

Media literacy, information literacy, and novice voters combating online political misinformation

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Abstract

New voters are susceptible to online political misinformation that can influence the democratic election process. Thus, reducing the negative impact of political misinformation is essential for democratic elections. Utilizing the Stimulus-Organism-Response theoretical framework, this research examines four hypotheses concerning the correlation of media literacy and information literacy on the capability of novice voters to recognize misinformation about politics and their intention to disseminate it on social networks. This study used a quantitative research approach employing cross-sectional surveys. The sample consisted of 380 novice voters comprising high school students in Cianjur Regency, selected through a stratified random sampling method. Data was collected through an online Google Form survey and analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) through multiple linear regression methods. According to the findings, media literacy and information literacy simultaneously significantly impacted novice voters' competence to recognize political online misinformation, and higher media and information literacy scales correlated with lower intentions to disseminate it on social platforms. The findings conclude that media literacy and information literacy play a crucial function in determining the behavior of novice voters regarding online political misinformation. Theoretically, this study contributes to understanding the mechanisms of how media and information literacy influence novice voters' behavior in the context of political misinformation. It expands the applicability of the Stimulus-Organism-Response theoretical framework by showing how cognitive and behavioral variables interact in a dynamic digital environment. As for practically, these findings support policymakers, media organizations, and educational institutions in designing more effective literacy programs.

Keywords: Media literacy; Information literacy; Political misinformation; Social media; Novice voters

Literasi media, literasi informasi, dan pemilih pemula memerangi misinformasi politik online

Abstrak

Pemilih pemula rentan terhadap misinformasi politik yang menyebar melalui media sosial dan dapat memengaruhi proses pemilihan yang demokratis. Oleh karena itu, mengurangi dampak negatif misinformasi politik di kalangan pemilih pemula sangat penting untuk pemilu yang demokratis. Menggunakan kerangka teori Stimulus-Organism-Response, penelitian ini bertujuan menguji empat hipotesis mengenai pengaruh literasi media dan literasi informasi terhadap kemampuan pemilih pemula dalam mengidentifikasi misinformasi politik dan intensi menyebarkannya di media sosial. Penelitian ini menggunakan metode kuantitatif dengan survei cross-sectional. Sampel sebanyak 380 pemilih pemula, gabungan siswa Sekolah Menengah Atas dari Kabupaten Cianjur. Sampel dipilih melalui metode stratified random sampling. Data dikumpulkan melalui survei online Google Form dan dianalisis menggunakan Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) melalui metode analisis regresi linear berganda. Hasil penelitian mengungkapkan bahwa literasi media dan literasi informasi secara signifikan memengaruhi kemampuan pemilih pemula dalam mengidentifikasi misinformasi politik di media sosial, dan menegaskan bahwa semakin tinggi tingkat literasi media dan informasi, semakin rendah intensi pemilih pemula untuk membagikan misinformasi politik di media sosial. Dapat disimpulkan bahwa literasi media dan literasi informasi mempunyai peran penting dalam membentuk perilaku pemilih pemula terkait dengan misinformasi politik di media sosial. Secara teoretis, penelitian ini berkontribusi untuk memahami bagaimana literasi media dan informasi memengaruhi perilaku pemilih pemula dalam konteks misinformasi politik dan memperluas penerapan kerangka teori Stimulus-Organisasi-Respon dengan menunjukkan bagaimana variabel kognitif dan perilaku berinteraksi dalam lingkungan digital yang dinamis. Secara praktis, temuan ini mendukung pembuat kebijakan, organisasi media, dan lembaga pendidikan dalam merancang program literasi yang lebih efektif.

Kata Kunci: Literasi media; Literasi informasi; Misinformasi politik; Media sosial; Pemilih pemula

INTRODUCTION

Democracy, as the primary foundation of the government system, emphasizes freedom of opinion and the active participation of citizens (Gershberg & Illing, 2022). The digital era challenges democratic integrity (Piccone, 2018). According to Shao et al. (2018), the escalating transmission of misinformation via social networks is seen as a significant threat. It has the potential to affect public perception and disrupt a healthy political process, especially for novice voters who are new to the election process (Lee, 2020; Pedriza, 2021; Vosoughi et al., 2018).

Guess et al. (2019) and Pennycook et al. (2020) found that misinformation about politics can influence voter perceptions and decisions. Indonesia has an impressive number of social media subscribers, reaching 167 million or 60.4% of the nation's overall population (Kemp, 2022). The Ministry of Communications and Informatics also reported that more than a thousand political hoaxes were discovered with a significant increase in graphs in election years (Husna, 2023). It is the basis for the fact that suppressing the spread of misinformation among novice voters becomes very important (Weeks & Gil de Zúñiga, 2021).

At the same time, the engagement of novice voters in political activities is enhanced through social networking platforms (Ohme, 2019). The Internet, particularly in the setting of online political conversations, has been shown to have a strong influence in shaping novice voting decisions (Intyaswati et al., 2021). Young people's online engagement with their preferred candidates during election campaigns is not simply a clicktivism phenomenon (Gherghina & Mitru, 2023). According to Kasmani (2023), Facebook

and Twitter represent the favored media for accessing political information. It is imperative to enhance knowledge regarding the veracity of the information consumed to minimize or eliminate the adverse outcomes of misinformation (Guess et al., 2020). Vosoughi et al. (2018) reveal that misinformation disseminates more rapidly than accurate information. Media and information literacy empower Internet users to differentiate and review content, including misinformation (Jones-Jang et al., 2021; Khan & Idris, 2019; Martens & Hobbs, 2015). New voters must acquire proficiency in media literacy and information literacy competencies to spot misleading information and refrain from distributing it on social networks (Claire & Hossein, 2017; Guess et al., 2018).

Media literacy refers to the capacity to effectively engage with, scrutinize, assess, and generate communications within diverse platforms, including the Internet and other emerging media environments (Akçayoglu & Daggol, 2019; Ciurel, 2022). Druick (2016) argues that media literacy involves understanding moral and economic impacts. Meanwhile, information literacy is the ability that allows people in all aspects of life to search, assess, apply, and produce information appropriately to attain their private, public, professional, and academic goals (UNESCO, 2023). Some literature shows that information literacy aims to develop lifelong learning that can adapt to changes in the information landscape so that individuals can evaluate information critically, use it effectively, and be aware of its impact (Mudave, 2016). The significance of both media and information literacy is equivalent to effectively and judiciously managing diverse information in the face of the information tsunami phenomena.

Mihailidis and Viotty (2017) underscore how challenges associated with the complexity of new information necessitate implementing media literacy education. Several studies show that teaching media literacy improves people's ability to discern misinformation by increasing their ability to detect misinformation (Hwang et al., 2021; Kahne & Bowyer, 2017). Additionally, media literacy training has improved the ability to identify manipulated information in social media posts (Höttecke & Allchin, 2020; Melki et al., 2021). This function may also be useful for addressing controversies related to online misinformation (Craft et al., 2017; Xiao et al., 2021). Durante (2022) states that media literacy plays a role in evaluating media messages by new voters. It helps them differentiate between trustworthy and misleading information in a complex digital media landscape (Hameleers, 2022).

Ford et al. (2023) suggest that implementing a media literacy online intervention in Indonesia can reduce by 64% the number of people who intend to distribute misinformation. However, a media literacy approach must understand various social and political environments (Badrinathan, 2021). Simultaneously, Pérez-Escoda et al. (2021) propose that young people should be capable of dealing with diverse information problems.

In line with media literacy, several inquiries suggest that information literacy can, by questioning and verifying information before sharing it, work as a safeguard against the sharing and propagation of misinformation on social networks (Bluemle, 2018; Brisola & Doyle, 2019; Davidović, 2022; Jones-Jang et al., 2021; Khan & Idris, 2019; Yaffe, 2017). Jones-Jang et al. (2021) state that

information literacy competencies strongly predict the ability to recognize misinformation. Khan and Idris (2019) conclude that people can learn how to recognize and verify information before sharing it over time. Information literacy skills enable individuals to critically appraise the information they get to differentiate between wanted and unwanted information like misinformation (Durodolu & Ibenne, 2020; Machete & Turpin, 2020).

Interdisciplinary collaboration drives literacy development (Anderson, 2018; Rubin, 2019). Musgrove et al. (2018) emphasize the importance of information literacy education in combating misinformation. Literacy education should highlight social reasons that can diminish users' propensity for spreading misinformation on social networks (Chen et al., 2015). Integrating literacy instruction into the school curriculum can help to generate a literate young generation (El Rayess et al., 2018; Igbinovia et al., 2021). Memes are one type of media that can be used to teach information literacy (Ireland, 2018).

Multiple studies have demonstrated that enhancing media and information literacy can enhance an individual's capacity to analyze information critically and decrease the inclination to accept or propagate misinformation (Bluemle, 2018; Brisola & Doyle, 2019; Davidović, 2022; Durante, 2022; Durodolu & Ibenne, 2020; Ford et al., 2023; Hameleers, 2022; Höttecke & Allchin, 2020; Hwang et al., 2021; Jones-Jang et al., 2021; Kahne & Bowyer, 2017; Khan & Idris, 2019; Machete & Turpin, 2020; Melki et al., 2021; Yaffe, 2017). Nevertheless, additional investigation is required to examine this correlation within the specific context of

novice voters and the propagation of political misinformation. Prior research has primarily concentrated on the whole population. Understanding how novice voters obtain political information in the age of online media is critical, considering the developing significance of social networking sites during politics.

This study aims to enrich previous research that has discussed the influence of media literacy and information literacy on the ability to identify misinformation and the intention to share misinformation (Brisola & Doyle, 2019; Craft et al., 2017; Durante, 2022; Durodolu & Ibenne, 2020; Ford et al., 2023; Hameleers, 2022; Jones-Jang et al., 2021; Khan & Idris, 2019; Xiao & Su, 2023). However, this study focused on political misinformation and high school students as novice voters. Specifically, this

research was conducted to determine the influence of media literacy (X1) and information literacy (X2) on the ability of novice voters to identify political misinformation (Y1) and their intention to spread it on social media (Y2). The Stimulus-Organism-Response (SOR) theory is used as the theoretical basis. SOR theory offers a framework for understanding how individuals react to different environmental stimuli (Kim et al., 2020; Pandita et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2020). The stimuli include accidental news exposure and misinformation about the COVID-19 pandemic (Wu, 2022; Xiao & Su, 2023; Zheng et al., 2022). It affects people's propensity to disseminate misinformation within health-related contexts within these social networks (Tang et al., 2024).

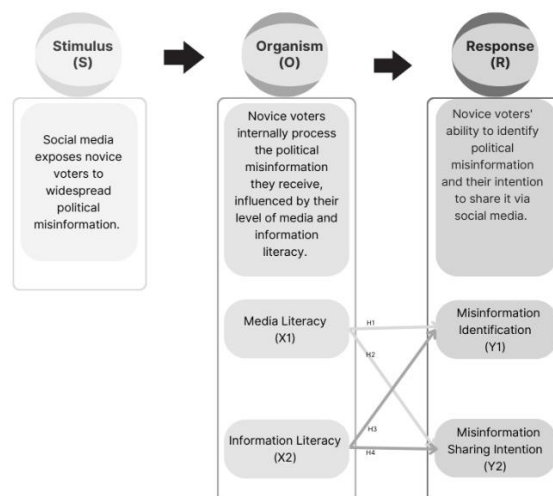


Figure 1. Research Model
Source: Researcher's Processing, 2023

In the context of this study, as seen in Figure 1, Stimulus (S) refers to first-time voters' exposure to political misinformation; Organism (O) refers to novice voters' internal processing of political misinformation, which is influenced by media literacy or information literacy; and Response (R) refers to novice voters' ability to recognize

political misinformation and decide whether to spread political misinformation via social media or not. This study contributes practically for guiding policymakers, media organizations, and educational institutions to develop literacy programs that are more effective in increasing criticality and caution in consuming and disseminating information

among novice voters. Theoretically, this study supports the understanding of mental processes and individual behavior in dealing with misinformation regarding politics in the modern era of digital media, as well as providing a foundation for further research in the disciplines of media literacy, information literacy, and behavioral psychology.

RESEARCH METHODS

This study used a quantitative methodology in the form of a cross-sectional survey. The population in focus was Senior High school (SMA) students in Cianjur Regency who had never exercised their right to vote in a general election and were 17 years old or would reach that age when the 2024 General Election was held, as stated in the Republic of Indonesia Government Regulation in 2017, which issued Law Number 7 concerning General Elections (Republik Indonesia, 2017). The sampling method used was stratified random sampling with a total sample of 380 students from 16 high schools in Cianjur Regency. The stratification process divided the high school student population into subgroups based on school. Then, samples were taken randomly from each school proportionally.

The sample size was 380 people, calculated using the Sample Size Calculator on Survey Monkey, from a total population of 33,237 people, a confidence level of 95%, and a margin of error of 5%. Population data was obtained from high school synchronization progress data for the even semester 2022/2023, which was obtained from primary education data (<https://dapo.kemdikbud.go.id/progress-sma/3/020727>). Data was collected using an online Google Form survey distributed to respondents from December 14, 2023, to

February 12, 2024. The Google Form survey is available via an online link (<https://forms.gle/FuBnsP7JmNoH1DCa7>). This study predicted Hypothesis 1: Media literacy helps novice voters determine political misinformation on social media; Hypothesis 2: Media literacy negatively affects novice voters' intention to spread political misinformation on social media; Hypothesis 3: Information literacy helps novice voters determine political misinformation on social media; and Hypothesis 4: novice voters' intention to spread political misinformation on social media negatively correlates with information literacy. This study used the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software to evaluate the data obtained. The data analysis method applied was multiple linear regression techniques. Multiple linear regression analysis was used to measure the influence of media and information literacy (independent variable) on novice voters' ability to identify political misinformation and the intention to share it on social media (dependent variable). Before the analysis began, the number of points obtained from respondents on each variable was converted into standard value (N). The N value is calculated by multiplying the total points obtained by the respondent by the ideal value (100) and then dividing it by the maximum score on that variable. The equation determining the N value is $N = (\text{total points} \times 100) / \text{maximum score}$.

This study adopted the steps of previous literacy measurement instruments. Media literacy was measured using Jones-Jang et al. (2021) four criteria. An example of a measurement item used was "I will follow the news using various media sources" to measure the aspect of

media literacy access. The four answers ranged from 1 = extremely disagree to 5 extremely agree ($M = 76.05$, $SD = 19.28$, $\alpha = 0.810$). Information literacy is assessed using five questions from Jones-Jang et al. (2021), the information literacy index. The information literacy test employed in this study comprised five questions with multiple options. Each question was presented with only a single valid answer and three false answers. For instance, the questions offered, "The most reliable, verified, concise, and comprehensive description of a specific unknown concept can be found in ____." Four answers were provided: a daily newspaper, a bilingual dictionary, a lexicon or encyclopedia, and a research article. The best answer (lexicon or encyclopedia) got 1 point, and the wrong answer got 0 ($M = 49.21$, $SD = 33.83$, $\alpha = 0.706$).

Eight pieces of information obtained from several social media posts were presented to evaluate the ability of novice voters to identify political misinformation on social networks. Five of them were misinformation, and the other three were factual information. These eight pieces of information were chosen based on their level of virality or those most frequently discussed on social media. Popular political headlines that generated massive interaction on social media were used. To ensure the information was misinformation or fact, these eight pieces of information were double-checked through fact-checking sites (stophoax.id, cekcepat.com, turnbackhoax.id, and @chatbotantihoaks). There were two possible responses to each information (misinformation or fact). If the respondent chose the answer "misinformation" and the information presented was misinformation, then "misinformation"

was the correct answer. Conversely, incorrect answers were identified if the information presented, and the respondent's choices did not match; for example, the information presented was "fact", but the respondent chose "misinformation." The correct answer got 1 point, and the wrong answer got 0 ($M = 70.92$, $SD = 25.47$, $\alpha = 0.716$).

The intention to spread misinformation was measured by presenting five pieces of misinformation from various social media platforms. Each piece of information began with "Would you consider sharing or posting this information on social media?" Four answer choices vary from 1 = No, I will never post about this topic, to 4 = Yes, I will post about this topic ($M = 50.84$, $SD = 17.208$, $\alpha = 0.857$).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The study engaged 380 participants, novice voters from sixteen high schools in Cianjur. Most respondents spent varying amounts of time a day accessing the internet. There were 15 respondents (3.95%) who reported accessing it for less than 1 hour, 113 respondents (29.74%) accessed it for 1-3 hours, 128 respondents (33.68%) spent 4-6 hours, and 124 respondents (32.63%) accessed the internet more than 6 hours every day. In regards to accessing political information on social networks, the majority of respondents indicated frequent activity. A total of 111 respondents (29.21%) accessed it every day, 113 respondents (29.74%) several times a week, 31 respondents (8.16%) several times a month, and 117 respondents (30.79%) said they rarely did so. Only eight respondents (2.11%) never accessed political information on social networks.

Table 1
Descriptive statistics test result

| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|----------------------------------|-----|---------|---------|---------|----------------|
| Media Literacy | 380 | 20.00 | 100.00 | 76.0526 | 19.28326 |
| Information Literacy | 380 | .00 | 100.00 | 49.2105 | 33.83037 |
| Misinformation Identification | 380 | 12.50 | 100.00 | 70.9211 | 25.47000 |
| Misinformation Sharing Intention | 380 | 25.00 | 90.00 | 50.842 | 17.2082 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 380 | | | | |

Source: Data processing result, 2024

The descriptive statistical analysis showed that Media Literacy and Information Literacy had a wide range of values, with Media Literacy ranging from 20 to 100 and Information Literacy ranging from 0 to 100. The high standard deviation of both variables indicated significant variation among respondents. Misinformation identification ranged between 12.50 to 100, with considerable variation in misinformation identification ability. Meanwhile, misinformation-sharing intentions had a more limited range of values, between 25 and 90, indicating more minor variations in misinformation-sharing intentions among respondents. From the results of the description, there were significant variations in the level of media literacy, information literacy, skill to recognize misinformation, and intention to share misinformation among research respondents (Table 1).

Furthermore, based on the crosstab analysis, a significant association was found between the level of media literacy

and information literacy and one's capacity to identify misinformation and the intention to spread it. In the context of media literacy, most respondents with high media literacy (209) had high misinformation identification abilities (131) and low intentions to share misinformation (134). Conversely, more respondents with low media literacy (43) had low misinformation identification abilities (18) and high misinformation-sharing intentions (4). Regarding information literacy, respondents with high information literacy (131) exhibited excellent abilities in identifying misinformation (126) and low intentions to share misinformation (127). In contrast, respondents with low information literacy (207) had lower misinformation identification abilities (71) and moderate misinformation-sharing intentions (150). This crosstab analysis indicated that high levels of media and information literacy were associated with better identification of misinformation and reduced intentions to share it on social networks

Table 2
Correlations test result

| | | Media Literacy | Information Literacy | Misinformation Identification | Misinformation Sharing Intention |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|---------------------------------|--|---|
| Media Literacy | Pearson | 1 | .427** | .375** | -.440** |
| | Correlation | | | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .000 | .000 | .000 |
| | N | 380 | 380 | 380 | 380 |
| Information Literacy | Pearson | .427** | 1 | .661** | -.770** |
| | Correlation | | | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | | .000 | .000 |
| | N | 380 | 380 | 380 | 380 |
| Misinformation Identification | Pearson | .375** | .661** | 1 | -.722** |
| | Correlation | | | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .000 | | .000 |
| | N | 380 | 380 | 380 | 380 |
| Misinformation Sharing Intention | Pearson | -.440** | -.770** | -.722** | 1 |
| | Correlation | | | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .000 | .000 | |
| | N | 380 | 380 | 380 | 380 |

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

Source: Data processing result, 2024

The correlation test result showed a considerable correlation between media literacy and information literacy, with a positive connection of 0.427 and p-value <0.001. It demonstrated that a higher degree of media literacy correlated with higher information literacy. Furthermore, a significant positive connection was also found between media literacy and misinformation identification (0.375), as well as between information literacy and misinformation identification (0.661), with a p-value <0.001. The ability of novice voters to identify misinformation tended to increase as their media literacy and information literacy increased. In contrast, there was a relevant negative relationship between the intention to share misinformation with media literacy, information literacy, and misinformation identification, with correlation coefficients of -0.440, -0.770, and -0.722, respectively, and p-value <0.001. It showed that the

higher the media literacy, information literacy, and skill to identify misinformation, the lower the individual's intention to disperse misinformation on social networks (Table 2).

The hypothesis of the effect of media literacy and information literacy on the ability to identify political misinformation on social networks and the influence of media literacy and information literacy on misinformation sharing intention was tested using linear regression because the data on the variable was interval data. Regression analysis was carried out by fulfilling several standard testing assumptions. The data normality test using a typical probability plot showed that the data distribution had a pattern that followed a diagonal line, indicating a normal distribution. The heteroscedasticity test using a scatter plot showed no evidence of heteroscedasticity in the regression model. Multicollinearity

analysis confirmed that the regression equation did not exhibit multicollinearity because the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) value and tolerance value met the

specified limits, respectively VIF value = 1.223 ($p < 10$) and tolerance value = 0.818 ($p > 0.10$).

Table 3
Hypothesis 1 and 3 test results

| Model | R | R Square | | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate | | | |
|--|----------------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|------|-------------------------|-------|
| 1 | .669 ^a | .447 | | .444 | 18.98999 | | | |
| Predictors: (Constant), Information Literacy, Media Literacy | | | | | | | | |
| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | Collinearity Statistics | |
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | 36.866 | 3.976 | | 9.271 | .000 | | |
| | Media Literacy | .149 | .056 | .113 | 2.671 | .008 | .818 | 1.223 |
| | Information Literacy | .461 | .032 | .612 | 14.458 | .000 | .818 | 1.223 |
| Dependent Variable: Misinformation Identification | | | | | | | | |

Dependent Variable: Misinformation Identification

Source: Data processing result, 2024

The regression analysis showed the hypothesized effect of media literacy and information literacy on novice voters' ability to identify political misinformation. The R-squared value of 0.447 indicated that the predictor variables used in this model could explain around 44.7% of the variability in misinformation identification ability. The regression model also showed that media literacy and information literacy significantly influenced the skill to spot misinformation, with a significance value (Sig.) $p < 0.001$. It indicated that the regression formula was statistically valid in explaining variability in misinformation identification. Following commonly used testing criteria, if the significance value was $p < 0.05$, the predictor variable was

considered to affect the dependent variable significantly.

Unstandardized regression coefficients showed that media literacy ($B = 0.149$, $p = 0.008$) and information literacy ($B = 0.461$, $p < 0.001$) indicated that each one-unit increase in media literacy or information literacy score was associated with a significant increase in the skill to spot misinformation. These findings supported a) Hypothesis 1, that the higher the media literacy, the higher the ability of novice voters to identify political misinformation on social media, and b) Hypothesis 3, that the higher the information literacy, the higher the ability of novice voters to identify political misinformation on social media (Table 3).

Table 4
Hypothesis 2 and 4 test results

| Model | R | R Square | | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate | | | |
|--|----------------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|------|-------------------------|-------|
| 1 | .780 ^a | .608 | | .606 | 10.7992 | | | |
| Predictors: (Constant), Information Literacy, Media Literacy | | | | | | | | |
| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | Collinearity Statistics | |
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | 77.856 | 2.261 | | 34.431 | .000 | | |
| | Media Literacy | -.121 | .032 | -.135 | -3.794 | .000 | .818 | 1.223 |
| | Information Literacy | -.362 | .018 | -.712 | -19.984 | .000 | .818 | 1.223 |
| Dependent Variable: Misinformation Sharing Intention | | | | | | | | |
| Source: Data processing result, 2024 | | | | | | | | |

The regression analysis results showed the hypothesis of the influence of media literacy and information literacy on the intention to share misinformation. The R-square value of 0.608 indicated that the predictor variables used in this model could explain approximately 60.8% of the variability in misinformation-sharing intentions.

The analysis results also showed that media literacy and information literacy significantly influenced the intention to share misinformation, with a significance value of $p < 0.001$. The unstandardized regression coefficient for Media Literacy was $B = -0.121$, $p < 0.001$. In contrast, for information literacy, it was $B = -0.362$, $p < 0.001$, indicating that each one-unit increase in media literacy or information literacy scores was associated with a significant decrease in misinformation-sharing intention. Therefore, these findings supported a) Hypothesis 2 that novice voters with higher media literacy tended to have lower intentions to disseminate misinformation, and b) Hypothesis 4, that increasing information literacy contributed

to reducing the possibility of novice voters spreading misinformation.

Based on the results of the series of statistical tests above, this study revealed significant variations in levels of media literacy, information literacy, capability to notice misinformation, and intention to disseminate misinformation on social networks. This study showed a significant positive relationship between media literacy and information literacy. An increase in one aspect of literacy was accompanied by gains in another, which suggested that these two abilities worked together to create critical thinking (Table 4).

Results from hypotheses 1 and 3 confirmed the analyses that revealed a statistically significant positive association between media literacy and information literacy and being able to recognize misinformation. This is consistent with the statement of Jones-Jang et al. (2021), who further stated that identifying, seeking discrepancies, and evaluating information are all important components of information literacy. Many studies have also shown how media literacy affects

novice voters in evaluating media messages and how the readers or viewers distinguish facts from misinformation in digital media (Durante, 2022). It is quite true because information literacy also helps to prevent misinformation from being spread due to its capacity to identify information and process well before being spread (Bluemle, 2018; Brisola & Doyle, 2019; Davidović, 2022; Jones-Jang et al., 2021; Khan & Idris, 2019; Yaffe, 2017).

Another finding was that the 2 and 4 hypotheses for media and information literacy were significant with negative signs on the misinformation-sharing intention. Higher novice voter literacy caused lower chances of them sharing misinformation. These findings support the findings of Ford et al. (2023), who previously found that information literacy significantly reduces intentions to share misinformation. Increasing media literacy and information literacy can significantly influence information-sharing behavior on social media, confirming the relevance of literacy education as an approach to combat political misinformation. As emphasized by Chen et al. (2015), media and information literacy training must address social motivations to reduce intentions to disseminate misinformation on social networks.

Moreover, the results of this study corroborate the assertions of El-Rayess et al. (2018) and Igbinovia et al. (2021) concerning the necessity of embedding media literacy and information literacy into the educational curriculum, particularly for the younger population. This study also provided valuable insights that politicians, educators, and media professionals could use to develop more effective literacy instruction programs explicitly focusing on first-time voters. The

primary objective of this study was to advance the principles of a robust democracy within the context of the digital age. It might be essential to establish strategies for digital awareness campaigns and training initiatives in order to facilitate the development of this program.

Novice voters, or the younger generation today, are the generation that grew up in the technological era. They have unlimited access to vast information from the moment they are born. However, they often need to be equipped with sufficient skills to manage the infinite complexity of information. The findings of this study emphasized the crucial part of media literacy and information literacy in strengthening the abilities of novice voters when facing with an abundance of information, especially in the context of political information. As exposure to various sources of information expands, the younger generation must be able to differentiate and select the information they need appropriately.

Most of this research produces the same findings as previous research (Brisola & Doyle, 2019; Craft et al., 2017; Durante, 2022; Durodolu & Ibenne, 2020; Ford et al., 2023; Hameleers, 2022; Jones-Jang et al., 2021; Khan & Idris, 2019; Xiao & Su, 2023), only differs in focus, geographic, demographic and socio-economic contexts. New voters, especially high school students in Cianjur, may have different access to information sources and educational backgrounds than previous research samples. In addition, the dynamics of information dissemination on social networks continue to change, influencing how users process and interpret information. In the Indonesian context, particularly with its high social media penetration, novice voters face

unique challenges that impact their ability to identify and respond to political misinformation (Kemp, 2022).

A notable new contribution of this study was that it deals with political misinformation, which was relevant to maintaining election integrity. This study highlights the short-term impact of political misinformation on novice voters engaging in elections, an area that is relatively rarely researched. Second, this study concentrated on novice voters who were known to pay little attention to politics. Third, this work combined media literacy and information literacy, recognizing that both were different but still interconnected skills needed to navigate media environments in the contemporary world. Lastly, it was a more thorough study than other works regarding identifying and propagating misinformation. This dual focus was crucial because it was necessary for targeting both the cognitive and behavioral sides of misinformation. Though detecting misinformation was an essential first step, it was only by recognizing the motives that drove the spread of this information that greater progress could be made in stopping its spread and impact.

This study also has limitations; namely, the sample is limited to high school students as first-time voters in Cianjur. It may impact the generalizability of the results. Moreover, this study depended on familiarity, self-report data susceptible to response bias and recall error, and cross-sectional surveys measuring variable information at a one-time in a sample population.

Future research could explore broader and more diverse demographics to test whether the findings would be

similar. Future research could also integrate qualitative methods to explore an in-depth understanding of how novice voters interpret and act on political information on social media or longitudinal studies to assess how changes in media and information literacy over time influence misinformation identification abilities and information-sharing behavior.

CONCLUSION

This study concludes that media literacy and information literacy are crucial in forming novice voters' ability to identify and overcome political misinformation shared on social media. The practical implication of these findings is the importance of developing more effective literacy programs to increase critical understanding and caution in the consumption and dissemination of political information among novice voters. Theoretically, the study provides the comprehension of individual behavior and mental processes in dealing with political misinformation, as well as providing a foundation for further research in the fields of media literacy, information literacy, and behavioral psychology. The next step of this study is to implement the findings in developing a broader and deeper literacy program and conducting further research to better comprehend the aspects that determine the behavior of novice voters in spreading political misinformation on social media. This may include developing practical guidelines for policymakers, media organizations, and educational institutions to design and implement more effective literacy programs and conducting further surveys to understand more deeply the dynamics

and determinants of the phenomenon of political misinformation in the digital era.

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