Constructing Online Political Habitus: Unpacking Filipino Generational Political Facebook Posts Using Multiple Correspondence Analysis

Jason O. Manaois, PhD

Psychology Department, Xavier University – Ateneo de Cagayan, Philippines

Abstract - **Social networking sites had become influential as a platform for discourses, social interaction, and self-presentation (Delise, 2014). Facebook (FB) had become mainstream that its feature of posting political posts and information impacts the society. It is the objective of this study to explore the nature of online political posts and its users. A purposively sampled participants were selected (n=200), and their online political posts were coded and analyzed. Using exploratory sequential mixed methods, six major motivations to use social media was identified thru content analysis. Multiple correspondence analysis was done to cluster individuals into defined groups, namely: political activism, political slacktivism, and politically enmeshed. Moreover, the structure of online political habitus was constructed. It is cognitively structured by the individual level of political knowledge and socially constructed by political participation. Implications of the result show the crucial role of values formation during the early formative years in a person's life. The established beliefs and values later dictate a person's online political engagements. Moreover, educational attainment also contributed to the development of online political habitus of individuals wherein they are instinctively motivated to do political posting.**

Keywords - **Facebook, social media research, online, political habitus, multiple correspondence analysis**

I. INTRODUCTION

In today's digital age, Internet access has become increasingly affordable. This led most people to be connected online using mobile phones and other portable electronic devices (Davidson, 2015). With the rise of Facebook as the most widely used social network site with more than two billion active users (Chaykowski, 2017), it created substantive impact on the political and social life of people around the world (Chan, 2016). Its featured functions facilitated users to network and socially interact, exchange information, platform for discourses, self-expression, and mobilization of different political activities. Facebook has become a common medium for socialization wherein much of people social life now exist online (Chan, 2016; Dalsgaard, 2016; Delise, 2014). Social networking site such as Facebook has become an available alternative medium that offers people to exert voice and influence others in the public sphere, thus creating new possibilities for civic and political engagements (Kligler-Vilenchik, 2017). Online political engagement entails online activities such posting, expressing opinions, sharing of news and information, participating on certain political cause and purpose.

Studying online behaviors can be challenging given that the virtual space lacks physical interaction (Delise, 2014). Virtual ethnography study is needed as it explores human behavior and interaction in an online space. Internet research can invigorate existing disciplines and produce new relevant contribution in research and general body of knowledge (Hine, 2005). However, it can be assumed that self-presentation and identity projection on Facebook and other social networking sites to be similar yet distinct from physical interactions (Delise, 2014). Online social media therefore initiates a new area for analyzing behavior and the presentation of self. It is the interest of this study to understand the gaps on how people engage in online and offline political activities by describing the type of people who participate in such activities.

Online human experiences spread across the digital and physical spaces, that is, the self is reframed to have subjectively experienced network of identities (digital / physical, material / immaterial, etc.). This makes it complex, and the integration of the self is seen as multimodal, multiplex, and multispatial cutting across the digital and physical contexts (Banks, 2015). Hence, an individual operating in an online environment retains an aspect of his physical self-presentation. This makes it complicated as the physical and digital spaces interlocked as the individual think and behave. Thus, a holistic understanding on how citizenship and engagement in context digital media environment should be observed, to incorporate the role of social media in a person's online engagement (Kligler-Vilenchik, 2017) and the person's capital or resources (Ellison et al., 2014; Velasquez & Rojas, 2017).

As Facebook provides venue for people to politically engaged online and communicate with various topics, people's political participation varies as political attitudes differ across people and generation. Literature has indicated that personal values contribute to the shaping of cognitive experience, and it is expected to influence the structural formation of a person's attitude (Smith, 1949). Online political posts are internally motivated as it is a function of person's values and related political experiences that shapes

his political attitude. In addition, literature has indicated generational differences. The engagement of each generation in political activities remains exclusive within their cohort (Loader, Vromen & Xenos, 2014; Taneja, Wu, & Edgerly, 2017). Politicians and policymakers need to capture and represent the values and interest of a particular generation to be effective in politics (Loader et al., 2014).

Level of education also plays a critical role in online political engagement. The level of education equates to level of competence in communication (Velasquez & Rojas, 2017). Thus, in expressing political opinions through social media sites, one must perceive to have the necessary competence to voice-out political views. Filipinos value education, they see it as a leveling factor that will help them to have better opportunities in life through having better jobs and good salaries (FFP PH, 2013). Education in the Philippines is prioritized wherein parent send their children to school is indispensable. Across generation, older people tend to value education more, while younger generations are much better educated (Patten & Fry, 2015). This can be associated to access to free education in public schools, and availability of scholarships in both private and public universities. Education, knowledge, and experiences constitute as part of the cultural capital of an individual (Vilhjálmsdóttir & Arnkelsson, 2013) of which likely influences political engagement and online activities.

With the interplay of different factors affecting a person's motivation to use social media for political engagement, the concept of habitus was used to draw out deeper understanding of online political engagement. Bourdieu's concept of habitus allows researchers to understand how people evaluate their choices and behavioral options as guided by a cognitive map or set of perceptions that was developed across time while considering their existing resources (Cockerham & Hinote, 2009). The goal is to provide explanation on how certain groups of people operate online by describing their social and cultural capital, and their online political related activities. Furthermore, constructing an online political habitus would give us better understanding of the psychological structure of political engagement behaviors as the main contribution of this research.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Facebook Use and Political Posting

Facebook has various features that supports online political posting of its users. The following are its notable functions and applications: (1) Profile: is a feature where the user can express who he is and what's going on in his life. The user may further share in his Profile updates such as interests, photos and videos, and other personal information. (2) News Feed: this allows user to see regular updates of stories from friends, Pages, and other linked applications. Users may opt to like or comment on the newsfeed. (3) Messenger: a messaging (chat) feature that allows user to communicate with other

people. It can send private messages and stickers, chat with groups, and make free calls, even to people in other countries. (4) Groups: this feature gives users a private space to share with small groups of people (e.g., family, workmates, class, or friends). Within a group, users can post updates, share photos and files, and organize events. (5) Events: this allows users to organize activities, manage invitations and send reminders. (6) Video: users can do online streaming called Facebook live to capture events or users' updates. This feature has an option to record and publish video recording in users' Profile. (7) Photos: this feature allows users to upload photos and create albums (Facebook, 2017). These features can be used to maximize political engagement. Users can publish their political opinion by updating their Profile, react and share political related information in the News Feed, call and organized political events by managing personal invites, and share and capture political gatherings using photos and video recordings.

Since Facebook operates in an online space, and its relations stem from a social media-driven environment that is embedded in a cultural context. The kinds of data extracted from the online postings are co-produced by the user and the social environment where they operate. Moreover, social networking site such as Facebook offers individual a sense of autonomy and feelings of empowerment that can be viewed as self-centered participation (Fenton & Barassi, 2011). In the Philippine, internet use is seen higher in highly urbanized areas, among middle-to-upper social classes, college graduates, and the youth. Filipino internet users access the internet largely for social networking rather than information seeking or learning, creativity and production, commercial activities, and entertainment and leisure play (Labucay, 2011).

Political Participation, Attitude and Motivation

Online media serve as an important space for political participation. Political participation is usually equated to electoral activities such as attending political rallies and campaign leading to the practice of rights to suffrage or voting. Moreover, political participation goes beyond elections. It includes activities such as working for the community and attending a political protest (Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995). Given the influence of Internet use and Facebook, citizens have found new ways to politically participate in the conduct of government and its public affairs (Bennett, 2008). In this regard, political participation can be regarded as the offline and online activities of people that influences political dynamics, government actions and policymaking (Verba et al., 1995).

Individuals used online media to produce and exchange values and arguments that challenges existing social order. The behaviors that are linked in online political activities are grounded within the individual's political attitude. As such, political participation takes time to build up (Zhang & Chia, 2006). Moreover, political participation in an online environment is seen as a social action. Being online,

particularly through social media platform constitute the social space where people interact. In this online social space, the person's habitus (refers to the physical embodiment of cultural capital, to the deeply ingrained habits, skills, and dispositions that the person possess due to life experiences) can be observed. Social action operates within relatively in that self-enclosed domain that is held by individuals or groups to behave within the specific rules and practices, and compete over certain benefits (Shammas & Sandberg, 2015). As the individual participate in the activities of the social space, he invests a certain amount of personal interest and struggle over benefits he gets from his participation. Thus, political participation is a social action of which is influenced by the guidelines of the online social space. It is also personally driven because of the individual innate desires, values, habitus, and capital.

Philippine Generations and Values Formation

'Generations' is defined as the social, economic, political, and social events that occur during the formative years of an individual. It is important to note that the generational categories are based on the collective memory, recollections and experiences of historical events that define a country's generations (Hechanova, 2017). Currently, there are two generations in the Philippine. The 'political generations' are people with experiences of political turmoil in the country. They describe themselves as work-centered, family-oriented, multi-tasking and decisive. The 'tech generations' are people with experiences of onset development of technology and internet in the country. They describe themselves as being tech-savvy, carefree, laid-back, proud, individualistic, self-centered, arrogant, energetic, and adventurous (Hechanova, 2017).

Moreover, generational values formed early on, are influenced by the specifics historical and political context within each cohort of citizen is socialized. This remains stable throughout the life course, so that aggregate values change occurs as older cohorts with certain values sets die and are replaced by younger cohort with different values. Thus, political values of generations are specifically shaped through political socialization and later influences in shaping public opinion (Grasso, Farrall, Gray, Hay, & Jennings, 2017). Without the consent and commitment of a particular generation, the influence of their politicians and policymakers to represent their values and interests would be doubtful. Younger generations' attitudes and political values are seen to foretell the future and are regarded as important agents for social and political change. Furthermore, it is progressively influenced by globalization, the digital revolution and reflexive individualism (Loader *et al.*, 2014).

On the other hand, values are formed on early formative years in an individual's life as proposed by generational theories. As such, the modernization theory allows for some short-term shifts in values as influenced by underlying secular trends. While, political generations' theory takes a historicized perspective, emphasizing the importance of political events and experiences taking place during the receptive formative years of an individual (different cohort generation) (Grasso *et al.*, 2017; Loader *et al.*, 2014). Given this context, it is not about the affluence and security during childhood that shapes the values and political commitments of an individual, but rather the political experiences and historical events occurring during one's young adulthood. Furthermore, studies have shown that diverse political contexts produced generations with distinct patterns of behavior as influenced by their set of values (Grasso *et al.*, 2017; Loader *et al.*, 2014; Hechanova, 2017).

On the other hand, there exists a small generational gap of online news usage. Younger generations (e.g., millennials) and the baby-boomers shares large similarities in terms of characteristics in the usage of networks, alongside their preferences (Taneja, Wu, & Edgerly, 2017). However, in terms of the technological gap, it is said that older generation may lack digital skills but essentially acts to catalyze for civic and political participation for younger generation (Gamliel, 2017).

Education and Political Activities

When exploring differences in education and political engagement, a study had found that well educated individuals dominate in politics while the less educated are poorly represented (Bovens & Wille, 2010). Furthermore, there exists a gap between less- and well- educated citizens. The less educated individuals tend to be distrustful and cynical about politics and politicians, while the well-educated individuals tend to be positive about government and political institutions. Differences in the level of formal education have led to conflicting political opinions among its citizen, however, less educated are visible in the political scene (Bovens & Wille, 2010).

Education has influence on how people engage and participate in politics. Education is seen as a source of political socialization, and it influences the kind of politician an individual becomes (van Elsas, 2015). Education gives knowledge and understanding about politics and its system. It also develops the cognitive abilities of an individual to understand and participate in politics and encourages political engagement. Moreover, individuals with higher education probably already have relevant abilities and understanding about politics, thus, they are expected to be more engaged. Educational level also influences political trust. Countries who have highly educated citizens tend to have higher level of trust in government (van der Meer, 2010).

Studies have indicated that there are various factors that lead to online political postings (Kaposi, 2014; Štětka & Mazák, 2014; Macková1 & Macek, 2014). The individual's values, attitude, and experiences form motivation to display political related behaviors. It was validated that generations create their own traditions and culture by a shared collective field of emotions, attitudes, preferences, and dispositions (Grasso *et*

al., 2017). Therefore, generational differences are a legitimate diversity issue that needs to be recognized and understand. The generational profile that specifies terminal and instrumental values was confirmed in relation to the popular generational stereotypes and suggests that this profile be considered in leading, motivating, and communicating with people belonging to these generations (Grasso *et al.*, 2017). Hence, there is a need to better understand online political activities as a function of motivation that is anchored of person's political values, education, and the social class (generation) where they operate. Online political engagement is viewed as integration of an individual personal and collective (social) attributes, that the individual combines different elements (offline- and online- self presentation or identity, cultural and social capital utilization, etc.) in his online political activities.

Constructing Online Political Habitus

In examining the nature of online political posts, it is imperative to consider the social and psychological influences of such action. In this regard, the habitus theory of Bourdieu was used as the framework of this study. The habitus theory is anchored upon the correspondence between social structures and cognitive structures of individuals (Vilhjálmsdóttir & Arnkelsson, 2013). The use of this theory highlights the political habitus as it is rooted in the social and cultural capital of an individual operating in an online environment (social space). Additionally, these habitus are deeply ingrained habits, skills, and dispositions that an individual possess due to life experiences.

Conceptualizing online habitus, it refers to a set of durable character dispositions (habits, traits, perception, values, feeling, and actions) that individuals carry with them when they are online. These dispositions are both intellectual and physical habits of thought and habits of behavior. It frequently operates at an unconscious level, thus, giving the feeling of being instinctive. These traits allow individuals to convey to online situations while remained embodied to a certain class-position (Cockerham & Hinote, 2009; Fraser, 2013). Moreover, this concept is further supported by the idea of Bateson's levels of learning. His theory postulated that certain processes, events, and other phenomena are formed through the interactions or relationships with other processes, events, and phenomena. This process happens in a multi-dimensional, paradoxical, and aesthetic manner, arranged in a hierarchical order which includes identity, values and standards, possibilities, behavior, and environment (Tosey, 2006; Tosey & Mathison, 2003). While individuals have different online interaction, and their responses are structured by their habitual range of responses that were learned during their early (life) socialization experiences. It is an instinctive response to learned rules (e.g., social, political standards) that an individual is familiar and proficient at. Notably, habitus are not only constituted by experiences of socialization but also constitutive of ongoing practices. Thus, the habitus refers to a subjective style of thinking and perceiving characteristic of

particular people and social classes. It consists of enduring dispositions toward action internalized by individuals and the groups and classes to which they belong, including habitual ways of acting when performing routine tasks. (Cockerham & Hinote, 2009; Fraser, 2013). Therefore, online posting can be seen as a spontaneous action but in fact, it is a patterned response that is grounded in the individual online habitus.

Embedded in a person's habitus are his social and cultural capitals. The social capital facilitates collective political behaviors that fosters a strong civil society and make political institutions and officials more responsive to the needs of their people. On the other hand, when people participate in civic and political activities, they have a voice in public affairs, can hold authorities accountable and are empowered to act on their own behalf (Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995). Cultural capital includes knowledge, skills, and education of the individual. For Filipinos, they are expected to embody the ideals and aspirations, promote common good, conserve and develop patrimony, and secure ourselves and our posterity, the blessings of independence and democracy under the rule of law, a regime of truth, justice, freedom, love, equality, and peace (Republic of the Philippines, 1987). Furthermore, Filipino identity is greatly influenced by affiliation. Being in a collectivist culture, collectivism at the individual level affects national pride and political interest positively (Alberto & Favila, 2012). Constitutional and societal expectations imply individuals to politically participate and engage for nation building. Yet, generations have different aspiration and approach towards life, and this may be true as well in their online political engagement. It is also important to understand that online political habitus reflected in a person's behavior is greatly influences by various process, events, and phenomena. As highlighted by Bateson's theory on levels of learning, any change on the higher level will influence change in the lower level (Tosey, 2006; Tosey & Mathison, 2003). When a person's "identity" change (because of his job, education, etc.) his convictions, values, and standards also change to support his identity. Furthermore, the behavior of an individual to engage in political activities is influenced by the skills (competencies) of that person and the external circumstances (environment) where he is situated (operating). Thus, examining the interplay of these levels is beneficial to further understand online political habitus.

The research intends to answer the following questions are:

1. What are the motivations of publishing online political posts among Filipino Facebook users?
2. What is the structure of online habitus among Filipino Facebook users publishing political posts?
3. Who are the online habitus groups as differentiated by their generation, educational level, and online political activities?

III. RESEARCH METHOD

The research designed used in this study is exploratory sequential mixed methods (Creswell, 2013). Content analysis

was done in the qualitative phase wherein the online political postings are clustered into different motivational categories. The motivational categories together with other demographic profile variables were then examined into multiple correspondences analyses in the quantitative phase.

Participants

The general selection criteria of participants of the qualitative and quantitative phase includes respondents having Facebook accounts, are active online for the past week prior to data gathering and have at least one political post (regardless of motivation or type of posting). Facebook posting are seen in public profile (as indicated in privacy settings). The respondent is either member of a socio-political Facebook group or referral coming from another respondent. The qualitative phase has 12 respondents total with four participants per educational levels (high school, college, graduate) represent the social class.

For quantitative phase, sampling was done purposively. A total of 200 participants with Facebook political related posting were selected. Verification of authenticity of Facebook account was based on the acquisition of participants' informed consent. Online trolls (a person who posts inflammatory, extraneous, and spamming messages) were drop from the dataset when their FB profile solely publishes online political propaganda. Demographic profile as self-identified by respondents is as follows: highest educational attainment of respondents 23% high school, 39% college, and 38% graduate school. In terms of generation, they belong: 42% political group and 58% tech group. Gender and civil status: 47% male, 53% female, 60% single, and 40% married. They have an average age of 32, and their actual age ranges from 18-60 years old.

Measures

Qualitative phase: Categorizing motivations of online political posts. A manual collection of Facebook post on the context of human rights related topics in the country were gathered and considered for data processing. The manual collection has less programming issues but accounts to more manual labor. Data can also be better/worse if it is coded by humans using judgement rather than computers which cannot detect the intent of some subtle human phrasing. Facebook data include photos, videos, and emoticons that are challenging for computer programing application to identify and classify based on its content. Initial codes were generated based on existing literature. It guided the researcher to identify initial motivation of participants in doing online posting. Early studies have identified three theoretical explanations as to why people are motivated to use social media in the context of political related online posting. These explanations were anchored on the uses and gratification approach that was originally developed by Katz and Gurevitch (1973). Its typology constitutes an individual use of social media for surveillance, identity construction, social relationships, and entertainment. *Using Social Media for*

News, this refers to the instrumental purpose of giving political related information. *Using Social Media for Political Opinion Expression*, covers the individual's views and judgement over political issues. *Using Social Media for Joining Causes and Mobilizing Information*, entails activism wherein the individual join and promote political related activities through the use of social media (Lampe *et al.*, 2010).

Facebook online postings from the 12 respondents were data extracted. Postings are related to human rights topics that include but not limited to political rights, right to life, equality before the law and freedom of expression, extrajudicial killings, and among others. Timeline of data extracted begins May 30, 2016, the official first day of President Duterte as the head of state until November 15, 2017. A comprehensive list of motivations of communicating online political posts was generated using qualitative content analysis. There were 6 identified motivations namely: (1) using social media to share political news and information, (2) using social media to express political feelings and opinions, (3) using social media to call for action and mobilize political activities, (4) using social media to publish offline participation to political events, (5) using social media to participate in online political campaign, and (6) using social media to share personal accounts of political incident. Detailed description of this motivations is discussed in the results section of this research.

Quantitative phase: Measuring motivations of online political posts. The structure of the Internet (as a platform) is described as a very complex, fluid, and fragmented space (Caliandro, 2017). It captures people within online environment to interact and form virtual communities, thus making it challenging for researchers to observe underlying phenomena. Specific facets of virtual ethnography include space and time, identity and authenticity, and ethics. Because the Internet is a globalized and instantaneous medium where space and time collapse, identity becomes more playful, and ethics become more tenuous; understanding these aspects is crucial to the study of online social groups (Steinmetz, 2012). Thus, in measuring motivation of online political posts, frequency of actual Facebook political postings was extracted and analyzed. Furthermore, they were categorized into 3 levels: high, moderate, low, and no political posting. A Median Split method was used to derive the different levels, the frequency of political postings which is a continuous variable was turned into a categorical one (Iacobucci, Posavac, Kardes, Schneider, & Popovich, 2015). High level indicates more than 8 political postings. Moderate level indicates 4-7 political posts. Low level indicates 1-3 political posting.

Procedure

Participants were contacted using Facebook messenger. The researcher introduced himself through chat and initially asked the potential participant if they are willing to participate in a study about online posting. After agreeing to participate, they were asked to accomplish the informed consent and complete a short demographic survey. After which, manual data mining

was done in Facebook by extracting and coding those political related posting. In the qualitative phase, data coming from 12 participants underwent content analysis to derive the different motivations of online posting. Using the 6 motivational categories that were identified in the earlier phase, the quantitative phase used it to identify and do frequency counts of online postings of the 200 respondents.

Ethical standards in doing online research were ensured by adapting the principles and guidelines set by Eysenbach and Till (2001), and Townsend and Wallace (2017). Even if online posts of respondents can be accessed publicly, the researcher adapted informed consent material from the Association of Internet Researchers (Ess & AoIR, 2002). Facebook terms and conditions allow public information to be viewed and accessed (Data Policy, 19 April 2018). Moreover, only online posting related to the study that were posted in a public space we gathered. To further uphold ethical practice, all presented data is anonymized and no personal information (e.g. usernames) were kept or stored at any point in the research Townsend and Wallace (2017).

Analysis

Qualitative phase: Content analysis. The qualitative content analysis procedure by Schreier (2014) was adapted for this research. It is a systematic method of describing the meaning of the data. This is done by assigning parts of the material to the categories of the coding frame. This frame is the core of the method, and it contains description and interpretation of the material. To achieve trustworthiness, the following steps were done by the researcher. Prior to the content analysis, participants were asked to complete an informed consent. Together with their consent, their profile will be first recorded based on the demographic information they provided. Categorical values were assigned based on which generation the participant identify himself to belong. Stage 1: Building a Coding Frame. In this phase, the researcher does pre-search of the materials, selecting the materials to be used to structure and generate initial categories. Social media literature review was done grounded on the use of Facebook and its user motivation. Identifying existing Facebook use and motivation act as guide for the researcher on what to look on participants online posting. Also, during this phase, the researcher creates criteria on selecting the initial participants. There were 12 participants coming from two generation with varied educational attainment. The types of online postings were limited to national political issues on human rights. All political posting was within the term of current administration of President Duterte. Stage 2: Data Extraction. Participants online political posting were manually extracted and recorded in an excel format. Data cleaning was done by discarding political postings that concerns foreign/international government or institution and duplicated political posting. Stage 3: Trail Coding and Evaluation. In this stage, data are coded based on the initial categories as indicated by the pre-search literature. Constant evaluation and modification of the coding frame was to accept emically develop code and

categories based on online posting of the participants and researchers' reflexivity. The online posting was then given categorical value based on the final categories. Stage 4: Main Analysis. Review of the content analysis was done, final assigning of codes and categories of motivations. Part of the validity check, an external reviewer confirms the developed motivation. The final motivations were then described based on the nature of the material content.

Quantitative phase: multiple correspondence analysis. Using multiple correspondence analysis (MCA), respondents' profile was juxtaposed to motivations of communicating political Facebook post. MCA was used to analyze data is aligned with Bourdieu concept of habitus (Rouanet, Ackermann, & Le Roux, 2000). The main objective of correspondence analysis is to analyze categorical data. These data are then transformed into cross tables and the results are demonstrated in a graphical manner. Here, analysis of the relationship between row and column variables and the relationship between different levels of each variable are obtained. Then, two solutions were explored using variable principal (V Principal) normalization method where it calculates total inertia, Eigenvalue and Cronbach's Alpha. The values extracted allow us to determine the strength and validity of the explored dimensions to be analyzed. Moreover, a discrimination measures is also obtained. This measure display information of category quantification by displaying discrimination of variables that can identify category relationships. The coordinates of each category on each dimension are displayed to determine which categories are similar for each variable. Thus, objects with many characteristics corresponding to the average pattern lie near the center (origin), whereas objects with unique characteristics are located far from the center (LeRoux & Rouanet, 2010; Greenacre, 2006).

Furthermore, cluster analysis with object scores was used to classify subjects into groups. Clustering of variables is derived from the two MCA dimensions object scores. These values are based on the quantification of all qualitative variables that define the individual profile. The geometric map generated thru MCA was used to represent and model data sets as "clouds" points in a multidimensional Euclidean space. Incorporating the relative positions of the points and their distribution along the dimensions, individuals were clustered into groups based on shared or similar characteristics (LeRoux & Rouanet, 2010; Costa, Santos, Cunha, Cotter, & Sousa, 2013).

IV. RESULTS

To understand the online habitus Filipino Facebook users, it is necessary to unpack their political posts and identify their motivation to use social media. Through content analysis of their published online political posts, the following motivations were identified: (1) *Using social media to share political news and information;* this corresponds to individual motivation to share political news and information coming from different mainstream news media, political leaders,

influential organization and famous personalities; (2) *Using social media to express political feelings and opinions;* this corresponds to individual motivation to express political related opinions and its corresponding evoked feelings and emotions; (3) *Using social media to call for action and mobilize political activities;* this corresponds to individual motivation to call for other netizen to act on political issues. Further, it also includes posting details in mobilizing political activities; (4) *Using social media to publish offline participation to political events;* this corresponds to individual motivation in capturing offline participation of political events thru photo and/or video recording of which later be posted online; (5) *Using social media to participate in online political campaign;* this corresponds to individual motivation in participating in online political campaign. Online political campaign includes signing through e-signature or Facebook profile link to a particular political stand (declaration), call for resignation or support for a politician, and challenging political issues; and (6) *Using social media to share personal accounts of political incident;* this corresponds to individual motivation to share incidents that threaten or violated their human rights. It also covers political related experiences the people and their families wither its positive or negative incident.

Moreover, table 1 shows details of online political participation. This reflects frequency and percentages of social media political activities among Filipino Facebook users. The result showed that using social media to share political news and information accounts to 51.72% of online political activities. Moreover, the intention to express one's political feelings and opinions was the second most activity in social media accounting to 31.15%. Using social media to call for action and mobilize political activities was ranked third and the intention to publish offline participation to political

events was ranked fourth which accounts to 8.31% and 7.46%. The least used motivation: participation in online campaign and sharing of personally experienced political incidents that accounts to less 1% respectively.

A contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether the categories of motivation are related to the educational attainment and generation of the respondents. Educational attainment and the motivation to share political news and information were found to be significantly related, Pearson X^2 (6, N=200) =.0001, p = 25.923. However, it is not related to generation with Pearson X^2 (3, N=200) =.054, p = 7.660. The intention to use social media to express political feeling and opinions were found to be related with educational attainment with Pearson X^2 (6, N=200) =.001, p = 21.587, but not related to generation with Pearson X^2 (3, N=200) =.158, p = 5.196. Calling for action and mobilizing political activities were found to be related to respondents' educational attainment Pearson X^2 (4, N=200) =.0001, p = 48.706, and generation Pearson X^2 (2, N=200) =.010, p = 9.287. Posting offline participation to political events in social media were also found to be related with education attainment Pearson X^2 (6, N=200) =.0001, p = 26.601, and generation Pearson X^2 (3, N=200) =.006, p = 12.319. Furthermore, intentions of participating in online political campaigns were found to be significantly related to educational attainment Pearson X^2 (2, N=200) =.016, p = 8.282 and generation Pearson X^2 (1, N=200) =.011, p = 6.427. On the other hand, sharing personal experiences of political incidents were not found to be related to educational attainment Pearson X^2 (2, N=200) =.148, p = 3.816, but were related to respondents' generation Pearson X^2 (1, N=200) =.002, p = 9.202. The initial results indicate interrelatedness among variables, with educational level and generation of respondents to be associated with the different categories of motivation to use social media.

Table 1. Contingency Table Analysis of Social Media Political Activity

Facebook Motivation		Educational Level			Generation		Actual Frequency	Percentage	Ranked
		High School	College	Graduate	Political	Tech			
M1 Using social media to share political news and information.	No	9	10	3	4	18	915	51.72%	1
	Low	37	49	49	56	79			
	Moderate	0	13	10	13	10			
	High	0	6	14	10	10			
M2 Using social media to express political feelings and opinions.	No	19	31	21	27	44	551	31.15%	2
	Low	27	41	35	40	63			
	Moderate	0	4	10	8	6			
	High	0	2	10	8	4			
M3 Using social media to call for action and mobilize political activities.	No	44	57	29	44	86	147	8.31%	3
	Low	2	21	41	35	29			
	Moderate	0	0	6	4	2			
	High	0	0	0	0	0			
M4 Using social media to publish offline	No	40	62	38	49	91	132	7.46%	4

participation to political events.	Low	6	16	34	34	24			
	Moderate	0	0	2	0	2			
	High	0	0	2	2	0			
M5 Using social media to participate in online political campaign.	No	46	76	68	75	115	10	0.57%	6
	Low	0	2	8	8	2			
	Moderate	0	0	0	0	0			
	High	0	0	0	0	0			
M6 Using social media to share personal accounts of political incidents.	No	46	72	70	73	115	12	0.68%	5
	Low	0	6	6	10	2			
	Moderate	0	0	0	0	0			
	High	0	0	0	0	0			

The multiple correspondence analysis generated a two-dimension MCA solution. The first and second dimension presented had eigenvalues of 3.446 and 1.874 respectively with 43.076% and 23.420% of variance. The eigenvalues indicate the amount of variance accounted for in each dimension. Also, dimension 1 and 2 has inertia of .431 and .234 which measures the link between the dimension and all the variables. Its Cronbach's alpha values are .811 and .533 respectively which signify good acceptability of the dimensions' internal consistency. This also indicates how closely related the set of items in each dimension are as a group. Moreover, table 2 shows MCA dimension discrimination measure which signifies the capacity of a variable to discriminate cases upon classifying them into groups or categories of the same type. The most discriminant variables for dimensions 1 and 2 hierarchically were motivations to use social media to express political feelings and opinions, to share political news and information, to call for action and mobilize political events, and to publish offline participation to political events. While the least discriminant variables were generation, educational level, motivation to use social media to participate in online political campaign, and to share personal experience of political incidents. The higher the discriminant value of the variable, the higher it discriminates individual cases and correctly classifies them into groups. From the results and their graphical visualization, dimension 1 was termed "Political Knowledge," and the second dimension as "Political Participation."

Table 2. MCA dimension discrimination measures.

VARIABLES	MCA Dimension		Mean
	1	2	
M1 Using social media to share political news and information.	.692	.446	.569
M2 Using social media to express political feelings and opinions.	.750	.502	.626
M3 Using social media to call for action and mobilize political activities.	.510	.055	.283
M4 Using social media to publish offline participation to political events.	.490	.471	.480
M5 Using social media to participate in online political campaign.	.340	.005	.173
M6 Using social media to share personal accounts of political incidents.	.149	.165	.157
Educational Level	.352	.116	.234
Generation	.162	.115	.138
Active Total	3.446	1.874	2.660
% of Variance	43.076	23.420	33.248

Dimension 1 refers to the level of "Political Knowledge," as it entails the degree of political understanding and information received by people. This accounts to how an individual construct his understanding of politics. They are updated with the political issues and concerns that faced the country. The more an individual becomes politically aware and has understood its structure, the more he engages to political activities. It also includes political thoughts and feelings that are associated with political events and information assimilated by an individual. Dimension 2 refers to the volume of "Political Participation" as a social action of respondents; this entails the aggregated amount of political

engagement among groups of people. This reflects popular political activities in social media. This also includes political attachment that is defined as the persons' level of affectional bond to politics. The more an individual is personally attached to politics, the more he participates and invests time in political activities and share his personal political experiences.
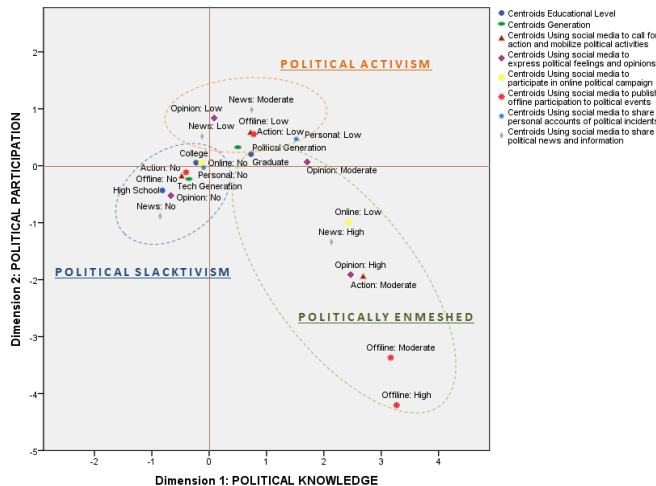

Figure 1. Multiple correspondence analysis of online political habitus.

Cluster analysis was done using the geometric map generated thru MCA (see figure 1). It was used to represent and model data sets as "clouds" points in a multidimensional Euclidean space. The results are interpreted based on the relative positions of the points and their distribution along the dimensions. This was used to identify groups sharing similar characteristics (online political activity, educational level, and generation) within each of the identified dimensions (political knowledge and participation). Three clusters of individuals were identified of whom exhibits: Political Activism, Political Slacktivism, and Politically Enmeshed.

Political activism is characterized as individuals who are interested and receptive towards politics. They are open and knowledgeable about politics, and this is evident in their participation in political activities. Politically active people relatively engage in sharing their personal opinions and emotions associated with the political issue. They regularly share news and information that they find relevant online, making them up to date with political affairs. Their usual profile belongs to political generation with a college or graduate school degree. Also, this group may occasionally participate in offline political activities, call for action and mobilization of political events, as well as share personal political experiences.

Political slacktivism entails individuals who support certain cause by performing simple measures but not considered to be truly engaged or devoted to making a change. Usually, these are social media or online political activities that are characterized as involving very little to no effort or commitment. They are also described as having political apathy. These are individuals who are active online and yet perform limited political participation. They have limited to no knowledge of politics resulting to indifference towards politics. Politically slack individuals minimally engage in sharing their political feelings and opinions. They seldom share political related news and information online. This cluster of individuals is coming from tech generation who has high school and college degrees.

Politically enmeshed individual are those people who have engaged considerate amount of time online to participate in political activities. They are affectionately attached to politics that their offline and online political activities are evident in their social media posting or activities. Politically enmeshed individuals highly engage in sharing political news and information. They openly share their thoughts, opinions, and feelings about certain political issues. And they even call for political action, appealing others to be politically engaged. They are active in participating and mobilizing political events. This group of individuals is from the political generation that usually has graduate degree. Furthermore, politically enmeshed individual regularly posts their offline participation in political events and participate in online political campaigns. This indicates congruence of online self-presentation of politically enmeshed individual, there is consistency with their online and offline political activities. Happenings in their offline political participation are balanced with their online activities.

IV. DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATION

The results have indicated that online political habitus is influenced by the person's social and cultural capital. Some people propel to use their capital to have greater voice in politics than others (Verba *et al.*, 1995). Highly educated individuals are seen to be more politically active. Furthermore, people with high level of education have higher political interest and the ones who are more likely to use Facebook (Velasquez & Rojas, 2017). In general, these are the people who tended to express their political views through this social media site. This would suggest that the more competent individuals feel to communicate through social media, the more they will tend to express their political views through Facebook. Also, people who post on Facebook report higher social capital and more likely to respond and engage in their social network activities. People with high social capital engage more in political activities. They are using their social network and influence to express their political opinion, share more information, and mobilize political action (Ellison *et al.*, 2014). Thus, an individual who have greater social and cultural capital tend to have greater political participation. On the other hand, people are less likely to speak out on political issues when confronted with a contradicting opinion since they may lack the necessary competence and capitals. People are vocal on certain issues when it is aligned with their values. This notion reflects how political generations tend to be more vocal and participative in political activities. They do not shy

away from political discourse since they have established capitals to deal with argumentation (Zerback & Fawzi, 2016).

Moreover, certain generation engages in activities that they find important. Given the political atmosphere and its corresponding practices, this had led to older generation having the tendency or willingness to use public power for their own advantage (Weale, 2003). They are politically active because they possess greater social, economic, and cultural capitals. They see social media as available medium that offers people to exert voice and influence others in the public sphere, thus creating new possibilities of civic and political participation (Kligler-Vilenchik, 2017). While the technology generation is seen to exhibit political slacktivism. They are digital natives and are more likely to engage in websites that explicitly targets them, websites whose content includes entertainment and technology news (Taneja *et al.*, 2017). Thus, online political activities can be linked to generational differences in terms of interest and priorities.

One contribution of this research is that it provides structure of online political habitus. Online political activities are cognitively structured by the amount of knowledge in politics and socially structured by the amount of political participation viewed as social action. People participate in online activities when they have substantial knowledge about political issues that confronts them. It is necessary that they find themselves competent in handling political discourse, sharing their thought, opinions, and feelings in social media. They cognitively construct their online action based on what they know and what they have experienced. At the same time, position themselves in their social network by politically engaging in online activities. Political participation is perceived as a social action aimed at influencing others in their social network. It is constructed to have an underlying intention for social change. Furthermore, online political habitus is an interlock of an individual personal and collective attributes. Personal attributes that account to cultural capital such as education, political experiences, and personal values. Collective attributes account to social capital that produced generational values and is influenced by the shared political behaviors within the person's social network. These two structures interplay to produce the online political habitus of a person.

This research also offers description of online habitus groups and their political activities. It was able to identify three categories of online political groups namely, political activism, political slacktivism, and politically enmeshed. By being able to identify their motivation and the intensity of their online political activities, strategies can be formulated to target their interest for greater political engagement. It was identified that the motivations to use social media for the purpose of posting offline political engagement, participation in online political campaign, and sharing personal accounts of political incidents were the least exercised. These three online political motivations are seen to have personal qualities, that is, it exhibits a close integration of the online and offline self-

presentation in terms of political engagements. The level of offline political engagements is extended as part of the person's online activities.

An alternative approach toward virtual ethnography studies is advanced by this research. Applying mixed method approach, it enabled researcher to qualitatively (content analysis) capture the motivations of using social media for political engagements, and further quantify (multiple correspondence analysis) these motivations by constructing and exploring online political habitus. This approach addressed the weakness of quantitative phase of not able to fully capture context of the phenomenon. Moreover, it lessens the bias of qualitative phase as it imparts itself to statistical analysis. This approach balances each method by allowing both exploration and analysis in this research.

Given the contribution of this study, there is a need to target the interest of people (regardless of generation, education, and social class) to politically engage for social change. Understanding how the youth and adolescent engage politically and their corresponding online political habitus is an interesting research direction. Objective of political engagement is to create social change for the upliftment of basic social needs, standard of living, and governance. The younger generation will soon be placed in politics and run governments. It is imperative that they develop interest over these matters to shape positive citizenship among them. Moreover, having good citizenship and political values may result to positive social changes that would benefit the common people in general across generation and social class.

As recommendation, this study may be replicated to capture other cultural nuance in other countries. Examining further the demographic profile (e.g. age group) may provide novel idea on their political interests that drive online habitus. Moreover, other robust methodology (e.g., RCT) may be applied to validate the finding of this research.

Disclosure of interest: *The author does not have any conflicts of interest to report.*

REFERENCES

[1] Alberto, F. & Favila, F (2012, April). Purong Pinoy: The Cultural Identity of Filipino-Foreign Youth as Manifest by their Communication Practices. Undergraduate Thesis. University of the Philippines. Retrieved at http://iskwiki.upd.edu.ph/images/f/f7/ Alberto_Francesca_C_&_ Favila,_Mecel_A_04-12_Purong_Pinoy _The_Cultural_Identity_of_FilipinoForeign_Youth_as_Manifest_b y_ Their_Communication_Practices.pdf

[2] Banks, J. (2015). Multimodal, multiplex, multispatial: A network model of the self. New Media & Society, 19(3), 419–438.

[3] Bovens, M., & Wille, A. (2010). The Education Gap in Participation and Its Political Consequences. Acta Politica, 45, 393–422.

[4] Caliandro, A. (2017). Digital Methods for Ethnography: Analytical Concepts for Ethnographers Exploring Social Media Environments. Journal of Contemporary Ethnography, 89124161770296.

[5] Chan, M. (2016). Social Network Sites and Political Engagement : Exploring the Impact of Facebook Connections and Uses on

Political Protest and Participation. Mass Communication and Society, 19(4), 430–451.

[6] Chaykowski, K. (2017, June 27). Mark Zuckerberg: 2 Billion Users Means Facebook's "Responsibility Is Expanding." Forbes, 1–9. Retrieved from https://www.forbes.com/sites/kathleenchaykowski/2017/06/27/facebook-officially-hits-2-billion-users/#365fd6623708

[7] Cockerham, W. & Hinote, B. (2009). Quantifying Habitus: Future Directions. In K. Robson and C. Sanders (eds.), Quantifying Theory: Pierre Bourdieu, 201-210.

[8] Costa, P. S., Santos, N. C., Cunha, P., Cotter, J., & Sousa, N. (2013). The use of multiple correspondence analysis to explore associations between categories of qualitative variables in healthy ageing. Journal of Aging Research, 2013(May). https://doi.org/10.1155/2013/302163

[9] Creswell, J. (2013). Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches, 4th ed. Singapore: Sage Publications Asia-Pacific Pte. Ltd. ISBN 978-1-4522-2610-1

[10] Dalsgaard, S. (2016). The Ethnographic Use of Facebook in Everyday Life. Anthropological Forum, 26(1), 96–114.

[11] Data Policy. (2018, April 19). Facebook data policy. Retrieved from https://web.facebook.com/about/privacy/update

[12] Davidson, J. (2015, May 26). Here's How Many Internet Users There Are. Time, 3896219. Retrieved from http://time.com/money/3896219/internet-users-worldwide/

[13] Delise, N. N. (2014). How Do You Facebook ? The Gendered Characteristics of Online Interaction. In D. Nicole Farris, Mary Ann Davis, & D'Lane R. Compton, Illuminating How Identities, Stereotypes and Inequalities Matter through Gender Studies (pp. 9–19). Springer, Dordrecht.

[14] Ellison, N. B., Gray, R., Lampe, C., & Fiore, A. T. (2014). Social capital and resource requests on Facebook. New Media & Society, 16(7), 1104–1121.

[15] Ess, C., & Association of Internet Researchers Ethics Committee (2002, November 27). Ethical decision making and Internet research: Retrieved at http://www.aoir.org/reports/ethics.pdf

[16] Eysenbach G., & Till J.E. (2001). Ethical issues in qualitative research on internet communities. British Medical Journal, 323, 1103–1105.

[17] Facebook (2017). Company Information. Newsroom. Retrieved from https://newsroom.fb.com/company-info/

[18] Fenton, N., & Barassi, V. (2011). Alternative media and social networking sites: The politics of individuation and political participation. Communication Review, 14(3), 179–196.

[19] FFP PH. (2013, September 12). Nielsen survey reveals Filipinos value education, 1–3. Retrieved from http://ffemagazine.com/nielsen-survey-reveals-filipinos-value-education/

[20] Fraser, A. (2013). Street habitus: gangs, territorialism and social change in Glasgow. Journal of Youth Studies, 16(8), 970–985.

[21] Gamliel, T. (2017). Education in civic participation: Children, seniors and the challenges of an intergenerational information and communications technology program. New Media & Society, 19(9), 1388–1405.

[22] Grasso, M. Farrall, S., Gray, E., Hay, C., & Jennings, W. (2017). Thatcher's children, Blair's babies, political socialization and Trickle-down value change: An age, period and cohort analysis. British Journal of Political Science, 1-20.

[23] Greenacre, M. (2006). Simple to Multiple Correspondence Analysis. In Greenacre, M., & Blasius, J. (eds.), Multiple Correspondence Analysis and Related Methods, 44-56. Chapman & Hall/CRC.

[24] Hechanova, M. (2017, September 19). Generations in the Philippines workplace. Ateneo Center for Organizational Research and Development. Retrieved at https://www.ateneo.edu/cord/news/generations-philippine-workplace

[25] Hine, C. (2000). Virtual ethnography. London Thousand Oaks, Calif: SAGE.

[26] Hine, C. (2005). Internet Research and the Sociology of Cyber-Social- Scientific Knowledge. The Information Society: An International Journal, 21(4), 239–248.

[27] Iacobucci, D., Posavac, S., Kardes, F., Schneider, M., & Popovich, D. (2015). The median split: Robust, refined, and revived. Journal of Consumer Psychology, 25(4), 690-704. ISSN 1057-7408,

[28] Kaposi, I. (2014). The culture and politics of Internet use among young people in Kuwait. Cyberpsychology: Journal of Psychosocial Research on Cyberspace, 8(3), article 9.

[29] Katz, E,. Blumler, J.G., & Gurevitch, M. (1973). Uses and Gratifications Research. Public Opinion Quarterly, 37(4), 509–523.

[30] Kligler-Vilenchik, N. (2017). Alternative citizenship models: Contextualizing new media and the new "good citizen." New Media & Society, 19(11), 1887–1903.

[31] Labucay, I. (2011). Internet Use in the Philippines. Annual Conference of the World Association of Public Opinion, (August).

[32] Lampe, C., Wash, R., Velasquez, A., & Ozkaya, E. (2010, April). Motivations to participate in online communities. In Proceedings of the SIGCHI conference on Human factors in computing systems (pp. 1927-1936). ACM.

[33] Loader, B. D., Vromen, A., & Xenos, M. A. (2014). The networked young citizen: social media, political participation and civic engagement. Information Communication and Society, 17(2), 143–150.

[34] Macková, A., & Macek, J. (2014). 'Žít Brno': Czech online political activism from jokes and tactics to politics and strategies. Cyberpsychology: Journal of Psychosocial Research on Cyberspace, 8(3), article 5.

[35] Patten, E., & Fry, R. (2015, March). How Millennials today compare with their grandparents 50 years ago, 4–8. Retrieved from http://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2015/03/19/how-millennials-compare-with-their-grandparents/

[36] Republic of the Philippines (1987). The 1987 constitution of the Republic of the Philippines. Preamble. Retrieve at http://officialgazette.com.ph/Philippine-constitution

[37] Rouanet, H., Ackermann, W., & Le Roux, B. (2000). The Geometric analysis of questionnaires: the lesson of Bourdieu's La Distinction. Bulletin de méthodologie sociologique.

[38] Schreier, M. (2014). Qualitative content analysis. In Flick, U. The SAGE handbook of qualitative data analysis (pp. 170-183). London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

[39] Shammas, V. L., & Sandberg, S. (2015). Habitus, capital, and conflict: Bringing Bourdieusian field theory to criminology. Criminology & Criminal Justice, 1–9.

[40] Smith, M. B. (1949). Personal Values as Determinants of a Political Attitude. The Journal of Psychology, 28(2), 477–486.

[41] Steinmetz, K. F. (2012). Message Received: Virtual Enthography in Online Message Boards. International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 11(1), 1–30.

[42] Štětka, V., & Mazák, J. (2014). Whither slacktivism? Political engagement and social media use in the 2013 Czech Parliamentary elections. Cyberpsychology: Journal of Psychosocial Research on Cyberspace, 8(3), article 7.

[43] Taneja, H., Wu, A. X., & Edgerly, S. (2017). Rethinking the Generational Gap in Online News Use: An Infrastructural Perspective. New Media & Society, 1–17.

[44] Tosey, P. (2006). Bateson's levels of learning: A framework for transformative learning? Paper presented at Universities' Forum for Human Resource Development conference, University of Tilburg, May. Retrieved 26 March 2022, from https://openresearch.surrey.ac.uk/esploro/outputs/conference Presentation/Batesons-Levels-Of-Learning-a-Framework/99516257702346

[45] Tosey, P., & Mathison, J. (2003). Neuro-linguistic programming and learning theory: A response. The Curriculum Journal, 14(3), 371-388.

[46] Townsend, L., & Wallace, C. (2017). The ethics of using social media data in research: A new framework. In K. Woodfield (Ed.), The ethics of online research (pp. 189-207). Retrieved from

https://www.emeraldinsight.com/doi/pdfplus/10.1108/S2398-601820180000002008

[47] van der Meer, T. (2010). In what we trust? A multi-level study into trust in parliament as an evaluation of state characteristics. International Review of Administrative Sciences, 76(3), 517–536.

[48] van Elsas, E. (2015). Political Trust as a Rational Attitude: A Comparison of the Nature of Political Trust across Different Levels of Education. Political Studies, 63(5), 1158–1178.

[49] Velasquez, A., & Rojas, H. (2017). Political Expression on Social Media: The Role of Communication Competence and Expected Outcomes. Social Media + Society, 3(1), 205630511769652.

[50] Verba, S., Schlozman, K. L., & Brady, H. E. (1995). Voice and equality: Civic voluntarism in american politics. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

[51] Vilhjálmsdóttir, G., & Arnkelsson, G. B. (2013). Social aspects of career choice from the perspective of habitus theory. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 83(3), 581–590.

[52] Weale, A. (2003). Between representation and constitutionalism in the European Union. In Nentwich, M. & Weale, A. Political Theory and the European Union: Legitimacy, Constitutional Choice and Citizenship (pp. 49-62). London: Routledge.

[53] Zerback, T., & Fawzi, N. (2016). Can online exemplars trigger a spiral of silence? Examining the effects of exemplar opinions on perceptions of public opinion and speaking out. New Media & Society, 19(7), 1034–1051.

[54] Zhang, W. & Chia, S. (2006). The effects of mass media use and social capital on civic and political participation. Communication Studies, 57(3), 277-297.