chose to join in an online support group, namely (Wright, 2016):

- Limited access to adequate support through traditional social networks

This prediction emerges due to the difficulty or limited access to face-to-face social support resources. Unlike face-to-face support groups, online support groups are often used by individuals with rare health conditions/problems not well understood by doctors, health workers, or people in their social environment (friends and family). Many people feel they get inadequate information support through their society or health service providers, thus making them think that online support groups are a better alternative to getting health information.

- Living with stigmas regarding health

The second prediction is that patients with specific diseases are stigmatized to an extent by their society regarding their health problems. Stigmas regarding health problems are a significant problem that has to be faced by many patients every single day. Stigmas about health problems are often associated with increasing stress and depression, anxiety, drug abuse, and increasing physical health problems.

- Perception of similarity/credibility of support providers.

The third prediction is that online support groups gave the feeling of similarity. This similarity makes people feel interested, trusted, and understood rather than what they feel in their social environment. Similarities between sender and receiver could increase the persuasive messages exchanged within that online support group.

- Convenience of communicating and other features mediated by computer

Some studies have explained that the perception of convenience, flexibility, and anonymity influences participation in an online support group. For example, an individual could receive information without interacting privately with others, and the individual could even use anonymity. Therefore, they could gain the needed information flexibly.

Online support groups can also help individuals overcome accessibility difficulties and the high service cost regarding information sources and other forms of support, such as therapy.

The forms of support provided by online support groups are divided into four basic types (Walter, 2018), they are:

- Informational (cognitive)

Informational support (cognitive) is one of the most common online support groups. Internet users provide information to support a better understanding of the situation. Informational support includes three sub-categories, which are (1). giving advice, (2). guidance, (3). teaching. Although informational support is not aimed individually or specifically, it is aimed universally.

- Instrumental

Instrumental support is intended to convey information about certain ways in the process, solve problems, and provide the needed guidance in a treatment process or in some aspects that are considered important. Therefore, this kind of support is specific. For example, "Where should I go to receive help in this situation? What should I expect?"

- Material

Material support is the most substantial in online support groups. It is associated with a foundation or association with financial aid organizations and tangible aid. The following are the types of material support: (1) Group, an organizational system of fundraising for certain people (most of the time, it is for children); (2) Individual support; (3). Assistance is provided continuously.

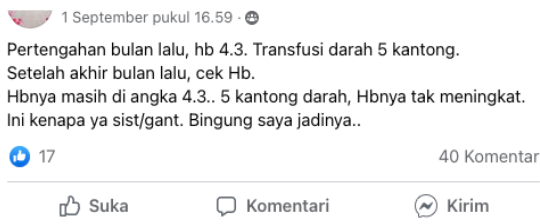
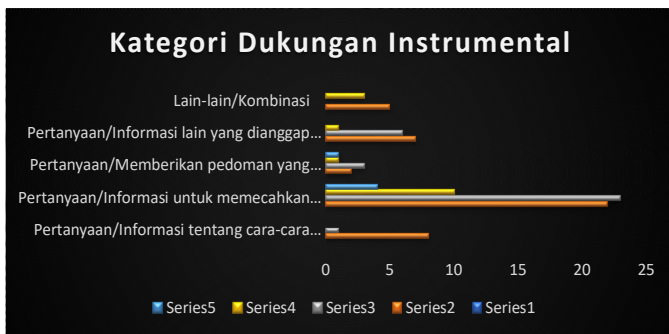
- Emotional

Emotional support is the most visible form of support. This is intended to ensure the feeling of security, accompaniment, support, and the assurance of love and award, showing sympathy and understanding. It plays a big role in recovering psychological conditions in stressful and difficult situations.

The author conducted an observation in an online community of chronic kidney failure with hemodialysis treatment and compared it with the

research that was conducted by Walter (2018) that explained that informational (cognitive) support could be found more often. However, through the research conducted by the author, the data showed that the "solving problems" category of instrumental support is found the most often.

There is a difference between the informational support category (cognitive) and the instrumental support category. The informational



category (cognitive) would give information that is aimed at all members of the community/group, while the instrumental category would give information that is aimed specifically. The example of instrumental support is in Figure 11.2.

Fig. 11.2 Support Exchange with Instrumental Support. Source: Illahi (2022)

The image above represents a form of instrumental support provided to address the specific problem of a community member who is a chronic kidney failure patient undergoing hemodialysis. This falls under the instrumental support category because the response from a peer leader is specifically tailored to the member who posed the question. In an interview with a peer leader, K.I. noted, "because the question is specific, it is possible that the others have had blood transfusion too, but every patients

have different conditions, so when someone asked about that, my answers are usually based on my own experience and sometimes also based on information about HD that I read."

To provide a more precise illustration of the kind of informational support (cognitive) that can be offered to community members, consider the following example:

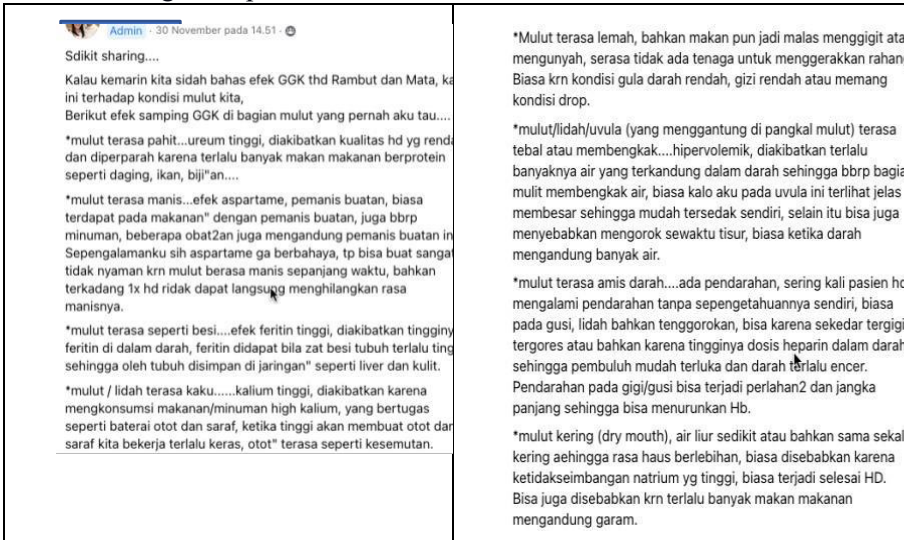


Fig. 11.3 Support exchange with the type of informational support (cognitive). Source: Illahi (2022)

Informational support, as represented in Figure 11.3 provides general health information that can be used as supplementary knowledge for members of the online community. Chronic kidney failure patients undergoing hemodialysis treatments benefit from informational support, contributing to the improvement or stabilization of their health conditions during their treatment journey.

The existence of social media, especially during the pandemic, cannot be overstated in providing support among community members who are kidney failure patients undergoing hemodialysis treatments. Gola et al. also emphasized this in their research, stating that "social network became a very useful device to communicate with each other.... Social communication used during communication using social media is transparency, involvement and information. These three key points are

valid for conducting public communication using social media. Interaction and giving feedback became the supremacy of social media use" (Gola et al., 2018).

Online support groups have demonstrated their potential and relevance in the field of health communication, particularly for patients who require support but are unable to access it from their immediate social circles due to stigmas or misconceptions about their specific health conditions. This aligns with findings in a study conducted by Sugimoto, which explained that "the use of online support groups is to seek informational support, emotional support, and social guidance as well as social friendship. Users are not only seeking "ears" to listen to them but also practical advice to overcome the situation that they are facing. Online support group is also a place to share their experience with others, to manage loneliness, and to discuss what they cannot discuss in other place, or to vent their emotion and manage their depression" (Sugimoto, 2015).

The existence of online support groups is closely linked to improving health outcomes and reducing patient mortality. Receiving a doctor's diagnosis can be a traumatic event, necessitating the presence of an effective support system. This support system may include friends, family, doctors, or fellow patients who have experienced similar illnesses. The shared experiences within the support group create a "buffer" that has both physical and psychological impacts, enhancing adherence to the treatment process. Patients and their families face complex challenges in managing chronic diseases, and these challenges become more manageable with the support of their social environment. This is what motivates the existence of online support groups that can give them the freedom to be able to exchange information and discuss their health problems.

References

- Afful-Dadzie, E., Afful-Dadzie, A. and Egala, S. B. (2023) 'Social media in health communication: A literature review of information quality', *Health Information Management Journal*, 52(1), pp. 3–17. doi: 10.1177/1833358321992683.

Akhir Hayat Pria Malang yang 2 Kali Bunuh Diri di Jembatan Suhat. (n.d.).

Berry, D. (2007) *Health Communication Theory and Practice*. 1st edn. Edited by S. P. and S. Horn. New York: Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data.

Chan, D. (2008) *Family Violence: Communication Processes*.

Chung, J. E. (2013). Social Networking in Online Support Groups for Health: How Online Social Networking Benefits Patients. *Journal of Health Communication*, 1–21. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10810730.2012.757396>

Cohen, Sheldon & Wilss, T. A. (1985) ‘Stress, Social Support, and the Buffering Hypothesis’, *Psychological Bulletin*, 98(1), pp. 310–357. doi: 0033-2909/85/500.75.

Fajar, D. P., Illahi, A. K., & Saputra, M. I. (2021). Dinamika Faktor Intrapersonal Pada Komunikasi Konflik Dalam Keluarga Akibat Gagal Ginjal Kronis. *Jurnal Ilmiah Dinamika Sosial*, 5(1), 55–75. <https://doi.org/10.38043/jids.v5i1.2879>

Fatin; Diniari; Wahyuni. (2020). Gambaran Stigma terhadap Penderita Skizofrenia pada Manusia Universitas Udayana. *Jurnal Medika Udayana*, 9(7), 75–79. <https://doi.org/10.24843.MU.2020.V9.i7.P14>

Fidiansjah. (2020). Pandemi dan Mental Health : Meringkas Isu Kesehatan Mental selama Satu Tahun di Era Pandemi. *Jurnal Kesehatan*, 5(3), 12.

Gary L. Kreps, Ellen W. Bonaguro, Jim L. Query, J. (1998). the History and Development of the Field. *Health Communication Research: Guide to Developments and Directions*, 1–15.

Gola, E., Meloni, F., & Porcu, R. (2018). *Social Media and Health Communication: The Future of Public Services*. 4, 46–57. <https://doi.org/10.17501/medcom.2018.4106>

Guthrie, J. A & Kunkel, A. (2016). *Communication in Support Groups*. In M. E. Berger, Charles R & Roloff (Ed.), *The International Encyclopedia*

- of Interpersonal Communication* (First Edit, 2016, pp. 3–6). John Wiley & Sons, Inc. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118540190.wbeic0034>
- Hardi, V. J., Supriadi, D., Supriady, A., & Ahmad Karisman, V. (2021). Survey Kesadaran Masyarakat dalam Meningkatkan Kesehatan Fisik di Masa Pandemi. *Jpoe*, 3(2), 120–131. <https://doi.org/10.37742/jpoe.v3i2.131>
- Hernandez, N. (2017). *Understanding Information Use in Online Consumer-Health Support Group: A Look Into Interactive Health Communication*. Syracuse University.
- Illahi, A. K. (2022). *Bentuk Pertukaran Dukungan: Dukungan dalam Online Support Group pada Penderita Penyakit Kronis dalam Konteks Komunikasi Kesehatan*. Kemenkes RI. (2022). Profil Kesehatan Indonesia 2021. In *Pusdatin.Kemenkes.Go.Id*.
- Littlejohn, Stephen W; Foss, Karen. A; Oetzel, J. G. (2017). *Theories of Human Communication*. Waveland Press, Incorporated, 2017.
- Lopez, C., Kim, B. and Sacks, K. (2022) ‘Health Literacy in the United States: Enhancing Assessments and Reducing Disparities’, *SSRN Electronic Journal*. doi: 10.2139/ssrn.4182046.
- P Rosenberg, P. (1984). Support Group A Special Therapeutic Entity. *Small Group Behavior*, 15(2), 1173–1186. sgr.sagepub.com
- Salmon, C. T., & Poorisat, T. (2019). The Rise and Development of Public Health Communication. *Health Communication*, 0(00), 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10410236.2019.1654180>
- Schiavo, R. (2007) *Health Communication From Theory to Practice*. 1st edn. San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Segrin, C. and Flora, J. (2019) ‘Family Interaction and Physical Health’, *Family Communication*, pp. 351–379. doi: 10.4324/9781351132596-15.
- Simpson, M., Buckman, R., Stewart, M., Maguire, P., Lipkin, M., Novack, D., & Till, J. (1991). Doctor–patient communication: the Toronto consensus statement. *British Medical Journal*, 303(7), 1385.

- Sugimoto, S. (2015). Support exchange on the internet: A content analysis of an online support group for people living with depression. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section A: Humanities and Social Sciences*, 76(4-A(E)), No Pagination Specified.
- Teichmann, L. *et al.* (2020) 'Public health communication and engagement on social media during the COVID-19 pandemic [Preprint]', *OSF Preprints*, (July). Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/343243240_Public_Health_Communication_and_Engagement_on_Social_Media_during_the_COVID-19_Pandemic.
- Thomas, R. K. (2006) *Health Communication*. 1st edn. United States of America: Springer.
- Walter, N. (2018) 'Online Social Support', *Interdisciplinary Contexts of Special Pedagogy*, (23), pp. 23–51. doi: <https://doi.org/10.14746/ikps.2018.23.02>.
- West, R., & Turner, L. H. (2010). Introducing Communication Theory. Analysis and Application. Fourth Edition -McGraw-Hill (2010). In *Introducing Communication Theory* (Vol. 4).
- West, R., & Turner, L. H. (2019). Introducing Communication Theory. In *Making Sense of Messages*. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781351130127-13>
- Worrall, H., Schweizer, R., Marks, E., Yuan, L., Lloyd, C., & Ramjan, R. (2018). The effectiveness of support groups: a literature review. *Mental Health and Social Inclusion*, 22(2), 85–93. <https://doi.org/10.1108/MHSI-12-2017-0055>
- Wright, K. B. (2016). Communication in Health-Related Online Social Support Groups/Communities: A Review of Research on Predictors of Participation, Applications of Social Support Theory, and Health Outcomes. *Review of Communication Research*, pp. 4, 65–87. <https://doi.org/10.12840/issn.2255-4165.2016.04.01.010>
- Zarcadoolas, C. *et al* (2006) *Advancing health literacy : a framework for understanding and action*. 1st edn. San Francisco.

