Managing Media: Segmenting Media through Consumer Expectancies

Matt Eastin[1], Vincent Cicchirillo[2], Nicole Cunningham[3], Ming-Ching Liang[4]

ARTICLE INFO

Available Online April 2014
Key words:
Segmentation;
Media Management;
Motivations;
Uses & Gratifications.

ABSTRACT

It has long been understood that consumers are motivated to media differently. However, given the lack of comparative model analysis, this assumption is without empirical validation, and thus, the orientation of segmentation from a media management perspective is without motivational grounds. Thus, evolving the literature on media consumption, the current study develops and compares models of media segmentation within the context of use. From this study, six models of media expectancies were constructed so that motivational differences between media (i.e., local and national newspapers, network and cable television, radio, and Internet) could be observed. Utilizing higher order statistical analyses the data indicate differences across a model comparison approach for media motivations. Furthermore, these differences vary across numerous demographic factors. Results afford theoretical advancement within the literature of consumer media consumption as well as provide media planners' insight into consumer choices.

Introduction

The changing media landscape has made it increasingly difficult to separate media motivations from one another. For example, while the ability to customize and obtain up-to-date news and entertainment information is generally associated with the Internet, digital cable networks are now providing on demand and customized information through interactive guides. Likewise, mimicking television, the Internet has begun to provide video-based programming through the websites containing video clips, feature films, etc. While these changes have allowed users more choices, understanding how media are perceived inside the current multimedia environment is relatively unknown (Bachmann, Kaufhold, Lewis, & Gil de Zúñiga, 2010). Examined almost exclusively in the uses and gratifications framework, media researchers have collectively focused on the psychological motives influencing media (Haridakis, 2012); however, except for a few examples (Katz, Gurevitch, & Hass, 1973; Bachmann, Kaufhold, Lewis, & Gil de Zúñiga, 2010), researchers have not developed equivalent measures that can empirically evaluate multiple media simultaneously.

It is crucial for practitioners and researchers understand what drives, media choice in order to reach target audiences using the appropriate marketing communication channels (e.g. Advertising, public relations). Media practitioners developing strategic communication plans are concerned with deciding who to target, when, and with what message. Failure to understand how media are perceived and the motivations driving choice may lead to a poor strategic communication plan and a rush-to-market approach (Kwik, 2009). For instance, industry statistics indicate that 50 to 80 percent of new products fail within five years (Kwik, 2009). While not all failures are the result of poor channel planning, the lack of media planning severely reduces a new product's already slim chance to succeed in the marketplace. Thus, it is important to understand how media differs to ensure that media messages return on investment. A poorly developed strategic plan could negatively impact a company or product's success or future.

In order to create and implement a successful strategic communication plan for clients, media practitioners need to understand what determinants influence media choice and, thus, better target their audiences. Using the theory of niche (Dimmick, 2003), uses and gratifications, and media orientation research, this research investigates media choice between local newspaper, national newspaper, network television, cable television, radio, magazine and Internet use by defining motivational measurement models that broadly

[1] Associate Professor, Department of Advertising, University of Texas at Austin, United States, Email: matt.eastin@mail.utexas.edu
[2] Assistant Professor, Department of Advertising, University of Texas at Austin, United States, Email: vcicchirillo98@yahoo.com
[3] University of Texas at Austin, United States, Email: n.cunningham@utexas.edu
[4] Department of Advertising, University of Texas at Austin, United States, Email: mingching.liang@gmail.com

capture media choices at the mega-media (or modular) level. Finally, along with age, gender, income, and education, how media choices predict models of use will be presented.

Theoretical Position of Media Use

Explaining media competition, the theory of niche proposes that a new medium competes with older media to fulfill user needs by providing gratification opportunities beyond those currently available (Dimmick, 2003). According to Dimmick, the introduction of a new medium may or may not create competition with older media. If competition does exist between media, the newer medium may take on functions fulfilled by the older medium. In such a situation, older media are faced with exclusion or displacement.

Within the media literature, gratifications have commonly been defined as utilities that explain media choice and use (Rosengren, Wenner, & Palmgreen, 1985; Dimmick, 2003; Haridakis, 2012), while gratification opportunities are more specifically defined as the opportunities for obtaining gratification. According to niche theory, the degree to which a medium elevates or diminishes in the marketplace depends on niche superiority on gratification opportunity dimensions. Broadly speaking, niche theory examines the breadth, or the degree of niche overlap among different media, and superiority of a medium in relation to other media on gratification-opportunities. Niche superiority does not suggest that a medium fails to provide gratification-opportunities; but rather, it simply suggests that some (perhaps new or changing) media provide greater opportunities than others. For example, while newspaper, television, radio, magazine and Internet all provide information opportunities, one may be better equipped to fulfill this need. The idea of medium superiority is similar to the media substitution hypothesis and the functional alternative concept. Here, users are thought to replace a functionally similar medium for another when specific gratifications can be met through the use of an available alternative (Lin, 1999). Examples offered include the substitution of radio by television (Lasswell, 1948), the VCR in place of movie attendance (Henke & Donohue, 1989), and television and newspaper by the Internet for news (Dimmick, Chen, & Li, 2004). A goal of the current study is to develop and explore what choices are perceived as superior both within and between the media under investigation.

During the rise of digital media (i.e., the Internet), a research agenda led by Ferguson and Perse (2000), Flanagin and Metzger (2001), and Bachmann, Kaufhold, Lewis, & Gil de Zúñiga (2010) considered the extent to which psychological motives once thought to drive television use were being displaced by the Internet. Using television-related motives Ferguson and Perse (2000) reported that motives such as entertainment, the passing of time, and information, predicted Internet use. Thus, indicating that the Internet might be a functional alternative to television with regard to these motives. Although Ferguson and Perse (2000) defined television motives common to the Internet, their research never examined the predictive nature of these items and constructs to television use. Later, Flanagin and Metzger (2001) asked participants to rate the importance of 21 different needs by communication channel. Initial analysis examined nine different media channels. These channels consisted of books and magazines, face-to-face, newspaper, phone, television, and four Internet related channels – email, Internet information retrieval, Internet conversation and Internet information giving. From these, three categories were clustered together–mass communication (e.g., books and magazines, Internet Information retrieval, Internet information giving, television and newspaper), mediated interpersonal channels (e.g., Internet conversations, telephone, and e-mail), and unmediated interpersonal channels (e.g., face-to-face). Each cluster identified similarities among communication channels by needs; however, how the clusters differ from one another was not examined. Moreover, although informative, by allowing communication technologies to vary across clusters, medium comparisons were not possible.

To this end, regardless of the application, gratifications have commonly been defined as utilities that explain media choice and use (Haridakis, 2012), while gratification opportunities are more specifically defined as the opportunities for obtaining gratification. In an attempt to add a strong theoretical perspective to the gratification framework, LaRose and Eastin (2004) theoretically positioned the gratification sought / obtained model within Bandura's outcome expectancies. It was thought that this conceptualization would look at what users expected to gain from a media based on previous encounters. In doing so, LaRose and Eastin were able to maintain the integrity of the uses and gratifications framework, while increasing the amount of variance explained through motivations – now defined as expectancies.

Orientation of Audience Segmentation

Schemas associated with media orientation influence both an individual's perception and his or her valuation of a medium. The creation or acquisition of media-related schemas depend on a range of factors, such as age, gender, socialization, life stage, status, time pressure, and media use (Van Rees & Van Eijck, 2003). For example, children who were avid viewers of a children's television network (e.g. Disney, Cartoon Network) may shift toward other stations or to other media (e.g. Internet) as they grow older. However, those who grew up outside of the digital age may be more loyal to traditional media such as newspapers, magazines, radio, and television. This may change if their preferred media outlet becomes obsolete (e.g. newspaper or magazine is discontinued or a radio or television program is cancelled). In this case, they may resort to new media, such as the Internet, to satisfy their information or entertainment needs. Thus, media choice may change under the influence of a new life stage or a change in the media landscape via new media or new content.

An individual's social status can also significantly impact media choice. For example, one could argue that print media may be preferred by those in a higher status class, whereas television may be preferred by those in middle and lower status classes. Additionally, new media may more popular among younger individuals. Moreover, it is possible that consumers may view more traditional media as more legitimate than new media. Van Rees and van Eijck (2003) argued that in situations where an individual's selection of media content fits his or her status takes precedence (e.g. high status and high-brow media), it is likely that within each medium use, there is a differentiation by status, particularly in regards to education. Thus, in addition to newspapers and magazines, specifically those of the opinion or editorial nature, those in higher status classes prefer "serious" television content, while those in lower status classes prefer "light" entertainment through popular newspapers and the yellow press and, increasingly, commercial television (Van Rees & Van Eijck, 2003, p. 468). Therefore, those in a higher status class would be appear to be more motivated by information than entertainment and vice versa for consumers in a lower status class. Additionally, media use may be a by-product of socialization. For some groups, one-sided socialization at an early age may result in one-sided media use. One-sided media use – or limited in range – is more common among lower status classes, whereas consumers in higher status classes are more inclined to combine a variety of content using different media (Van Rees & Van Eijck, 2003). In fact, previous research has shown that young, highly educated consumers are 'omnivorous,' meaning they tend to combine heterogeneous categories of items; for example, informative print media and television entertainment (Van Rees, Vermunt, J., & Verboord,1999; Van Eijck and Van Rees, 2000; Van Rees & Van Eijck, 2003).

To this end, in addition to general motivation, the present study focuses on age, gender, income, and education as influential in the configuration of an individual's media orientation. Here, it is important for media practitioners to understand what influences individuals' media orientation in order to effectively target them as an audience.

RQ1: ***How do demographic segments differ across major platforms (newspaper, television, radio, and Internet)?***

Defining Media Opportunities

According to Horn & McArdle (1992) and McPhee's (1963) development of standardized units, measures developed for comparison purposes must be free of content, conceptually grounded in previous research, and broad enough to be statistically observed. Thus, the current study will establish invariant measures of psychological motivation by medium. Through the creation of invariant constructs, researchers will be better able to understand when new media such as the Internet operates as a superior medium (or functional alternative) to existing media such as newspaper, television, and radio. The current research will evaluate three commonly identified predictors of media use – information, entertainment, and social (Larose & Eastin, 2004; Papacharissi & Rubin, 2000; Lin, 1999; Ferguson & Perse, 2000). In addition to the three motivation predictors, demographic variables – age, gender, ethnicity, education, and income – will also be examined.

Information Opportunities. Information acquisition or surveillance has been a significant predictor of newspaper, television and Internet use (Flanagin & Metzger, 2001; Ferguson & Perse, 2000). Berelson (1949) noted that by providing information and interpretation of public affairs newspapers were used as a daily tool for living. Similarly, for television and Internet consumers this is defined as the opportunity to obtain local, regional and world news, information about people and places, decision making, and finally, knowledge acquisition (LaRose & Eastin, 2004; Charney & Greenberg, 2002; Rubin, Perse & Powell, 1995). Recently, Kang (2002) established that the use of advanced television features such as interactive program

guides offered through digital television services allow users more options to customize and expand their information opportunities.

While television has been considered the leading information outlet for the past 50 years, information immediacy, depth, and potential customization position the Internet as functionally superior. For example, Ha and Fang (2012) found the Internet has displaced traditional media such as newspapers and television in the daily news domain. Among experienced Internet users, there was an increasing overlap between the Internet and traditional media, which resulted in perceiving the Internet as superior to traditional media. One reason for this could be the easy accessibility of a wide range of information and news on the Internet.

In addition to visiting news sites, users are increasingly using social media to seek information. Furthermore, Park, Kee and Valenzuela (2009) found that Internet users are using social networking sites to obtain information about nearby activities. However, Kang (2002) argues that the evolution of digital television is increasing information immediacy, depth, and customization. In this case, the sources for information can provide similar content, fulfill a similar need, and thus, this study seeks to develop an informative measure, defined as the likelihood that people are able to stay informed, gain knowledge, and get information through medium use. Once developed, the measure can be used to determine which media provides greater information opportunities through their relationship with use.

Entertainment Opportunities. For some research, entertainment as a psychological motive to media use has distinctly focused on the need for users to be entertained and the need for users to relax (also defined as escapism) (Ferguson & Perse, 2000). However, Internet research (Lin, 1999, Song, LaRose, Eastin, & Lin, 2004) has extended this measure to include the concepts of activity (cheer myself up), pleasing sensory (cognitive stimulating), and self-reactivity (e.g., relieve boredom) (LaRose & Eastin, 2004). Thus, while the conceptual definition of entertainment has extended to different theoretical frameworks, the operationalization of the construct has remained relatively consistent. This research looks to create a measure of entertainment that fits the modular approach so that entertainment can be compared as an independent predictor of media use. From this measure, it will then be determined which medium is perceived as serving these entertainment opportunities differently.

Social Opportunities. Media use, such as television, radio, and the Internet, has been motivated by social needs. As social interactions, parasocial and development motives are established to counter real-world social deficiencies by extending social contacts to include new (perceived) virtual relationships. Research has defined parasocial interactions as the extent to which people identify with the characters they watch on television, while Internet research has operationalized this as the extent to which people extend their social system through people they encounter online (Eastin & LaRose, 2005).

In order to create a social construct suitable for medium comparison, one must first look to the construction of these mediated interactions. With television, people experiencing a lack of real-world relationships develop a social interaction deficiency, and subsequently develop parasocial relationships to fill a real-world social void. This is similar to the rationale being offered by Eastin and LaRose, (2004) who indicate when the depth of offline relationships is low, online support activity increases to offset what is lacking in the real-world – also defined as a buffering model. Taking into account both television-based parasocial interactions and online social interactions, this study will broadly define social expectancies as the extension of one's social connections for social needs. In doing so, this research will broadly define social expectancies as using a media to find something to talk about, maintain a relationship, and get support from others.

RQ2: How do motivations for media consumption differ across major platforms (newspaper, television, radio, and Internet)?

Methodology

Procedures

The data analyzed were obtained from a large state agency [5]conducting a statewide media assessment. All data were gathered online through an opt-in online panel. The online panel consists of approximately 6.5 million active users. Nearly one million of those users resides in the state the survey was conducted. Data

[5] We would like to thank the Texas Department of Transportation for allowing us to use this data.

were collected over a one week period of time. There were no reminders sent during the data collection. Participants received a modest award for participation. Taking approximately 15 minutes to complete, the survey assessed media consumption, media motivation, and awareness of the state agency from which the data was obtained. Only the media use, media expectancy, and demographic data will be used in this research. Data were collected to represent the state from which it was collected.

Sample

Of those solicited, 1,695 completed the survey. Participants completing the questionnaire consisted of 59% females and 41% males with a mean age of 56.41 (SD = 14.42). Participants were mainly Hispanic or Latino origin (41%) or Caucasian (36%), followed by African American (19%), Other/Biracial (3%) and Asian (2%). Participants were highly educated, with most having earned a Bachelor's degree (34%) or some college credit (27%), followed by those with a Master's degree (16%). Other participants indicated they had a 2-year college degree (10%) or at least a high school diploma or GED (8%). Very few participants indicated they had a professional (3%) or doctoral degree (2%). Even less indicated they had less than a high school education (1%). Of the participants, most earned a yearly salary of more than $100,000 (25%), followed by those earning between $40,000-$59,000 (20%), $20,000-$39,000 (17%), $60,000-$79,000 (16%), $80,000-$99,000 (14%), and below $20,000 (8%).

Measures

Media Use. Media consumption was measured across seven different media outlets – local newspaper, national newspapers, network television, cable television, radio, and Internet. All usage was measured with two items (i.e., weekday and weekend) in hours and minutes. To maintain a consistent unit of measurement all time was converted into minutes. An inspection of the distributions of responses to these items revealed that outliers were present and so a logl0(1+value) transform was applied to each one after summing the two items. Data indicated the following usage for each media: Local Newspaper (M = 1.37, SD = .98), National Newspaper (M = .79, SD = .94), Network Television (M = 2.25, SD = .79), Cable Television (M = 2.13, SD = 1.00), Radio (M = 2.05, SD = .91), and Internet (M = 2.45, SD = .81).

Each expectancy construct was adapted from previous research conducted by LaRose and Eastin (2004). All commonly held items were measured on five point Likert-type scales that asked the respondents the likelihood of an event occurring during media exposure. All scaled items ranged from Strongly Disagree (score = 1) to Strongly Disagree (score = 5).

Information Expectancy. Information expectancies were broadly defined as the likelihood of being informed through media exposure. With the rise of digital media such as the Internet and satellite television, the total number of information outlets and type of specialty programs as well as other general information resources such as local weather, information options, etc., has increased, and thus, it is becoming more plausible for media users to customize their use. Thus, information opportunities were measured with three common Likert-type items across each media, which consisted of: (1) to stay informed (2) to get information, and (3) to gain knowledge. Local Newspaper (M = 3.39, SD = 1.12, α = .94), National Newspaper (M = 2.91, SD = 1.13, α = .91), Network Television (M = 3.87, SD = .82, α = .88), Cable Television (M = 3.38, SD = .96, α = .89), Radio (M = 3.47, SD = .97, α = .92), and Internet (M = 3.91, SD = .80, α = .88).

Entertainment Expectancy. Entertainment expectancies were broadly defined as the likelihood of being entertained through media exposure. Thus, entertainment opportunities were measured with five common Likert-type items across each media, which consisted of: (1) to forget my problems (2) to relax, (3) to pass the time, (4) be entertained, and (5) be happy. Local Newspaper (M = 2.42, SD = .89, α = .88), National Newspaper (M = 2.31, SD = .94, α = .92), Network Television (M = 3.25, SD = .75, α = .77), Cable Television (M = 3.28, SD = .81, α = .80), Radio (M = 3.41, SD = .79, α = .81), and Internet (M = 3.25, SD = .83, α = .82).

Social Expectancy. Social expectancies were broadly defined as the likelihood of using a medium as a social outlet. Social expectancies were assessed using three items that asked the likelihood of using each medium to "find something to talk about," "maintain a relationship I value," and "get support from others." Local Newspaper (M = 2.25, SD = .98, α = .90), National Newspaper (M = 2.17, SD = .99, α = .91), Network Television (M = 2.40, SD = .94, α = .87), Cable Television (M = 2.41, SD = 1.00, α = .89), Radio (M = 2.38, SD = .99, α = .88), and Internet (M = 2.64, SD = 1.06, α = .86).

Data Analysis

To investigate how media compare in terms of the motivation patterns, path analyses with two-group approach were conducted. The analysis, performed with Mplus 5, consists of five steps: (1) run path analysis with two groups separately; (2) run two-group modeling with all paths unconstrained (M0); (3) run two-group modeling with all paths constrained (M1); (4) compare M0 and M1 to see if model fit changes; (5) free paths stepwise according to modification indices to determine the sources of differences. Here, the threshold of modification indices was set to 3.84. In other words, the removal of path constraint will lead to a significant chi-square decrease in the model fit ($\Delta\chi^2(1)>3.84$). Therefore, the path coefficients should be estimated freely and thus considered different. The stepwise procedure was stopped when excellent model fit was achieved or not when the modification index was greater than 3.84.

Results

Comparing Network TV and Cable TV. The unconstrained model fit the data better than the fully constrained model ($\Delta\chi^2(7)=93.03$, ΔCFI=.11). The stepwise process of lifting constraints was conducted. Freely estimated paths included media use on entertainment ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=35.66$), information ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=24.49$), and social ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=17.854$). Compared to network TV use, the use of cable TV was better explained by entertainment and social motivation but less determined by information motivation.

Comparing Network TV and Local Newspapers. The model fit of constrained model did not significantly differ from the unconstrained one ($\Delta\chi^2(7)= 11.53$, $p>.05$).

Comparing Network TV and National Newspapers. The constrained model demonstrated a worse fit than the unconstrained model ($\Delta\chi^2(7)=44.90$, ΔCFI=.051). The stepwise process freed the path from age to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=15.50$), which indicated that age has a stronger influence on network TV use than on national newspaper use.

Comparing network TV and magazine. Significant differences in model fit was found between unconstrained and constrained models ($\Delta\chi^2(7)=46.72$, ΔCFI=.055). The path from age to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=12.57$) and that from education to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=10.79$) were freely estimated. Age better predicted the use of network TV while education contributed more to magazine use.

Comparing Network TV and Radio. The unconstrained model fit the data better than the fully constrained model ($\Delta\chi^2(7)= 66.83$, ΔCFI=.077). The stepwise process suggested to remove the constraints on the path from age to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=35.74$) and the path from income to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=12.97$). It appears that income played a more important role in predicting radio use, while age is more influential on network use.

Comparing Network TV and Internet: The unconstrained model fit data better than constrained model ($\Delta\chi^2(7)=66.07$, ΔCFI=.091). According to the stepwise process, the path from age to use should be freely estimated ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=55.58$). Age is positively related to network use, but negatively related to Internet use.

Comparing Cable TV and Local Newspaper: The unconstrained model fit the data better than the constrained model ($\Delta\chi^2(7)=90.31$, ΔCFI=.081). Three paths were suggested to be freely estimated: from age to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=28.70$), from information motivation to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=14,84$), and from entertainment to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=35.51$). Age and information motivation were stronger predictors of media use in the local newspaper model, but entertainment motivation played a more important role in predicting cable TV use.

Comparing Cable TV and National Newspaper: Fit of the unconstrained model was significantly better than the constrained model ($\Delta\chi^2(7)=92.09$, ΔCFI=.113). The stepwise process indicated significant difference in three paths: from entertainment motivation to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=42.31$), from social motivation to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=19.77$), and from information motivation to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=15.72$). Information motivation better explained national newspaper use, but it was the only motivation variable that turned out to be a significant predictor in the national newspaper model.

Comparing Cable TV and Magazine. Analysis showed that the unconstrained model fit the data better than the constrained ($\Delta\chi^2(7)= 25.43$, ΔCFI=.025). Here, the entertainment motivation appeared to be a stronger predictor in the cable TV model ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=11.78$).

Comparing Cable TV and Radio. A significant difference in model fit was found between the unconstrained and constrained models ($\Delta\chi^2(7)=26.35$, $\Delta CFI=.025$). Entertainment motivation better predicted media use in the cable TV model than in the radio model ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=9.45$).

Comparing Cable TV and Internet. The unconstrained model showed a better model fit than the constrained model ($\Delta\chi^2(7)=93.44$, $\Delta CFI=.134$). Four paths were suggested to be estimated freely: from entertainment motivation to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=38.49$), from social motivation to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=20.04$), from income to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=13.19$), and from information motivation to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=11.12$). Entertainment and social motivations were more influential in the cable TV model, whereas income and information motivation were more important in predicting the use of Internet.

Comparing Local Newspaper and National Newspaper. The model fit of the unconstrained model is significantly better than that of the constrained model ($\Delta\chi^2(7)=61.52$, $\Delta CFI=.055$). The path from age to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=26.22$) and the path from entertainment motivation to sue ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=20.34$) were suggested to be estimated freely. While age and entertainment motivation were related to local newspaper use, both variables were not significant predictors to the use of national use.

Comparing Local Newspaper and Magazine. The unconstrained model explained the data better than the constrained model ($\Delta\chi^2(7)=55.08$, $\Delta CFI=.049$). Two paths were suggested to be estimated freely: from age to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=20.91$), and from information motivation to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=17.38$). Age and information motivation played a more important role in predicting local newspaper use than in predicting magazine use.

Comparing Local Newspaper and Radio. The unconstrained model demonstrated a better fit than the constrained model ($\Delta\chi^2(7)=81.18$, $\Delta CFI=.072$). The stepwise process indicated differences in the path from age to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=44.45$), and the path from information motivation to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=12.28$). Age and information motivation turned out to be stronger predictors for media use in the local newspaper model than in the radio model.

Comparing Local Newspaper and Internet. The model fit of unconstrained model significantly different from that of the constrained model ($\Delta\chi^2(7)=87.95$, $\Delta CFI=.090$). Age was positively correlated to local newspaper use but negatively correlated to Internet use.

Comparing National Newspaper and Magazine. The unconstrained model fit the data better than the constrained model ($\Delta\chi^2(7)= 49.51$, $\Delta CFI=.061$). While entertainment motivation better explained magazine use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=13.89$), information motivation better predicted national newspaper use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=12.40$).

Comparing National Newspaper and Radio. The unconstrained model demonstrated a better model fit than the constrained model ($\Delta\chi^2(7)=57.06$, $\Delta CFI=.067$). Four paths were suggested to be estimated freely: from entertainment to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=16.34$), from gender to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=9.85$), from income to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=8.73$), and from information motivation to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=7.52$). Females were more likely to use radio and males were more likely to read national newspaper. Income and entertainment motivation explained radio use better, while information motivation was more influential to national newspaper use.

Comparing National Newspaper and Internet. The unconstrained model fit the data better than the constrained model ($\Delta\chi^2(7)=23.33$, $\Delta CFI=.026$). While age did not correlate to national newspaper use, it did explain Internet use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=10.01$).

Comparing magazine and radio. The model fit of unconstrained model was not significantly different from that of the constrained model ($\Delta\chi^2(7)= 12.05$, $p>.05$).

Comparing Magazine and Internet. The unconstrained model fit the data better than the constrained model ($\Delta\chi^2(7)=52.64$, $\Delta CFI=.075$). Based on the stepwise process, constraints on two paths were removed: from income to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=13.56$) and from entertainment motivation to use ($\Delta\chi^2(1)=13.89$). Entertainment was a stronger predictor for magazine use than for Internet use. Also, while age did not significantly correlate with magazine use, it was negatively related to Internet use.

Comparing Radio and Internet. The constrained model showed a worse model fit than the unconstrained model ($\Delta\chi^2(7)=48.79$, $\Delta CFI=.064$). The path from income to use was suggested to be estimated freely

($\Delta\chi^2(1)=21.78$). Income was positively related to radio use, but did not turn out to be a significant predictor for Internet use.

Appendix

	Ent.	Info.	Social	Income	Gender	Edu.	Age	Model Fit
NTV	.168***	.324***	-.018	.063**	.008	-.033	.166***	Just identified R^2=.216***
CTV	.423***	.176***	-.162***	.110***	-.009	-.017	.027	Just identified R^2=.223***
LN	.170***	.447***	-.001	.044*	.002	.004	.167***	Just identified R^2=.331***
NN	.017	.405***	.029	.031	-.063**	.080**	-.004	Just identified R^2=.203***
MAG	.318***	.217***	-.094**	.086***	.055*	.059*	.035	Just identified R^2=.196***
RAD	.279***	.272***	-.101***	.163***	.046*	-.010	-.038	Just identified R^2=.220***
INT	.129***	.317***	-.056*	-.002	-.009	.031	-.091***	Just identified R^2=.156***

Table 1. Standardized path coefficients on media use.

NTV=network television, CTV=cable television, LN=local newspaper, NN=national newspaper, MAG=magazine, RAD=radio, INT=Internet. *** $p<.001$, ** $p<.01$, * $p<.05$

[1] For a complete review of Niche see Dimmick (2003).

[1] For a complete review of niche breadth, overlap, and superiority see Dimmick (2003).

Discussion

The following study examined the role of motivations and more importantly expected outcomes across different media. Furthermore, this study examined those motivations for each medium across predictive demographic variables. Utilizing advanced modeling techniques the results showed significant model comparisons across media and across demographic factors.

Demographic Differences

Age was found to be more predictive in network television usage (compared to national newspapers, radio, & Internet), local newspaper usage (compared to cable TV, national newspaper, radio, Internet & magazine), and Internet usage albeit in a negative direction (compared to national newspaper & magazines). Thus, we might expect that age be only negatively related to newer media options. Meaning younger individuals only consume newer options compared to more traditional ones. Overall, it can be seen that younger audiences are more motivated by newer media options, like the Internet (age was negatively related to Internet usage) than more traditional sources (national newspapers & magazines). On the other hand, we see that age positively predicts more traditional options such as local newspaper usage and network television over Internet usage. However, indicative of our previous considerations we see that various media options are predicted across age. Meaning that with the exception of Internet usage, age offers a predictive complimentary pattern to media consumption.

Other significant demographic predictors showed significant power in explaining media gratifications. For instance, income had more predicted power for radio usage (compared to network television, national newspaper, and Internet) and Internet usage (compared to cable tv). Thus, in comparison we see that income was a factor in explaining gratifications for radio and Internet usage over other options. Rather than displacing media across income levels we see that radio and Internet may function as complimentary roles based upon income levels.

Expectancy Differences

First, the comparisons did show that some media are better predictors of some motivations than others. As outlined, information expectancies relate to a medium's ability to inform the viewer of relevant facts, beliefs, and news. Comparative results show that certain media are more predictive in their ability to deliver certain types of content. For instance, information motivations demonstrated better predictive power for local newspaper usage (compared to cable TV, magazines, & radio), national newspaper usage (compared to cable TV, magazines, & radio), and Internet usage (compared to cable TV). This is not to say that information motivation do not predict use within each model (see Table 1), but rather, that media with weaker predictive power are more likely serving as a supplement or compliment.

Entertainment expectancies are the ability of a medium to deliver enjoyable or pleasurable experiences. The comparative results showed that entertainment motivations had better predictive power for cable TV usage (compared to network TV, local newspaper, magazines, radio, & Internet), local newspaper usage (compared to national newspapers) radio usage (compared to national newspapers), and magazine usage (compared to the Internet). Other media were also shown to have stronger predictive power for social expectancies as well as entertainment ones. Social expectancies are the ability of a medium to deliver a social function based upon relational communication. The comparative results showed that social motivations had better predictive power for cable TV usage (compared to network TV, national newspapers, and Internet). The finding that cable TV usage is better predicted via entertainment and social motivations than Internet usage is somewhat surprising.

For instance, early research on Internet motivations has shown that interpersonal utility, pass time, information seeking, convenience, and entertainment strongly predicted Internet usage (Papacharissi & Rubin, 2000). The interpersonal utility lies in the ability of media to deliver inclusion and social interaction expectations. Furthermore, the results indicated that interpersonal utility explained a large percentage of the variance in Internet motives (Papacharissi & Rubin, 2000). Although, the researchers noted that this utility is tough to explain given the multiple of interpersonal contexts available on the survey. In relation Papacharissi and Rubin (2000) noted that "interpersonal utility reflects a motivation of people who were less involved with others in face-to-face contact. So to compensate for that, the less involved interacted more actively on an alternate social space, the Internet" (p. 190-191).

Similarly, Ferguson and Perse (2000) examined whether or not the Internet is functional alternative to television in terms of goals such as informational and entertainment. Inherent in this examination is that as different and diverse media are introduced into an individual's media diet some may take the place of others. The results of Ferguson and Perse (2000) showed that the Internet has strong motives for entertainment that may be used as an alternative to television usage. However, it was noted that relaxation or passing the time were not strongly related to Internet usage motives and that motivations for Internet usage overall were more goal directed because of the interactive nature of the web (Ferguson & Perse, 2000). Thus, we might commonly expect that the Internet displaces traditional media for an individual's entertainment and social motivations. However, our data point to a more complimentary path than a more displacing one.

Individuals only have so much time and money to spend on differing media options. As mentioned Niche Theory (Dimmick, Chen, & Li, 2004) holds that newer media options compete with older media options for consumers' time and attention. Furthermore, that newer options may effectively address the needs or motivations held by older media and thereby usurp the ability to meet with that motivation. This results in the newer option displacing the older medium and replacing it within an individual's media repertoire (Dimmick et al., 2004). However, thinking that media displace others may not necessarily reflect the actual media environment. For instance, van der Wurff (2011) noted that while niche theory makes logical assumptions, it has rarely been empirically tested. Moreover, van der Wurff (2011) found evidence to suggest that news media consumption across various media options (traditional vs. new) can serve as a functional alternative dependent on accessibility and habit formation. Thus, rather than displacing or replacing traditional media options in terms of gratifications and opportunities newer ones (media) may function as a supplement to other media options based on availability.

It could be that rather than having a substitution effect, as proposed in Niche Theory, that multi-modal media options are complimentary to one other. For instance, Vyas, Singh, and Bhabhra (2007) examined the potential displacement effect of the Internet on traditional media options (newspapers) for news content. Based upon the results concluding both newspaper (hardcopy) and Internet news readership that "reading

news on Internet is complimentary to reading newspaper and it is not substituting newspaper" (Vyas et al., 2007, p. 38). The results showed that of the sample investigated few individuals only got their news through the Internet (Vyas et al., 2007). The results of this study's analyses do show that various media, not just newer options, are able to meet with an individual's gratifications for media expectancies. Thus, our data supports ideas that various media options complement one another rather than displace each other.

Conclusion

In advancing the literature on media consumption, the current study attempted to develop and compare standardized models of media use. From this study, seven models of media expectancies were constructed so that motivational differences between media could be observed. Furthermore, these differences also vary across numerous demographic factors.

The results suggest that media practitioners should take into account both demographic differences, as well as media motivations when planning media campaigns. Since both factors contribute in the segmentation of audiences, it is crucial for media practitioners to understand what drives media use in order to best reach their target markets. The results do point to some standard segmentation strategies. For instance, when targeting younger audiences, media practitioners should focus on message and content placement in new media (e.g. Internet, social media) than traditional media (e.g. newspaper). However, when it comes to message needs or goals for campaigns one can not necessarily assume that what is better or more used is replacing older established media option. For instance, assuming certain motivations such as informational are better represented through the Internet might not be as straight forward as previously thought. Failure to understand how media differ in terms of motivation and demographic differences may lead to developing poor strategic communication plans in which media messages fail to return on investment. Thus, in order to create and implement a successful strategic communication plan for clients, media practitioners need to understand what determinants influence media choice and, thus, better target their audiences.

Finally, these results are somewhat conflicting of Niche Theory (Dimmick et al., 2004) which assumes that as new media options are presented into an environment and they meet with expectations and outcomes they will displace older or more traditional media. The results of the model comparisons seem to suggest that media in fact have a more complimentary role than a displacing one. It could be that different media options are given more weight over others, but in the end individuals will consume both newer and traditional options. Neither (new nor traditional) can be viewed as overtaking the other. Media planners and brand managers should note this fact as the gratifications achieved via alternative media schedules may vary based upon the motivations sought.

The results of this study however are not without limitations. Uses & Gratifications is a micro examination of why individuals use certain media. Media options may have certain intricacies that are only germane to that given media and thus, it is necessary to examine them within narrow application. In contrast, the current study sought to compare across media rather than look within each media. To do so, this study examined media options in terms of a holistic macro evaluation of motivations. It should be noted that we examined these media comparisons as a higher order structure through an advanced analysis, which may leave more individualistic comparisons wanting.

In conclusion, the current study offers researchers a glimpse into the competitive media landscape. Moreover, it offers an avenue to understanding how media vary in their motivation to use. This understanding opens avenues to new research as well as a guide for professional to understand the influence of theory on practice.

References

Bachmann, I., Kaufhold, K., Lewis, S., & Gil de Zúñiga, H. (2010). News platform preference: Advancing the effects of age and media consumption on political participation. International Journal of Internet Science, 5(1), 34-47.

Berelson, B. (1949). What 'missing the newspaper' means. In Lazarsfeld, P. & Stanton, F.N. (Eds.) *Communication Research 1948-1949*. New York: Harper.

Blumler, J. (1979). The role of theory in uses and gratifications studies. *Communication Research, 6,* 9–36.

Charney, T., & Greenberg, B. (2001). Uses and gratifications of the Internet. In C. Lin & D. Atkin (Eds.), *Communication, technology and society: audience adoption and uses.* Creskill, N.J: Hampton Press.

Dimmick, J. (2003). *Media Competition and Coexistence: The theory of the niche*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Earlbaum.

Eastin, M. S. & LaRose, R. (2005). Alt.support: Modeling Social Support On-Line. *Computers in Human Behavior, 21,* 977–992.

Ferguson D., & Perse, E. (2000). The World Wide Web as a functional alternative to television. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media, 44,* 155–174.

Flanagin, A., & Metzger, M. (2001). Internet uses in the contemporary media environment. *Human Communication Research, 27*(1), 153–181.

Ha, L., & Fang, L. (2012). Internet experience and time displacement of traditional news media use: An application of the theory of the niche. *Telematics and Informatics*, *29*, 177-186.

Haridakis, P. (2012). Uses and Gratifications. In the International Encyclopedia of Media Studies

Henke, L., & Donohue, T. (1989). Functional displacement of traditional television viewing by VCR owners. *Journal of Advertising Research, 29,* 18–23.

Kang, M. (2002). Interactivity in Television: Use and impact of an interactive program guide. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media, 46*, 330–345.

Katz, E., Blumler, J., & Gurevitch, M. (1974). Utilization of mass communications by the individual. In Blumler, J. & Katz, E. (Eds.), *The uses of mass communications: Current perspectives on gratifications research* (pp. 19-32). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Katz, E., Gurevitch, M., & Haas, H. (1973). On the Use of Mass Media for Important Things. *American Sociological Review, 38*, 164–181.

Kwik, H. (2009). Channel strategy: What you need to know now. Retrieved October 14, 2013, from http://responsiblemarketing.com/blog/2009/10/27/channel-strategy-new-product-marketin

LaRose, R., & Eastin, M. S. (2004). A Social Cognitive Explanation of Internet Usage: Toward a New Theory of Media Attendance. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media 48*, 358–377.

LaRose, R. Lin, C., & Eastin, M. S. (2003). Internet Addiction, Habits and Deficient Self-Regulation. *Media Psychology, 5*(3), 225–253.

Larose, R., Mastro, D., & Eastin, M. S (2001). Understanding Internet usage a social-cognitive approach to uses and gratifications. *Social Science Computer Review*, *19*, 395–413.

Lasswell, H. (1948). The structure and function of communication in society. In Bryson, L. (Ed.), *The communication of ideas.* New York: Harper.

Lin, C. (1999). Online-service adoption likelihood. *Journal of Advertising Research, 39,* 79–89.

Mastro, D., Eastin, M. S., & Tamborini, R. (2002). Internet Search Behavior and Mood Alteration: Replication and Expansion of Selective Exposure Theory. *Media Psychology,* 4, 157–172.

McPhee, W. (1963). *Formal Theories of Mass Behavior*. London: Collier-Macmillan.

Papacharissi, Z., & Rubin, A. (2000). Predictors of Internet use. *Journal of Broadcasting and Electronic Media, 44*(2), 175–196.

Rosengren, K., Wenner, L., & Palmgreen, P. (1985). *Media Gratifications Research*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

Rubin, A. (2002). The uses and gratifications perspective of media effects. In J. Bryant & D. Zillmann (Eds.), *Media effects: Advances in theory and research* (pp. 525-548).

Rubin, A., Perse, E., & Powell, R. (1985). Loneliness, parasocial interaction, and local television new viewing. *Human Communication Research, 12, 155–180.*

Song, I., LaRose, R. Eastin, M. S., & Lin, C. (2004). Gratifications of Internet Use and Internet Addiction. *CyberPsychology & Behavior 7,* 384–394*.*

Van Eijck, K., & Van Rees, K. (2000). Media orientation and media use: Television viewing behavior of specific reader types from 1975 to 19995. *Communication Research, 27*, 574-616.

Van Rees, K., & Van Eijck, K. (2003). Media Repertoires of Selective Audiences: The Impact of Status, Gender, and Age on Media Use. *Poetics, 31*(5), 465-490.

Van Rees, K., Vermunt, J., & Verboord, M. (1999). Cultural classifications under discussion. Latent class analysis of highbrow and lowbrow reading. *Poetics, 26*(5), 349-365.