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YOUTH PARTICIPATION ONLINE
Case Eu-kids online in Finland

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ABSTRACT

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In the 2000s there has been significant national and global focus in the field of research in a relationship between young people and online media use. Scientists have looked at the opportunities of community participation and digital interaction. Youth’s lives are now inseparable from online media, but very little involvement in the civic activity. Social media is everywhere and smooth to touch, and it influences our lives, culture, and behavior. Thus, we should learn more about it, know how it works and the effects on us. The objective of this study is to investigate youth’s media participation on the internet and based on that, media literacy education can be developed for supporting part.

The EU Kids Online network aims to provide continued empirical evidence of online experiences of children and young people and related risks and opportunities. This includes large scale comparatives as well as smaller studies with specific focus on particular questions in the 2010, as well as 2018-2019, in 25 European countries. In Spring 2019, these surveys are performed online in Finland, Sampling took place at comprehensive Finnish schools representing almost 98% of the population aged. School sample were geographically weighted random sample among Finnish schools. Students age range was from 9 to 17 years old.

The clearest finding in the Finnish study was that Finnish youth participation online in political or civic activities was lower. The findings of this study allow the youth to be more involved in political and civic engagement. For the politicians it remains a challenge to find ways of making young people more political engagement. We can see the situation of civic and political participation and media production ability of young people. Providing a basis for future research.

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Key words: media education, EU-kids online, media literacy, youngster, youth participation.
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Appendix
1 INTRODUCTION

In the 2000s there has been significant national and global focus in the field of research in a relationship between young people and online media use. In addition to basic online kids and youth studies, Scientists have looked at the opportunities of community participation and digital interaction.

Numerous studies have been conducted on the effect of the Internet on both community and political engagement. According to Bakker and de Vreese (2011), whilst the findings were ambiguous in part, it is acknowledged that Internet usage is a multifaceted concept. Hence, diverse social groups are impacted differently. The reality is that the influence of the Internet is based on complicated amalgamation of personal and social traits, patterns of use, and specific media substance and circumstances.

Social media like Twitter, Facebook, Myspace, YouTube, Flickr are growing enormously. The relationship among people can be connected and supported throughout social media. It enables us to communicate and interact in a variety of ways (Golbeck, 2015). Moreover, it drove social change. Social media has enabled people to express and share their thoughts with others. Social media has allowed young people in community media, channels, journals and other social platforms, to create and comment on current problems. Some recent studies have shown that digital culture offers different media relations to those which existed before. For instance, media now offers more than ever access to publicity, primarily through the cyber. News and news services are also blurring the boundaries between childhood, youth, and maturity as when users are young, it is possible to formulate them. That is why media literacy requirements are more important than ever, both internationally and in the cultural Background of the Nordic and Western worlds. (Wijnen, 2011)

Bakker and de Vreese (2011) assert that although it has long been assumed that youths do not typically participate in political activities in large numbers, this topic is becoming increasingly highlighted as the role of media impacts partaking behaviors and is exacerbated by the prevalence of the internet. The effects of this are an area of interest. That suggests that the line between traditional and digital media are becoming more and more blurred.
Although studies have focused on social media use and the internet, few studies have acknowledged the youth activity on the internet why the online opportunities of participation and civic activities are not particularly interested in young people. Even if they live within the participatory culture (Jenkins, 2009) and can utilize the technology and share ideas online, as citizens, young people appear not to be actively involved – why?

According to Smith and Rainie (2008) duration of the US presidential elections in 2008 showed new media use for political ends in the US. President Obama used social media such as Facebook, Twitter, and YouTube actively and successfully as communication tools, capitalized upon the intense use of the Internet for younger people's policy activities.

The Internet seems to have a high potential in most western European countries, given the high use levels over the last few years (Eurostat, 2009) and continued discussions on decreasing youth participation. I also want to explain why I am so interested in this topic, Youth’s lives are now inseparable from online media, but very little involvement in the civic activity. Social media is everywhere and smooth to touch, and it influences our lives, culture, and behavior. Thus, we should learn more about it, know how it works and the effects on us. The objective of this study is to investigate youth’s media participation on the internet and based on that, media literacy education can be developed for supporting part. In following Chapter 2, I will present theoretical aspects of social media use of youth, media literacy, media education in Nordic countries, and, as well as provide theoretical backgrounds for this study. Chapter 3 will describe the implementation of the study. Chapter 4 will showcase the findings of this study.
2 CONCEPTUALIZING MEDIA PARTICIPATION

2.1 Youth on Social Media

In recent decades, a number of thousand studies have been conducted on the effects of media on youth. And yet we still have a lot to learn, somewhat paradoxically. The gaps in our knowledge are, in part, due to dramatic changes in the media use of young people. According to (Rideout, 2016), In the 1990s, children and adolescents spent four hours a day on the average on media, which is now averaging six (for children) and nine (for adolescents) hours a day. In addition to the considerable growth in media usage, the knowledge gaps are caused by the rapid and dramatic transformations in our media landscape.

Social media concerns have been broader than television and games. In addition to fears of exposing children to violence, sex, or frightening content, online social media have been concerned. Would social media make children grow lonely, socially inept and sexually unable to control themselves? Would online bullying be stimulated by social media? In the US in 1998 the first study was published on the social effects of the internet. Actually, the study did not study the impact of the internet as hardly any participating family had access to it at the time of the data collection. The Internet was mainly the domain of early adopters at the time, and only a small proportion of children were online. According to (Egenfeldt-Nielsen, Smith & Tosca, n.d.), The Internet was mainly the domain of early adopters at the time, and only a small proportion of children were online. Only around 2002 was there a public debate over the Internet, when access rates were increasing dramatically and most American and European young people became online. Shortly, Researchers have started to study seriously youth Internet access. The results of these studies have demonstrated a nuanced picture that is more than many expected, leading researchers to ask more questions about media such as their impact on self-estimation, social skills, sexual risk online and cyberbullying.

Media and technology are being dramatically developed and replaced. We have studied the social media tools that now seem to be as old as Methuselah. In 2015, virtually all young people
have Facebook accounts but even juggernauts such as Facebook always need to do everything they can to stay ahead and not lose their users to new and more appealing interfaces such as Snapchat, Taptalk and so on. We see a dramatic change in how young people access and use media and content technologies as smartphone affordability increases.

According to (Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1961), The worldwide per capita penetration of Smartphones was 10% in 2011 and will be 37% in 2018. These figures show that the smartphone has penetrated almost every stratum of global society in just ten years, from 2006 to 2016. In every aspect of everyday life, smartphones appear today. Smartphones are inextricably linked to the use of social media more than any other media device (a means with which users share information through texts, audio, photos, videos or blogs).

Youth and media research calls for the integration of theory and knowledge of various disciplines. interdisciplinary approach. We need to understand media theories on the media as well as on cognitive and social emotional development among young people in order to understand the effects of the media on children and teens, Because it is this development that shapes their media use and effects in large part. We must learn theory about the social environment of a child, such as family, friends and the youth culture, since factors in these environments can somewhat or largely predict the nature of media effects.

Moreover, increasing numbers of youth can be involved in social participation by digital services, like Facebook, Twitter and Weibo. Opportunity of Digital operation serves as a platform to public and political participation(Kahne, Lee & Feezell, 2013), Through engaging in similar online events, the barrier for voluntary work, group problem solving, advocacy actions, and other forms of political involvement can be lowered. His research shows that political participation is associated with increased political intervention and speech online, while online involvement mediated by interests is associated with political action, language, and participation in campaigns. Interest-Motor involvement is seen as a crucial indicator of increased Citizen participation, that also correlates with many analytical aspects of alternative planning along with system creation, Reduced power and importance-the interpretation and presentation of the agenda (Brewer, 2001; Schemer et al., 2012; Meriläinen, 2014).

The socioeconomic background for online service uses has likewise been discussed by Schlozman et al. (2010). A conclusive outcome has been displayed between the socioeconomic status and political involvement online. The outcomes again indicate that youthful people are more
cyber-participation than traditional participation and internet may have an impact on the patterns of political engagement that are carried out, compared to traditional forms of involvement, online participation is more personal and expressive.

Naturally, Not all digital devices or systems are being used the same way. In order to promote digital literacy for young people and to support participatory literacy programs, Samsudin and Hasan (2017) employed digital services to consider digital involvement and participation. They found that in Malaysia, most young people have online access and use the Internet primarily for communication, uploading, and downloading. Less frequent activities included online shopping, researching or accessing educational resources, and partaking in discussions that are political or civic in nature. Furthermore, they determined that opinions of the Internet very significantly impact the degree of participation in online functions.

Pozzebon et al. (2016) discuss the process for reducing civic participation through a theory of the framework for social representation. They argue that special attention should be paid to social representation processes characteristic for their web-based initiatives for governments to improve citizen e-participation. The results suggest, for example, that the use of digital participatory budgeting for people not previously involved would promote citizen participation, promote public discussion, and enable citizens to make decisions.

Collin (2008) has looked at the development of political identity with regard to the Web and the different digital services that it provides. The Internet is a potential platform for youth in order to realize their political identity, and its importance in the development of identity is undeniable. In order to identify issues, learn and incorporate participation, the Internet is an essential tool because this promotes the availability of information and the engagement in activities. The study of Collin suggested that online platforms are seen as a valid venue for involvement and it is not feasible for new, tightly regulated modes of administration that are centrally adults.

As per Bennett et al. (2009), the notion of being a ‘good citizen’ may require revision for several reasons, such as public learning is increasingly occurring in informal settings. As a result, it is possible that formal school education could become outdated and may not meet the needs or be best suited to younger generations. Moreover, an obstacle to participation might also be insufficient development of online civic environments. The results from Bennett et al. indicate that there should be More open and networked civic education programs and participatory press as well as self-actuating civic participation.
Chaters(2015), explained why young people prefer to communicate even intimately via social media? He states, this preference is due to the social media enabling young people to feel more in control, or to the illusion of control, to be more accurate. This sense of control, in turn, gives them a sense of security and confidence in social media rather than offline conditions.

Generally, social media use's negative effects on social and emotional development seem to depend on the way adolescents use social media. In general, the effects appear to be positive when young people use social media to maintain contact with others, which is what the majority of them do. But if social media are used to communicate primarily with others, or if unusual profiles are developed and negative reactions are thereby generated, the effects are negative.

2.2 Media Participation

Media participation aims to increase public engagement. Through participation, according to Murray (2009), citizens will become more educated and competent. By taking part, people can influence factors and decisions which affect their lives. This, in turn, can shift political power. Community participation in terms of development refers to the active process where those who would receive the outcomes of development get to take part in and can influence the direction and execution of projects (Paul in Bamberger, 1986).

Youth participation, as demonstrated by the revised European Charter, is more than simply voting or standing for election, though these are both important aspects. The definition of participation as an active citizen within a democratic community is having the means, the space, and the opportunities and support to take part and having the power to influence choices and actions, contributing to building a better society (Revised European charter on the participation of young people in local and regional life, 2012).

Hart (1992) provides another definition. In the Convention on the Rights of the Child, ratified by more than 100 notions, there are significant consequences on a society when the participation of young people improves. As per Article 12 of the Convention “States Parties shall assure to the child who is capable of forming his or her own views the right to express those views freely in all matters affecting the child, the views of the child being given due weight in accordance with the age and maturity of the child”. This is a compelling argument for the inclusion of young people and their active participation within society.
At the turn of this millennium, the media changed. The use of the internet in people’s lives for social interaction changed the landscape. Messaging, content sharing, and publishing using applications (apps) such as WhatsApp, Snapchat and TikTok became easy and commonplace. In contrast to print media - which are largely managed by top-down elites - these disruptive technologies enable user-driven activities such as production, consumption, appropriation, and pastiche and are as a result multi-directional. They are integrated into people’s lives and apps such as YouTube are a part of young people’s daily routines.

To begin about the role of the media in youth engagement, it is only right to start with the news and other related public information.

Currently, this is the digital media age, and culturally the situation is referred to as a “participatory culture”. This described how the positions of conventional producers of media and consumers have disintegrated within a culture (Jenkins, H., 2006). The basic form of this participatory culture comprises affiliations, expressions, circulation and problems around collaboration (Jenkins 2006:3).

The term participatory culture refers to the democratization of the media landscape. In his role as a researcher with the objective of analyzing engagement in civic society, Jenkins (2006, 2009) continues to describe the innovation of participatory culture with these statements:

1. Provides a comparatively lower restriction on creative statement and civic engagement
2. Powerful means to create content with others
3. Even those with limited understanding have informal access to information and can take guidance from those with more experience
4. Participants have a sense of contribution as well as a social connection with other members of the community (Jenkins 2009).

Media participation is not simply using the internet to access social media. Just because someone knows how to use the myriad advanced technologies which surround them does not mean they have the knowledge to use it effectively. The objective is to engage with media culture and for young people to understand their status and how to participate in public dialogue and how to behave. This culture of participation should be used as an instrument to increase the public’s engagement in democracy.
By considering young people as effective online enablers gives credence to the view that more and more progressive online communities are increasing their political activity and in turn empowering children to have an active role in both political and public decision making (Jenkins, 2006, pp. 219-220).

Another claim to the benefits of media participation is that it is a means to improve global wellbeing and can increase the self-awareness of individuals across societies. Reijo Kupiainen and Sara Sintonen are Finnish researchers who claim that participatory cultures allow the communities using them to widen their perspectives in many ways. By building and consuming media content created by and for a globalized world, there is an increase in awareness, a reduction in bias and it broadens the global perspectives of the people who take part (Kupiainen & Sintonen, 2009, p. 169).

There is also a political dynamic considered to be an aspect of media participation. For example, Erik Bucy and Kimberly Gregson say that it is a modern type of politics: Citizen action has the capacity to happen anyway, such as on the internet by being exposed to politics. Political action can include the forming of public opinion, participating in civic discussions and creating agendas with leaders and legislators, interacting (in a mediated way, with candidates and political persons, as well as mobilization and donating to political causes (Bucy and Gregson, 2001). They also say that participating in the media gives people a closeness to those in political power, gives a voice to a bigger audience, makes it easier to citizens to take part in public life and generate a civic identity.

In 2009, Prof. Sirkku Kotilainen discussed the personal relationship with the media and considered this participation as an interplay between individuals and the media. People communicate internally with media, and for that it can be considered effective. If, for instance, someone is inspired by the events depicted in a television show they can go on to be influenced by this in their future interactions, including civic activities such as voting (Kotilainen, 2009).

Media participation is incremental. Another Finnish research, Seija Ridell, proposes that using media to voice personal opinions moves that person’s thoughts and ideas from a private ownership to public (Ridell, 2006, pp.247 – 248) This is echoed in the work of Kotilainen who talks about both media participation and contact with the media in ways such as the writing and publishing of articles, videos, and photographs (Kotilainen, 2009, p. 249):

1. Quality of access: there are many choices in information selection.
2. Political and social conditions: discussions, political and social, need to happen between policymakers and citizens.

3. Local and transnational policies: these impacts whether young people can gain literacy in media and information (Kotilainen & Suoninen, 2013, p.157-159)

It is normal in the media to speak of teens as incapable and amateurish. There needs, however, to be a wider definition adopted, especially in terms of participation and the various ways this can occur. For instance, it is not accurate to group children into active or passive categories, especially in online environments. Some may be active in some ways, passive in others – it depends on the scenario and the situation as to whether someone wants to engage with particular aspects of the media or not. It’s a spectrum rather than absolutes. (See Sirkkunen & Kotilainen, 2004, p. 292; Kotilainen & Rantala, 2008, pp. 244, 249 - 250; Kotilainen and Mutters.). Not dissimilar to adults, young people act differently in different situations – it can depend on the website or the community within the platform – and they can fluctuate between total ignorance and aggressive civil debate.

2.3 Media Literacy

Media literacy was described by W. James Potter as “a perspective from which we expose ourselves to the media and interpret the meaning of the messages we encounter” (Potter, 1998, p. 5). He went on to say that in order to improve media literacy, it is essential to develop the tools and skills to extract information from the media. By developing media literacy, people can have greater control over their information exposure, as awareness is inbuilt accompanying this literacy. (Potter, 1998).

Another similar definition is by David Buckingham who states media literacy is “the knowledge, skills, and competencies that are required in order to use and interpret media” (Buckingham, 2003, p. 36). For Buckingham, media literacy is not simply a series of steps that should be taken to decipher the media, it’s not just a case of “functional literacy” but instead is analysis, evaluation and critical reflection. It is a form of “critical literacy” (Buckingham, 2003, pp. 37-38).

There has been a renewed interest from the public in media literacy as both a concept and a pedagogical objective because information is vital in the role of decision making. Information via media can determine voting behaviors and can be used to reinforce or question beliefs (McBrien, 2005). In a society saturated with information, it is more critical than ever to educate and inform
young people about the information available to them (Semali, 2005). The media as a form of mass communication and a source of information which is socially constructed with inherent messages, values, and biases (Kellner, 2002).

When discussing media literacy, it is important to understand this is not restricted to text-based media but extends to television, films, commuters and the internet (Thoman & Jolls, 2004, 2005).

Despite a huge growth in media literacy which has been described as digital literacy, there is still a disconcerting lack of knowledge on this topic. It is understandable perhaps, due to the various dimensions and complexity of media literacy. After all, it is not simply a matter of education, but it also shines a light on broader questions of cultural development which is measured by the technology used and the growth in the wisdom of a society.

The rapid development of the infrastructure of information technology has resulted in information being widely accessible by all. Today’s digital society has access to more information than previous generations. Wikipedia and other forums, alongside services such as Twitter, Vimeo and Eyepetizer have involved the user in their own evolution, developing social awareness from user content mostly in commercial or international media environments.

This development has changed the concept of media literacy according to Reijo Kupiainen and Sara Sintonen (2010). This new digital culture has different levels of participation in different media. It is now, it can be argued, a focused and social practice rather than a skill. It has been said that media education, in many contexts, has been significantly impacted by past media eras and the diverse types of media that have emerged. In this current digital era, it is important to perceive media knowledge as the result of media education.

As time goes by, media literacy will change, and that which is was will not be the case in the future. In Nordic nations, technology is very widely accessible, so this type of development is already clear to see. In addition, both primary and higher education is free for everyone in Finland, and it is compulsory for all children aged from 7 to 16. The few private schools there are mostly religious. Elementary levels are classes 1 to 9 and ensure pupils have the qualifications necessary for vocational or upper secondary education. The schools themselves also offer more equal opportunities for learning such as special education services, although these can be at risk depending on the political landscape, and inequalities can arise.
The European Commission of EU Communities published a document outlining the European Union’s strategy for digital media literacy. The group of experts consulted agree that there are different degrees of media literacy and encompasses all types of media messages. It also stressed the importance of the interactive, participatory, and creative aspects of media literacy. It also entails having knowledge of legal aspects of the media and the media economy.

2.4 Media Education in Nordic Countries--Finland As an Example

Finnish education includes the promotion of media and information literacy at an early age. In Finnish policies, it is clear there is an understanding of the advantages of media education. In the modern world this education can be described in terms of personality development, and the interaction with media and its materials can shape a culture and develop creative communication skills. Important skills such as critical thinking, perception, interpretation, analysis, and evaluation can be developed using media texts and teaching different forms of self-expression via media technology. Education using the media enhances literacy skills and it has been shown that those who go through media training, at all ages, have improved skills in managing day to day life, increased participation within society and develop as individuals.

There have been different concepts and theories of media education over the year according to Tanriverdi, B & Apak, Ö. (2010). Finland pioneered journal teaching, particularly after the 1960s, and film teaching has also been applied. In the 1970s, the terms “mass media education” and “audio-visual education” were coined. This is commonly done alongside civic educations (since the 1960s), mass entertainment education (from the 1970s) and imagination education (1980s).

Audio-visual education which took place in municipal video workshops increased the theory and practice of media education in the 1980s. In the 1990s, the scope widened and there was further research into different demographics and also the use of media by children took a foothold in research. It was revealed that there was an interest in using information technology as part of education, rather than teaching information technology itself. As a result, ADP classes were replaced by ADP clubs and no longer part of the curriculum. Media education had changed to communication education, in particular for expression and practice. The creation of videos, as a result, became a part of media education and schoolwork. In 1994, communication - as part of the comprehensive school curriculum - was given the definition of interaction with cognitive, aesthetic and ethics, and education of the creation, management, and development of that interaction (Kupainen, Sintonen,
and Suoranta, 2008 pp. 14-15). The objective of communication is to develop interaction skills and expression and to promote the understanding and importance of the media as well as skills in the media. This background is an interesting take on media education in the late 1990s.

Kotilainen (2009) states that in Finland the those who are enthusiastic about the training of media literacy come from a wide range of areas. These include schools, youth work organizations, libraries, cultural organization, media and film Centre, and some are also local and national government administrators. National Government Policy from 2007 to 2011 included the promotion of media literacy, including several different documents outlining strategies focusing on children and young people. It was also included as a mission in the ministries of education, law and justice, and transport and communication. In addition, cross-curricular media literacy appears both pre-primary and higher educations. The vocational education curriculum is being evaluated (Ministry of Education, 2008).

The argument made by Media education research scientist David Buckingham (2003; 2003a) is that media education works in close association with the ethos of light. In particular, this has meant building up nationality based on good sense, which has served to hide areas of affectivity related to children’s and young people’s culture.

Various contemporary researchers and specialists are happy to endorse this informal task of educating media. “The idea from media, the lifestyle and mode started shaping everyday life” (Kotilainen & Kivikuru 1999, 24). The way the media is related to by both parties has also been discussed: “Media should indeed be conceived of as an active relation in which media both shapes the world while the world shapes media” (Sintonen 2001, 38).

There have been a number of initiatives across the EU member states in recent years, with the objective of improving media literacy. This alone demonstrates the political importance of the subject, but there is a wide variance in how media literacy is integrated into educational practices. For instance, there are significant differences between the education system in place in Nordic nations and that of other countries. Since the 1950s, there has been a much greater emphasis on participating in projects to learn, and a focus on equal potential and access to media. Media in all its incarnations have been a part of learning, using newspapers as objects of analysis. This is reflected in other Nordic countries which share broader social structures and welfare models.
Strengthening the position of media education is one of the Ministry of Education and Culture’s strategic objectives, according to the National Audio-Visual Institute (2019). The ministry develops laws and policies in education, culture and youth and art and promotes media literacy via these areas as well as through resource allocation and information. In 2013 the Ministry of Education and Culture created cultural policies to promote media literacy among children and adolescents. The guidelines were created in collaboration with and to meet the needs of a wide range of stakeholders in media education and organizations for all parts of society.

The four goals of media education in Finland for 2013 – 2016, from the policy guidelines, are: (1) day-to-day media education should be high-quality and child and teen friendly; (2) law, finances and steering at the national and local level create sustainable structures through which to promote media literacy; (3) profiles are created by media education activities and stakeholders and new partnerships and networks are created and reinforced; and (4) Finland is active in media education activities worldwide.

There are very few countries that have government authorities in the field of media education, and Finland is one of them. Their National Audio-Visual Institute, alongside the Media Education and Audio-Visual Media Department (MEKU) is legally responsible for the promotion of media skills and the development of a safe media environment for children. Despite being a small country, Finland has a high level of public and commercial engagement in this area. There is a high volume of organizations which currently contribute to the field of media education. The activities undertaken by these organizations are usually by encouraging the integration of media and information literacy within their fields of expertise.

One of the main educational organizations, the Media Educational Authority, is an institution that sits under the Ministry of Education and Cultural and has the legal task of promoting the education of media. Another key player in the development of media education is the National Education Board.

For clarity, I will study the following questions in this paper:

1. How do young people participate in civic issues online?
2. How is youth media literacy developing?

This research is based on the data from EU Kids online. The results will bridge the gap between social media use, and the activities which young people perform online.
3 IMPLEMENTATIONS OF THE STUDY

In this chapter, background information about EU-KIDS online will be introduced. After that, data from EU-KIDS in Finland will be analyzed.

3.1 EU-Kids Online Research

In the EU Kids Online II project (2018-2019), data from children and parents were collected via face-to-face interviews in 25 European countries, to examine the use of the Internet for children, their activities and their skills, their risks of harm, their parents' consciousness and safety strategies for children's use of the Internet and their risks. Each country has drafted national representative surveys of data collected in a face-to-face interview with 25 142 children aged 9–16 years using the Internet and one of their parents. (Livingstone, Cagiltay & Ólafsson, 2015)

European Union Children Online is a multinational research network. It aims to increase knowledge about the opportunities, risks, and safety of European children online. In dialog with the national and European political actors, it employs multiple methods to map the experience of children and parents on the internet. (Science, 2019)

The EU Kids Online network aims to provide continued empirical evidence of online experiences of children and young people and related risks and opportunities. This includes large scale comparatives as well as smaller studies with specific focus on particular questions in the 2010, as well as 2018-2019, in 25 European countries.

For the last four years, Sonia Livingstone, with EUKIDS, has been a leader in global statistical research. She is involved in the Global Kids Online project, which is primarily financed by the We PROTECT Global Alliance and UNICEF (2015 – 2016). The co-organizers are UNICEF Research Office – Innocenti and EU Kids online, London School of Economics and Political Science (LSE). The EU Kids Online network has taken a theory from a European context and created and experimented with a comparative qualitative research methodology and cross-border survey of the
risks and opportunities experienced by children from 33 nations and approximately 150 disciplines, which encompasses the majority of Europe.

3.2 Methodologies of the Research

In 2018-2019 study sampling from 9 to 17-year-old kids who used the internet at least once in the last three months, about 1000 per country. Collection method:

a) random-probability sample of households with children between 9 and 17 years.

b) sampling via schools.

In terms of how to recruit random samples, there are considerable differences between countries. Do not need a specific sampling method, but solid arguments for the best combination of representativity and viability in the proposed method. In this case, the target population is defined as students between the ages of 9 and 17 who are at school on the day of an inquiry. Students registered in regular, vocational, general or university studies, excluding students that attend special schools or classes for pupils with learning disabilities or severe physical disabilities, are included.

The collection of data at schools is performed through pen and paper or an online questionnaire. Finland, as one of participating countries, doing only statistical approach, interview not included.

Key items of the survey included:

a) Detailed questions to children as to when, where and how the Internet was accessed, the various activities and digital skills

b) Equivalent questions to compare risks and risk related to self - report harm and coping policies for each type of risk

c) Matched issues to compare the risks online and to match the risks online

d) Comparison of questions to the most active parent on the Internet for children concerning children's online risks and parental mediation strategies

e) Mediating factors measures: psychological vulnerability, social support and safety practices
3.3 Quantitative Research

What is quantitative research? Most fundamentally, quantitative research methods are concerned with the collection and analysis of numerically structured data. Quantitative research concentrates on measured data, which is very efficient in response to the "what" or "how" of the situation in question. Questions are direct, quantifiable and often contain sentences like how much? to what extent? how many? Research results reveal behaviors and tendencies from quantitative research. It is important to note, however, that they fail to give an understanding of why people in some ways think, feel or act. (Goertzen, M. J. 2017).

According to Goertzen (2017), Quantitative findings can provide evidence or answers in the following areas:

a) Demonstrate how useful and accessible are services and collection.

b) Safeguard usage and impact claims.

c) Prove how the budget is being spent and whether there should be adjustments.

d) Express return on investment when budget figures are presented.

e) Inform decisions about packages and subscriptions that are worthwhile or not.

f) Demonstrate trend evidence, prove what is anecdotally known or discount it.

g) Provide a way to make information available to audiences.

h) Prove success and highlight areas in which information requirements have not been met.

Quantitative research usually consists of 5 elements: Gathering numerical data objectively, Results lend themselves to statistical analyses, Evaluation of results confirm or refute the original hypothesis, Tests and experiments under controlled conditions, Cause and effect relationships. VanderStoep & Johnston (2009) indicate the advantage of quantitative research is that the results of the study sample reflect more precisely the total population from which the sample was taken. However, there is also disadvantage on quantitative research, Since the study has so many participants, there is little depth to the answers that research participants can give. They could be superficial, or the researchers would be overwhelmed with information which cannot be analyzed adequately.
3.4 Questionnaire in Eu-Kids Research

There are 113 questions in the EU-KIDS questionnaire research (2018-2019). Many of the questions are about the internet. The query pattern posed on the completed form is a good tool to collect this information. Questionnaires are one of the most widely used ways to collect data, and so many innovative business and management researchers and other social science researchers are associated with questionnaires. We use the term questionnaire to refer to documents containing open and closed questions that are requested to be answered by the respondent. Research questionnaires can be distributed by post, email, online surveys, or face-to-face by hand to potential respondents (Rowley, 2014).

A questionnaire must be carefully prepared as a research tool. Failure to ask correct questions will distort the results. The questions requested should be clear. Leading questions must also be avoided. For me, this stage was prefaced since the questionnaire was designed and internationally tested by professional researchers. The reliability of the study is increased by means of the questionnaire already tested (Saaranen - Kauppinen & Puusniekka, 2006).

I will use relevant questions for finding out how youngster is participating online? Additional information will be used for analyzing what kind of media literacy are youth practicing and developing.

For youth participation online. According to Morrissey (2000), studies assess the social impact of participation. These results are often difficult to document, yet changes in the development of individuals, society, and organizations are themselves societies and individuals and organizations are always instrumental in changes in education, the environment, housing and urban development and civil society.

Due to the high connectivity of a large group of young people it is easy to view, read and look at online activities, especially on Facebook, and thus has a good chance of being reached and encouraged to participate. The recent use of Facebook for online political participation, especially in young people, has obviously increased worldwide and it is especially used for influencing social and political change. Youth participation is important as young people draw on their expertise, enable them to exercise their rights as citizens and contribute to a more democratic society. Youth participation is important. It also promotes their own personal growth and offers them substantial knowledge and practical skills.
Media literacy has grown in recent years and is now an everyday part of education in most countries and in many, it is also recognized as an essential civic competence. This not only relates to consuming information via a form of media but also how educators and learners engage, share, collaborate and participate. Some of the earliest developments took place in Nordic countries which have since influenced other nations that have developed media literacy research. Such research has then influenced the methodological and pedagogical approach taken by schools.

3.5 Data acquisition

In Spring 2019, these surveys are performed online. This was selected as the required facilities and personnel needed for that because of its limited resources. Sampling took place at comprehensive Finnish schools representing almost 98% of the population aged.

The modules chosen were Core and Broaden Core and modules Cyberhate, eHealth, and Digital Citizenship. The modules were conducted as instructed and decisions on explaining the questions etc. were left to respective teachers as respondents answered the questions during the school days. The study was run between January 13 to April 27th, Professor Jussi Okkonen was responsible for the whole study.

School sample were geographically weighted random sample among Finnish schools. Students age range was from 9 to 17 years old. There were no teachers and parents interviewed. 2400 received survey and at least 1321 partially answered. The functionality of the translation was tested among three class teachers and the functionality of the actual Survey Tool tool was tested by 8 university students as well as by the research team. The data entry was performed in schools with computer by respondents.

The sampling was based on NUTS2 and NUTS3 classification. The basic unit was school class. Classes were chosen by the contacts possessed by University of Tampere. It covers most of the Finnish comprehensive school units. Finnish system of comprehensive schools covers 96 % of all pupils in target group of the survey. The excluded units are some private schools based on certain ideology such as religion, pedagogy, or other different curricula.

The survey adaptations (question choice, translation, cognitive testing, ethical approval etc.),was conducted by translator and the research team. Finnish, Swedish (in Finnish Swedish) and
English versions were put up. The ethical approval was not needed per se as the schools in Finland grant access for researchers by parental consent collected in the beginning of the school year.

Finnish and Swedish were translated to the survey. 4 people were involved in the translation process. Cross checking was used to ensure accuracy of the translation. Survey Tool used by Tampere university.

Contact details of Finnish schools operated by Tampere University which have been completed through online search if a response request was not sent. The sampling method is random sample of the body of email addresses. None response rate was approach by sampling new classes to fill the gaps in respective NUTS areas.
4 RESULTS

4.1 Youth Participation Online

In the EU-KIDS Online Finland study - My research age group is the children from 14-16 years old and 41% of them are 15 years old. Beyond that, 47% of them are boys and 53% of them are girls. In the questionnaire, we asked how often have you done these things online in past month? There are two activity among all the option. First one is “I got involved online in campaign, protest or I signed a petition online.” Second one is “I discussed political or social problems with other people online.”

Both option can reveal how teenagers participation online. Unfortunately, 73% and 65% of children said they never do these things online. Only 0.7 percent of the children said they often do this. We can see that although Finland and even Northern Europe are very world leaders in media education, children’s media participation is still very low. (see the below tables and figures)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I got involved online in a campaign, protest or I signed a petition online</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>414</td>
<td>65,1</td>
<td>72,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hardly ever</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>19,0</td>
<td>21,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>At least every week</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2,5</td>
<td>2,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Daily or almost daily</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1,9</td>
<td>2,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Several times each day</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,3</td>
<td>0,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Almost all the time</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0,6</td>
<td>0,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>569</td>
<td>89,5</td>
<td>100,0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>I don't know</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2,0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prefer not to say</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1,4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>System</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>7,1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>10,5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>636</td>
<td>100,0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1, I got involved online in a campaign, protest or I signed a petition online.

![Pie chart showing online civic participation](image)

Figure 1, I got involved online in a campaign, protest or I signed a petition online.

The table and figure shows the results of youths online civic participation clearly, if you look at table 1 and figure 1, you will notice that majority of participants not engaged in online campaign, protest or petition, with striking 72%. 2.8% of participants prefer involved in these civic activities once a week. Only 0.4% of participants indicated they participated several times each day.
Table 2, I discussed political or social problems with other people online.
Figure 2, I discussed political or social problems with other people online.

The table 2 and figure 2 reveals similar facts. greater than 65% of participants showed they never discussed political or social problems with other people online, compared with only 0.7% participants do that all most all the time. In terms of “at least every week”, the ratio is 7.1%, slightly higher than table 1 and figure 1. Still, only 0.7% participants do it every day. This result remains the same with table 1 and figure 1.

In conclusion we can tell that youth rarely engaged in civic activities online. I am curious about what causes this. Is their media literacy insufficient? Or, is there any other reason.

4.2 Skills Linked Participation

We can see from the table below that the proportion of teenagers watching videos and listening music online is very high, 36% of the participants watched the video and 26% of the participants listened to music every day. (see below tables and figures)
Table 3, I watched video clips online.

Overall, table 3 and figure 3 shows high engagement in terms of watching video online. “daily or almost daily” has the highest proportion, with 36% of participants. 32% of participants said they watch online video “several times each day”. We can see that the participation of Finnish teenagers in watching videos on the Internet is very high. Only 3% of participants indicate they never do that.
Table 4, I listened to music online.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardly ever</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At least every week</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily or almost daily</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>46.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Several times each day</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>79.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost all the time</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>566</td>
<td>88.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't know</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer not to say</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>636</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4, I listened to music online.

Table 4 and figure 4 describe the online participation with listening music. The result has high similarity with watching video online. 33% of participants indicate they listen to music “several times each day”. Compared with only 3% participants never listen to music online. “Almost all the time” and “daily or almost daily” represent respectively 20% and 26%.
The data above look good, indicating that teenagers are very interested in media like videos and music. However, when it comes to production or sharing, we can see that the data is showing a significant decline. 75% of participants said they never made a video to share with others, only 0.9% of participants said they would do these (see below table and figure).

Table 5, I created my own video or music and uploaded it to share.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>430</td>
<td>67.6</td>
<td>75.2</td>
<td>75.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardly ever</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>92.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At least every week</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>96.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily or almost daily</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>98.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Several times each day</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>99.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost all the time</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>572</td>
<td>91.9</td>
<td></td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't know</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer not to say</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>636</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5, I created my own video or music and uploaded it to share.
Table 5 and figure 5 shows the practical ability related media literacy. We can tell how this data is different from our imagination. 75% of participants, which is 430 number out of 572 total participants, never created their own video or music. It’s extremely different from the data of watching videos and listening to music. “Several times each day” and “Almost all the time” represent 0.9%, Showing a trend of polarization.

I also investigate the difference between boys and girls. Here are the results. For listening to music, we found there are only few of youth never listen to music, boys are 15 out of 252, girls are 6 out of 304. Apart from them, “several time each day” has the highest proportion. Boys are 80 out of 252, girls are 108 out of 304. “daily or almost daily” has the second highest proportion. Boys are 66 out of 252, girls are 82 out of 304. Beyond that, we can tell from the chart that Girls prefer to listen to music than boys. (see below table)

![Table 6, I listened to music online.]

For making video, we found that most of youth don’t create any video or music. Boys are 160 out of 254, girls are 261 out of 308. “Hardly ever” has the highest proportion. The number of boys and girls are 57 and 42. From the chart we can see that for creating video and music, the number of boys is much higher than girls from each angle. (see below table)
Table 7, I created my own video or music and uploaded it to share.

For involving in protest or campaign, we found no matter boys and girls are hardly get involved in these political activities. Boys are 179 out of 254, girls are 229 out of 306. Beyond that, 10 is maximum number of youths who show a bit interest in these activities. (see below table)

Table 8, I got involved online in a campaign, protest or I signed a petition online.

The previous analysis has clearly provided an answer to research question 1 and 2. How youngsters civic participation online? And how is youth media literacy developing? Obliviously, huge part of youth watch video clip or listen music online. For instance, 36% of participants indicate that they watch video clip online daily. However, rarely participants show that they actually make video or
share it, 75% of participants suggest that they never do these things. And also, seldom participants involve in online political activity or campaign. Only 0.7% of participants do that.

The results show no gender difference, no matter boys or girls, don’t participated in online campaign or political activity. However, even the whole participants number of boys is lower than girls. We can tell from the chart that in general, boys are a bit more interested in political activities than girls. (see table 8)

In sum, these findings suggest that Finnish youth’s media participation online and media literacy is very low, except watching videos and listening to music on the web. They lack motivation to participating online political things and ability to creating media related things.

4.3 Discussion

In this thesis, we investigated two research questions to determine the online participation level of young people, and to examine media literacy among youths, respectively. Our results have indicated strong verification in support of the research question. First, it wasn't shocking that younger participants were more likely to being online.

However, the clear conclusion is that youth participation online in political or civic activities was lower. Even in Finland, which leads the world in media education, participation remains low. Also, we found that although participants often watched video or listened to music, they rarely produced such content and Shared it. The training in media literacy is not a very common activity in youth work in the communes in Finland, for example in media workshops. But its participation increased gradually, partially because of the technological advances in digital youth consulting. (Kotilainen, 2009)

How do young people in contemporary communities build their civic identities? Civic authority cannot be extracted solely from political society, but derives from individual overall development (Dahlgren, 2006). In the present context, the term ‘youth political participation’ refers to the involvement of young people in policy decision-making and various forms of activism, the latter being the associative expression of the will to enact social change. Political participation among young people, and older age groups, is an issue that has attracted considerable academic and policy attention over a relatively long period of time.
Different approaches have been reported for young people to get out of conventional party-driven politics and online political engagement has since been recognized as a potential avenue to link young people to politics ((Delli Carpini 2000).

The researchers, communists, communicators and activists can showcase four types of young people's civic identities with regard to the mass media (Kotilainen & Rantala, 2009; Livingstone, Bober & Helsper, 2004). The seekers are the young people who still want to engage in community issues and communicate with communities. Such young people could also be regarded in their own words as future political agents as they explore the problems, societies and spaces. Communists refer to more traditional citizens who often believe they can have voice in their own lives but do not think it is important to act more publicly. In peer and hobby groups they appear to be involved. The communicators are young people who relate to multiple communities through media, but often do not see this engagement politically. Finally, protesters are young people who have general interest issues and want to connect publicly. (Kotilainen, 2009)

Nevertheless, future research is needed to determine the differing political impacts and effect of these various types of involvement. There are still big research gap in this changing society.

Will cultural or creative methods of making an argument be seen as civic and political engagement in medium- and civic education? It appears to be important for the young people of our study to be involved in media advertising and perhaps to receive feedback from the public. The main focus of this type of media education is not just on media skills, but also on senses of social commitment, publicity and public participation.

A suggestion made by Levine (2008) is that schools and youth workers should engage in generational interactions whereby adolescent media productions have the adults become the audience to absorb the opinions of the young. We would like to say that building "public audience strategies" is the primary task today in the education of civil media: young people need audiences to create public debates and to be able to speak.

The findings of this study allow the youth to be more involved in political and civic engagement. For the politicians it remains a challenge to find ways of making young people more political engagement. The results of this study can however not be extrapolated to the entire Finnish youth community. This is the biggest constraint of this analysis. Another drawback of the research is the lack of an accurate measure of young participatory politics.
5 EVALUATING THE STUDY

5.1 Quantitative Research

This study is a quantitative research. The accuracy of our research depends on the core questionnaire questions. The first question concerns to the degree of match between the questionnaire and the research question. Questionnaire producers need to provide questions that are more in line with research questions to ensure data collection and analysis. Because the limitation of Eu-Kids questionnaire, the final results may not be so rigorous.

Sampling is limited by the in-class differences. I.e. all who received the survey did not answer it or not all questions. Moreover, the survey method cause bias to older age groups (upper comprehensive school students)

The second question is about how meaningful is the answer from participants? We know that because of its limited resources, these surveys are performed online. How willingness they are to participate in this survey? And the answer they give is their true thoughts? Researcher should acknowledge this possibility.

5.2 Ethical Considerations

According to Stald and Haddon (2009), Children are particularly sensitive to risk exposure on the Internet. Many universities across Europe do not impose any ethical conditions on researchers. Thus, the coordinator requested the approval of research ethics from the LSE Committee on Research Ethics on behalf of the fieldwork in all countries.

Livingstone (2015) indicate, Special attention has been paid to ensuring informed child and parental consent. The study's financing, goals, intended value, and national / coordinating contacts were written to every household and were also explained verbally to parents and children. Therefore, researchers ensure the research findings are anonymously published.
This research explores the youth media literacy and offers a description of youth media engagement activities, especially the situation in Finland. I am not only concluding this chapter but also providing suggestions for further improvements in media engagement activities. It was an extremely challenging task, because it wasn't easy to define media participation, as it appears at many levels. Without a specific political purpose, this can be a deliberate public event or social behavior.

The objective of this study was to see how youngsters civic participation online. The research was based on EU-KIDs research. Related questions were picked to analyzed. And outcome was fruitful, we can see the situation of civic and political participation and media production ability of young people. Providing a basis for future research. As far as I concerned, teenagers do not care about politics is normal. Because we know that, the more information that is relevant to the reader, the more attention it draws to the reader, and the greater the relevance to the reader's immediate interests, the more attention it receives. For young people in most ordinary families, it’s hard to realize the relationship between politics and them. The politics they understand are all derived from the news and books. So, their interest in the leaders ‘speech may be far less than the interest of NIKE in selling new sneakers. So young people do not care about politics is easy to understand.

Future media literacy should evolve from its past state. In Nordic nations, there are no restrictions on access to technology, and consequently, these progressions are evident. In the context of a conventional curriculum, media education is no longer as necessary as it has been in the past. Now it is more of a component of primary parts of the curriculum that encompasses conventional literacy subjects and is also assimilated into all other subjects.
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