New Media in the Newsroom: A Survey of Local Journalists and Their Managers on the use of Social Media as Reporting Tools

Eric Lee White

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Approved By:

Professor Penny Muse Abernathy (Chair)

Dr. Daniel Riffe

Dr. Daren Brabham

Dr. Zeynep Tufekci
Abstract

ERIC LEE WHITE: New Media in the Newsroom: A Survey of Local Journalists and Their Managers on the use of Social Media as Reporting Tools (Under the direction of Professor Penny Abernathy, Dr. Daniel Riffe, Dr. Daren Brabham and Dr. Zeynep Tufekci)

A survey of news reporters and their managers was conducted to determine whether their audiences’ media-consumption habits have affected newsroom routines. The findings suggest that journalists are adopting social media (Facebook and Twitter) at a high rate, but TV reporters are more likely use social media as tools to pitch stories to news managers, to produce news stories and to deliver news stories. The findings suggest that journalists primarily use social media as promotional tools that the most likely predictors of journalists’ social media use are perceptions of the “competition’s” use of social media followed by the news manager’s social media expectations. Additionally, news managers perceive their reporters use social media at a significantly higher rate than the reporters indicated. It also appears that several news organizations do not have clearly stated social media guidelines. This raises questions about whether news organizations have a clear social media strategy.
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Table of Contents

I. CHAPTER 1
   A. Introduction ...........................................................................................................1
   B. Literature Review ...............................................................................................4
      1. Creative Destruction ....................................................................................4
      2. Diffusion of Innovations ..............................................................................6
      3. New Technologies and the News Industry ......................................................8

II. CHAPTER 2
   A. Research Questions .............................................................................................13
   B. Method ................................................................................................................13
      1. Sample ............................................................................................................13
      2. Survey Design ...............................................................................................14
      3. Data and Measures ........................................................................................15

III. CHAPTER 3
    A. Descriptive Statistics .......................................................................................19
    B. News Industry Perceptions ..............................................................................20
    C. Journalists’ Workload .....................................................................................21
    D. Social Media Adopter Status ...........................................................................23

IV. CHAPTER 4
   A. Beliefs About Social Media ..............................................................................25
      1. Social Media Ease of Use .............................................................................25
6. Education News.................................................................42

B. Overall Uses of Social Media...........................................42
C. Predictors of Social Media Use.........................................43

VII. CHAPTER 7

A. Social Media Guidelines..................................................44
   1. No Policy.................................................................45
   2. TV/Print Guidelines....................................................46
   3. Social Media Quotas....................................................46
   4. Spelled-Out Social Media Policy......................................47

B. Non-Adopters Rejecting Social Media.................................48

VIII. CHAPTER 8

A. Discussion.........................................................................52
B. Conclusion.........................................................................59
C. Limitations.........................................................................61

IX. APPENDICES

A. Appendix A: Reporter Survey Instrument..............................63
B. Appendix B: Manager Survey Instrument................................72

X. SOURCES

A. Bibliography.......................................................................92
List of Tables

Table 1: Market Breakdown of Reporter Responses.................................81
Table 2: Organizations Represented in Reporter Survey.............................82
Table 3: Market Breakdown of Manager Responses.................................83
Table 4: Frequencies of Manager Job Titles...........................................84
Table 5: Reporter Social Media Uses by Media........................................85
Table 6: Reporter Social Media Uses: Capital vs. Non-Capitals....................86
Table 7: Manager Perceptions of Social Media Uses..................................87
Table 8: Reporter Social Media Story Types by Media...............................88
Table 9: Reporter Social Media Story Types: Capital vs. non-Capitals............89
Table 10: Manager Perceptions of Social Media Story Types........................90
Table 11: Regression Analysis of Overall Social Media Uses.........................91
CHAPTER 1

Introduction

On August 23, 2011, an earthquake rattled the East Coast of the United States (USGS, 2011). Surprisingly, many residents in the earthquake’s path learned about the event as many as 40-seconds before they felt the shockwaves. But television, newspaper and radio did not forewarn the affected citizens; ordinary individuals relayed word of the event using social media (Hotz, 2011). This is just one example of how audience members are using new media tools to consume and create media messages.

In 2011, The Nielsen Company estimated that nearly 80% of active Internet users visited social media sites, like Facebook and Twitter, regularly (Nielsen, 2011a). Moreover, a 2012 Pew study learned that 9% of digital news consumers follow news recommendations offered by Facebook and Twitter (Mitchell & Rosenstiel, 2012). However, scholars have not agreed upon a definition of social media. Because social media are components of social networking sites (SNS) and act in much the same manner, the broader term is useful for this study:

Web based services that allow individuals to (1) construct a public or semi-public profile within a bounded system, (2) articulate a list of other users with whom they share a connection, and (3) view and traverse their list of connections and those made by others within a system (boyd & Ellison, 2007, p. 2011).
In 2011, a Pew study suggested that social media users included men and women who
spanned nearly all age groups, income brackets, ethnicities and education levels (Madden &
Zickuhr, 2011).

Thus far, Facebook and Twitter are among the most frequently used social media sites
(Stelzner, 2011). Facebook’s platform gives users the ability to add friends, send messages
and update a personal profile, which is visible to others. Facebook users may also join
virtual groups where individuals who are interested in a particular topic can share
information that is relevant to the group (Quan-Haase & Young, 2010). Twitter is considered
a micro-blogging service that allows users to send and receive short, 140-character, messages
called “tweets.” Individuals who sign up to receive one’s “tweets” are called “followers”
(Stassen, 2010). One of the hallmarks for Facebook and Twitter is instant publication; both
sites allow individuals to transmit text, images, sounds or videos to the masses without delay
(Levinson, 2009).

Several businesses have also established a presence on social media; however, the
degree to which companies use social media varies significantly (Mann, 2009;
McCorkindale, 2010; Zerfass, Fink & Linke, 2011). Mann (2009) learned that some
businesses used Twitter as direct and indirect marketing channels and as a surveillance tool
to monitor what customers and competitors were saying about the company (Mann, 2009).
On the other hand, McCorkindale’s (2010) content analysis found some Fortune 500
companies did not have a Facebook profile or had a limited Facebook presence. In addition,
few organizations have social media guidelines and many others have not even considered
them (Zerfass et al., 2011).
As Facebook and Twitter’s audiences grew, traditional mass media, such as broadcast television and newspaper, lost audience members at an alarming rate (Kaczanowska, 2011a; Kaczanowska, 2011b; Potter, 2011). From 2007 to 2010 newspaper circulation dropped 9% (Kaczanowska, 2011a). During the same period local television news viewership fell 8.4% (Potter, 2011). As a result of the declines, advertisers held on to billions of dollars that were once earmarked for local television and newspaper advertising (Kaczanowska, 2011a; Kaczanowska, 2011b; Potter, 2011). A newsroom budget crisis ensued, and many organizations attempted to balance their budgets by implementing hiring freezes and layoffs (Kaczanowska, 2011a; Kaczanowska, 2011b; McChesney, 2010; Milwaukee Newspaper Guild, 2011; Mitchell & Rosentiel, 2011; Stelter, 2011).

Since the inception of the Internet, many newsroom decision-makers have attempted to blend new and old media in order to save money, maintain coverage and some argue improve local news coverage. Some have capitalized on new media platforms, such as Facebook and Twitter, to gather and report news, to promote news products and to build relationships with their audiences (Greer & Ferguson, 2011; Lowery, 2009; Picard, 2009; Schulte, 2009; Stassen, 2010). In addition, several TV stations have developed entire news programs with content provided solely by viewers who submitted story ideas and comments through social media channels (Marszalek, 2011). While it is evident that audience members are using new technologies, such as social media, to consume mass-media messages in new ways, what is not known is the extent to which news outlets and journalists are using social media to gather news and deliver content to news consumers.

The purpose of this thesis is to describe how social media are being used as reporting tools and to detail how news organizations are currently using social media. It will also
analyze some “best practices” in the field. As Rogers’ (2003) “diffusion of innovations” theory has often been used to research new technologies and their rates of adoption in newsrooms (Dupagne, 1999; Garrison, 2001a; Garrison, 2001b; Lin & Jeffries, 1998), this thesis was approached through that lens. Additionally, Schümpeter’s (1950) concept of creative destruction has been used to analyze the Internet’s impact on the traditional mass media industry, which includes newspaper, radio and TV (Foster, 2001; Kaye, 2010; van Weezel, 2010).

**Literature Review**

**Creative Destruction**

Some researchers firmly believe that traditional mass media became entangled in Schümpeter’s (1950) process of creative destruction following the arrival of the Internet (Foster, 2001; Kaye, 2010; van Weezel, 2010). An innovation, which has been defined as “an idea, practice, or object perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption” (Rogers, 2003, p. 36), is a key component of creative destruction. Creative destruction occurs when an innovation, such as the Internet, revolutionizes an industry and, at the same time, destroys the market positions of organizations that remain committed to old technologies and/or practices (Schümpeter, 1950). Companies unwilling to adjust their strategies during creative destruction are often replaced because customers arrive at the conclusion that the innovator provides a superior product or service (Chandy & Tellis, 1998; Foster, 2001).

Broadcast television and newspaper industries have been slow to respond to news consumers’ changing habits. In 2011, industry analysts determined that both industries were in a state of “decline” (Kaczanowska, 2011a; Kaczanowska, 2011b). According to Stöber’s
(2004) media evolution theory, each new medium, at some point, becomes old. Additionally, Lehman-Wilzig and Cogen-Avigdor (2004) explained that each mass medium progresses through a lifecycle, which typically includes seven stages: birth, market penetration, growth, maturation, defensive resistance, adaption and obsolescence. Consequently, a new medium’s job is to improve upon the old technologies (Stöber, 2004); Stöber cited the newspaper improving Gutenberg’s printing press, the radio improving telegraphy, and television improving radio as distinct examples.

In 1980, Marvin’s essay predicted that consumers would one day use a “black box” to receive mass media messages. The “black box” would allow individuals to pick and choose from a wide variety of content at any time (Marvin, 1980). It appears Marvin’s prediction has come to fruition (Boczkowski, 2010; Nguyen, 1998; Westlund, 2008). Beginning in the 1990’s, digital technologies offered audiences new channels to consume media messages, which radically disrupted traditional mass media organizations and their business models (Kaye, 2010; Hamilton, 2004; Hoskins, 2004; McChesney, 2010; Meyer, 2009; Stöber, 2004). Today computers, which some may consider Marvin’s “black box”, connected to the Internet give individuals the ability to self-select news content on their own schedules at any location, rather than waiting for the daily newspaper or TV news broadcast (Boczkowski, 2010; Nguyen, 1998; Thorson, 2008). Additionally, the Internet provides its users with a connection to social media sites, such as Facebook and Twitter. Still, traditional newspapers and TV stations have been slow to integrate social media even though four out of five Internet users visited social media sites in 2011, and 40% of social media users connected to social media sites using a mobile phone or tablet device (Nielsen, 2011a).
Several studies have provided examples of how Internet improved upon traditional mass media, which include newspaper, radio, and television (Chamberlain, 1994; Ha & James, 1998; Ruggiero, 2000). Ha and James’ (1998) content analysis found the Internet was a highly interactive mass medium that provided users with channels to consume and produce content. Traditional media, on the other hand, are limited from this level of interactivity due to physical and technical constraints (Ha & James, 1998). The Internet provides demassification (which allowed audience members to choose from an unlimited supply of content) and asynchronicity (which gave users the ability to send and receive messages at their own convenience) (Chamberlain, 1994; Ruggiero, 2000). The development of social media sites, such as Facebook and Twitter, appear to have taken levels of interactivity, demassification and asynchronicity to new heights by making user-generated content each site’s primary feature. But newspaper and TV journalists’ rates of social media adoption and their specific uses of social media as newsgathering and reporting tools remain unexplained.

**Diffusions of innovations**

Rogers’ (2003) diffusion of innovations theory has frequently been used to examine new technologies and their rates of adoption among individual journalists and news organizations (Dibean & Garrison, 2001; Garrison, 2001a; Garrison, 2001b; Hermans, Vergeer & D’Haenens, 2009a; Hermans, Vergeer & Pleijter, 2009b; Maier, 2000; Singer, 2004; Yuqiong, 2008). Rogers (2003) determined that rather than immediately adopting an innovation an individual goes through an innovation-decision process. This procedure usually occurs in five steps: (1) one learns of an innovation’s existence, (2) he or she forms a favorable or unfavorable belief toward the innovation, (3) the individual makes a decision to adopt or reject the innovation, (4) if adoption occurs the individual chooses to implement the
innovation, and lastly (5) the individual seeks confirmation of his or her decision (Rogers, 2003).

The decision to adopt or reject an innovation and the length of time it takes to reach the decision is often determined by the innovation itself (Rogers, 2003). During the innovation-decision process the potential adopter will likely assess the innovation’s relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, trialability and observability. An innovation’s relative advantage is the perceived improvement over its predecessors (Avery, et al., 2010). Compatibility has been described as “the degree to which an innovation is perceived as consistent with the existing values, past experiences, and needs of potential adaptors” (Rogers, 2003, p. 240). Complexity is an individual’s perception of the innovation’s degree of difficulty, and trialability is one’s opportunity to experiment with the innovation. Observability is the degree to which others can witness an innovation’s performance (Rogers, 2003).

The length of time it takes to complete the innovation-decision process determines which of five adopter categories one belongs to. The first 2.5% of adopters are considered “innovators,” the next 13.5% are labeled “early adopters,” the following 34% are the “early majority” and the remaining 16% are considered “laggards” (Rogers, 2003). Those who reject the innovation are “non-adopters.” While much of Rogers’ “theorizing” has involved individuals’ adoption decisions outside of an organizational structure, some diffusion of innovations research has focused on newsrooms’ adoption of new technologies and how the process affects news organizations (Dibean & Garrison, 2001; Garrison, 2001a; Garrison, 2001b; Singer, 2004) and individual journalists within the organization (Hermans et al., 2009a; Hermans et al., 2009b; Maier, 2000; Yuqiong, 2008).
New Technologies and the News Industry

The computer and Internet technologies have significantly influenced the journalism industry (Hermans et al., 2009a; Jacobson & Ullman, 1989; Ward, Hanson & McLeod, 1988). For newsgathering, Garrison’s (2001a) study found journalists working in Internet-connected news organizations could quickly access large quantities of valuable information; as a result, some newsroom managers and reporters felt the Internet gave their organizations a competitive advantage. Traditional-media news organizations also began using the Internet as a news distribution channel. News websites proved to be beneficial because newsrooms could publish more content without the time and space constraints that were present in TV news broadcasts and print newspapers (Dibean & Garrison, 2001; Gerhards & Schafer, 2010). Additionally, the web produced a new source of advertising revenue (Berte & De Bens, 2008; Dibean & Garrison, 2001). Even though newspaper websites were primarily dedicated to news events, Dibean and Garrison’s (2001) content analysis found that newspapers frequently used the Web as advertising space for consumer products, services and real estate. But the Internet, unlike television and newspaper, served a wider market; thus, the more online competitors fought for digital advertising dollars (Berte & De Bens, 2008). In addition, studies have explored reporters’ specific uses and the perceived advantages with using computer and Internet technologies. Journalists cited speed as one of the most salient advantages of computer and Internet technologies (Garrison, 2001a; Garrison, 2001b; Garrison, 2003; Hermans et al., 2009a; Hermans et al., 2009b; Jacobson & Ullman, 1989). When the Internet entered newsrooms in the 1990’s, reporters found they could complete several journalistic tasks faster than previous methods allowed (Garrison, 2001a; Garrison, 2001b; Garrison, 2003; Hermans et al., 2009a; Hermans et al., 2009b;
When searching for online information, respondents in Garrison’s (2003) survey most frequently visited websites operated by state and federal agencies and sites operated by other newspapers; this suggested journalists were adapting and using new technologies in old ways to search for credible sources and information.

However, traditional media news organizations have also been skeptical of new technology. As stated previously, even though many technological innovations had potential advantages, some news-organization decision makers have been hesitant to adopt them (Arceneaux & Weiss, 2010; Garrison, 2001b; Nguyen, 2008). Fearing the Web might cannibalize revenues generated from tradition-media products, Nguyen (2008) noted that several news managers relied on a defensive strategy to protect their organizations’ profits. In Garrison’s (2001b) survey about newspaper newsrooms and Internet adoption, managers cited several specific reasons for their reluctance to adopt the new medium as a news-reporting tool: “lack of resources to invest in new technology, lack of expertise, fear of lost time required to learn and not enough time in the work schedule” (p. 232). Several analysts presume this unwillingness to utilize the Internet for newsgathering, news distribution, and advertising purposes are the primary factors for television stations and newspapers ending up in the crosshairs of creative destruction (Hamilton, 2004; Kaye, 2010; McChesney, 2010; Meyer, 2009).

The goal of several newsroom studies has been to identify common traits among journalists that can be used to predict their rates of adoption; much of this research focused on computer and Internet use in the newsroom (Jacobson & Ullman, 1989; Maier, 2000; Reich, 2008; Ward et al., 1988). Journalists who refused to adopt computer technologies have expressed feelings of intimidation and fear toward learning how to use them (Ward et
al., 1988). Journalists who adopted computer-assisted-reporting methods, on the other hand, possessed strong professional drive and investigative skills (Maier, 2000). In addition, Rogers’ (2003) research learned that progression through the innovation-decision process differs with each individual. Rather than simply categorizing one as an adopter or non-adopter, Yuqiong’s (2008) survey placed Internet adopters into subcategories. Journalists who adopted the Internet before the news organization were labeled “voluntary adopters” while those who adopted the Internet after the organization were considered “forced adopters” (Yuqiong, 2008).

Now, a decade after the Internet entered the newsroom, reporters have social media as newsgathering tools and it appears they are adopting them freely (Greer & Yan, 2010; Heim, 2011; McClure & Middleberg, 2009; Morris, 2010; Stassen, 2010). Reporters cite speed, which is a primary advantage of the Internet, as one of the main advantages of social media (Arceneaux & Weiss, 2010; Heim, 2011; Jewitt & Dahlberg, 2009; Stassen, 2010). In Arceneux and Weiss’ (2010) research, several journalists believed they could gather and disseminate information at near-instantaneous speed by using social media tools. Furthermore, social media gave news organizations additional channels to receive and disseminate information quickly (Jewitt & Dahlberg, 2009; Heim, 2011; Stassen, 2010). Stassen’s (2010) case study determined social media’s primary benefit was providing a line of communication between the reporter and ordinary citizens. Stassen (2010) wrote, “a news organisation can have an ‘inside informant’ in every sphere of society helping them find the latest information, while at the same time providing a platform on which it can converse with its audience on a topic” (p. 13).
Reporters have also indicated that they use social media sites for surveillance and search purposes (Waters, Tindall & Morton, 2010). The Waters et al. (2010) study found journalists used social media sites, which included Twitter and Facebook, to connect with social media users as means to gather newsworthy information and seek out potential interviewees. Additionally, journalists stated that social media assisted them in generating story ideas (Waters et al., 2010) and helped reporters follow the latest developments in the journalism industry (Heim, 2011).

However journalists’ beliefs about the value of social media as news-reporting tools have varied (McClure & Middleberg, 2009). McClure and Middleberg’s (2009) survey found younger journalists believed to a stronger degree that new media, which included social media, enhanced the relationship with the audience and benefitted the journalism profession. Some see social media as tools that open the door to the news staff. Prior to the development of the Internet, the connection between the news producer and news consumer was described as an “arms-length” relationship (Picard, 2009), but Internet and social media technologies appeared to bridge this gap (Deuze, Bruns & Neuberger, 2007). Studies have highlighted numerous cases where audience members played a more active role in the news production process (Boczkowski, 2004; Deuze et al., 2007; McCarthy, 2010; Ornebring, 2008; Thurman, 2008; Wardle & Williams, 2010). Deuze et al. (2007) described this development as participatory journalism. Participatory journalism is defined as a “kind of newswork [sic.] at the hands of professionals and amateurs, of journalists and citizens” (Deuze et al., 2007, p. 323). Wardle and Williams’ (2010) case study, which examined the use of user-generated content at the British Broadcasting Corporation, found several instances where journalists incorporated audience footage, comments and experiences in
broadcast-news stories. Nonetheless, journalists’ eagerness to include user-generated content was far from universal: several journalists and news managers have raised concerns about user-generated content containing inaccuracies, which could damage an organization’s credibility and make it vulnerable to potential lawsuits (Boczkowski, 2004; Ornebring, 2008; Thurman, 2010).

**Summary**

While several studies have focused on organizational and individual adoption and uses of new technologies in the newsroom, little is known about the extent to which local journalists use social media as newsgathering and news-reporting tools. Other factors to consider are how the medium (TV/newspaper) affects the reporters’ use of social media; whether or not an organization’s specific guidelines and expectations curtail or enhance social media usage; and how “the competition’s” choices influence editorial decisions on social media use. By answering these critical questions, this study provides quantitative and qualitative information that can lead to understanding how news organizations adopt new social media technologies and therefore, lay a framework for best practices in the industry.
CHAPTER 2

Research Questions

Numerous studies describe the changing patterns of news consumption, the rate of social media adoption, and their benefits as reporting tools (Arceneaux & Weiss, 2010; Heim, 2011; McClure & Middleberg, 2009; Stassen, 2010), but local reporters’ beliefs about social media and their specific uses of social media as journalistic tools are largely unexplained. Just as unknown are news managers’ expectations of social media reporting. This thesis addresses the following research questions:

RQ1: What beliefs do journalists have about using social media?

RQ2: What beliefs do managers have about social media?

RQ3: How do journalists use social media as reporting tools?

RQ4: How do managers perceive their reporters’ use of social media?

RQ5: What social media guidelines are journalists required to follow?

RQ6: What social-media-adopter category do journalists belong to?

RQ7: Why have non-adopters rejected social media as reporting tools?

Method

Sample

The present research was designed to gather data from local news reporters and news managers in eight media markets, which are located in the Southeastern U.S. The markets, which were designated by The Nielsen Company (2011b), included Charlotte, NC; Raleigh-Durham, NC; Greensboro – High Point – Winston-Salem, NC; Wilmington, NC; Greenville,
SC – Spartanburg, SC – Asheville, NC; Columbia, SC; Myrtle Beach, SC; and Charleston, SC. Raleigh, NC, and Columbia, SC are state capitals. Data were collected from general assignment reporters because this group of journalists typically produces content on a wide variety of topics each workday and would thus be more likely to realize the strengths and weaknesses of social media for particular beats and stories. A total of 269 journalists were invited to participate in the study. Data were also collected from newsroom managers because this group typically develops organizational policies and oversees the production of news content. A total of 72 newsroom managers were invited to participate in the research, which included two news managers from each organization. A total of 23 television stations and 13 newspapers were represented in the sample.

Survey Design

Following best practices identified in Dillman, Smith and Christian’s (2009) research, two mixed-mode survey instruments were developed to gather data. The first mixed-mode survey gathered data from journalists and the second collected data from news managers. The survey of journalists was conducted in October 2011. Survey invitations were sent via US mail to each organization’s newsroom and addressed to the attention of the specific potential respondent. A three-dollar incentive was included to encourage participation and compensate respondents for their time. Though we anticipated that the incentive might alienate some journalists, only three voiced a concern, with six returning the incentive without indicating if they would or would not complete the questionnaire. The invitation outlined the purpose of the study, provided directions for completing the online questionnaire, and contained a unique identification number, which reporters used to gain entry to the survey website. The ID number was also used to determine who completed the
survey and which reporters would be sent follow-up reminders. Approximately two weeks after the initial invitations were sent, follow-up reminders were sent via US mail to the individuals who had not responded.

The survey of news managers was conducted in January 2011. The design of the news manager survey was identical to the journalists’ study with one exception: news manager invitations did not contain an incentive. This decision was made because previous studies have found news manager salaries – on average – are considerably higher than the news reporters (Papper, 2011; The Newspaper Guild, 2012). Thus, it was presumed that a three-dollar incentive would provide little encouragement for managers to participate. Two weeks after survey invitations were mailed, 8% ($n = 6$) of the 72 managers had participated. Consequently, a three-dollar incentive was included in the managers’ reminders in an effort to increase response rate. Four news managers voiced a concern regarding the incentive, with two indicating that they would complete the survey but return the incentive.

**Data and Measures**

Because Facebook and Twitter are among the most heavily visited social media sites, they were the focus of the present study (Stelzner, 2011). A conscious effort was also made to reduce the amount of time needed to complete the questionnaire in an attempt to improve response rates. Thus, several items asked respondents about their use of “Facebook and/or Twitter,” as opposed to creating individual questions for each social media platform.

For the reporter survey instrument (Appendix A), data identified the medium (print or TV), and reporter workload, as well as respondent age and use of social media. The reporter also entered the assigned ID number to gain access to the online questionnaire; this was used to determine the respondent’s news market, determine whether the market was a state capital
and identify which respondents would be sent survey reminders. Additional measures included the organization’s web-reporting demands (web-reporting expectancy), beliefs about social media as reporting tools, social-media-reporting demands (social-media-reporting expectancy), social media guidelines, and perceptions of “the competition’s” use of social media. Reporters were also asked for their perceptions of newsroom resources and news quality.

In regard to the news manager survey (Appendix B), data included the medium, job title, respondent age, the organization’s web-reporting expectancy, beliefs about social media as reporting tools, social-media-reporting expectancy and social media guidelines. Managers were also assigned an ID number, which was used to gain entry to the online questionnaire, determine the respondent’s news market and determine which respondents would be sent a survey reminder. Additionally, data determined managers’ perceptions of reporter workload, newsroom resources and news quality, and the competition’s use of social media. To obtain these data, news reporters and managers and were asked to answer 31 close-ended questions and three open-ended questions.

**Workload.**

While *workload* is a difficult concept to operationalize, one way to measure this concept is by determining respondents’ downtime. To measure *workload*, respondents were asked to indicate the number of 30-minute (or longer) breaks they had taken during the previous workweek (see Question 3 in Appendix A). In addition, journalists and managers were asked to indicate whether the reporters were required to contribute to the organization’s website (web-reporting expectancy) and Facebook and/or Twitter sites (social-media-reporting expectancy). For web-reporting expectancy and social-media-reporting
expectancy, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement using a 5-point Likert scale, with 5 = strongly agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, and 1 = strongly disagree.

**Adopter Status.**

Three yes/no questions adapted from Yuqiong’s (2008) survey were used to determine each journalist’s *adopter status*. One question asked respondents if they use social media for journalistic purposes, the second question asked whether the organization had social media guidelines, and the third question asked whether the journalist began using social media as reporting tools before the organization developed social media guidelines. As in Yuqiong’s (2008) survey, “voluntary adopters” would be identified by their decision to adopt social media *before* their organization. Respondents who began using social media *after* the organization would be considered “forced adopters.” “Non-adopters” indicated that they did *not* use social media as reporting tools. Additionally, one open-ended question was posed to respondents (journalists and managers), who indicated that they do *not* use social media as news-reporting tools; the question asked “non-adopters” to explain the reason(s) for this decision.

**Social Media Beliefs.**

The 5-point-agreement scale (5 = strongly agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 1 = strongly disagree) was also used to measure three items focusing on the respondents’ beliefs *about using social media* as reporting tools. One measured each respondent’s comfort or *ease* with using Facebook and/or Twitter. A second item asked respondents whether they believed social media *improved* the quality of news reports. The third item asked whether
the respondent would recommend social media to a fellow journalist. Respondents were also asked to indicate the degree to which “the competition” utilizes social media in reporting.

**Social Media Uses and Content.**

Fifteen close-ended questions were posed to journalists who identified themselves as social media users and to the news manager group. Nine close-ended items addressed specific ways social media could be used in the newsgathering process (see Table 5), and six items addressed the story types (see Table 8) best suited for social media reports. Each social media use and story type item was measured using the 5-point agreement scale (5 = strongly agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 1 = Strongly disagree).

To better understand journalists’ uses of social media, social media users (journalists and managers) were also asked two open-ended questions: (1) Describe in detail which social media platform (Facebook or Twitter) you prefer to use for news reporting purposes and why that is. (2) Do you believe social media are more useful reporting tools in the field OR the newsroom? Additionally, an open-ended question was posed to “non-adopters”; the item asked respondents to describe their reason(s) for rejecting social media as reporting tools. The researcher analyzed each open-ended answer qualitatively in an effort to identify common themes.

**Social Media Guidelines.**

One of the adopter-status items was used to determine whether news organizations had social media guidelines. To better understand organizational social media guidelines, an open-ended question was posed to journalists and managers: “Describe in detail what – if any – guidelines you (reporters) are expected to follow when reporting news via Facebook and/or Twitter.” Consequently, the researcher analyzed each respondent’s answer qualitatively.
Chapter 3

Descriptive Statistics

Of the 269 addressees, the reporter survey elicited responses from 144 journalists, representing an overall response rate of 54% (Table 1). A total of 70 (of the 153 contacted) television journalists from 20 TV stations participated, representing a response of 46% for that group. A total of 74 (of 116 contacted) newspaper journalists from 13 daily newspapers participated, representing a response of 64%. Table 2 provides a synopsis of organizations’ locations and media type that were represented in the reporter survey. We found the average age for print reporters ($M = 40.86, SD = 13.17$) was higher than TV reporters ($M = 34.74, SD = 11.28$). The print reporters ($M = 16.81, SD = 11.81$) had also worked in the news industry longer than TV journalists ($M = 12.21, SD = 10.79$). For the total reporter sample, average age was 37.91 ($SD = 12.62$) and for work tenure it was 14.59 ($SD = 11.52$). Journalists’ average age and news tenure suggest many respondents have spent the majority of their professional careers in the journalism industry.

Of the 72 addresses, the manager survey elicited responses from 32 individuals, representing an overall response rate of 44% (Table 3). A total of 20 (of the 46 contacted) television news managers from 15 TV stations participated, representing a response of 43% for that group. A total of 12 (of the 26 contacted) newspaper managers from 8 daily newspapers participated, representing a response of 46%. Table 3 provides a synopsis of the managers’ locations and the number of organizations that were represented in each media market, and Table 4 provides a list of managers’ job titles. The average age for news
managers was 43.53 ($SD = 11.04$), and the average news tenure was 22.06 years ($SD = 11.51$). Like journalists, manager news tenure suggests many respondents have spent the majority of their careers in the journalism industry.

**News Industry Perceptions**

Along with investigating social media use in the newsroom, it was important to understand journalists and news managers’ *perceptions of the news industry*. To measure news industry perceptions, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with two statements: “newsroom resources have been shrinking” and “quality of news has been decreasing.” Each perception item was measured on a 5-point-agreement scale (5 = strongly agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 1 = strongly disagree). In regard to newsroom resources, the total reporter sample ($M = 4.46$, $SD = 1.03$) “agreed” that newsroom resources were shrinking; however, the print journalists’ perceptions of fewer resources ($M = 4.81$, $SD = .51$) was significantly stronger, $t(142) = 4.50$, $p < .01$, than TV journalists’ ($M = 4.09$, $SD = 1.28$). The manager sample’s ($M = 4.22$, $SD = 1.07$) perceptions of newsroom resources were also compared to the total reporter samples’, and both groups shared a similar level of “agreement.”

The second news industry perception item asked respondents whether they agreed or disagreed that “the quality of news has been decreasing.” The total reporter sample ($M = 3.76$, $SD = 1.03$), the print reporter group ($M = 3.80$, $SD = 1.01$) and the TV reporter group ($M = 3.71$, $SD = 1.05$) “moderately agreed” that news quality had decreased. However, the news manager sample’s perception of news quality was significantly different, $t(174) = -3.15$, $p < .01$, than reporters’, with news managers ($M = 3.13$, $SD = 1.04$), “neither agreeing nor disagreeing” that news quality had decreased.
Additionally, paired samples $t$-tests were performed to identify significant differences within each group for perceptions of newsroom resources and news quality, indicating significant differences for the total reporter sample, $t(143) = 8.31, p < .01$, the TV reporter group, $t(69) = 3.04, p < .01$, the print reporter group, $t(73) = 9.39, p < .01$, and the news managers, $t(31) = 6.93, p < .01$. For each group, perceptions of newsroom resources shrinking were significantly higher than their perceptions of news quality decreasing. The findings suggest that respondents’ perceive that there has been a reduction in newsroom resources, but they did not believe news quality had decreased at the same rate.

**Workload**

*Workload* has frequently been used to predict beliefs and/or job performance (Dwyer & Ganster, 1991; Hussain et al., 2011). As a result, the present study attempted to measure respondents’ *workload*. *Workload* was operationalized, in part, by measuring journalists’ downtime. Journalists were asked to indicate the number of 30-minute (or longer) breaks they had taken during the previous workweek, and managers were asked to indicate the average number of breaks their reporters take in a workweek. The item included six options, with $0 = 0$ breaks; $1 = 1$ break; $2 = 2$ breaks; $3 = 3$ breaks; $4 = 4$ breaks; $5 = 5$ breaks. The total reporter sample indicated that they took an average of 2.44 breaks ($SD = 1.76$) during the previous workweek. However, a significant difference, $t(140) = 6.56, p < .01$, was found between media, with the TV reporter group ($M = 1.56, SD = 1.42$) taking significantly fewer breaks, $t(140) = 6.56, p < .01$, than print reporters ($M = 3.26, SD = 1.65$). This suggests that TV reporters, on average, had less downtime than print reporters. Managers’ perceptions of reporter *workload* were also measured, with the group indicating that reporters average 3.26 breaks per week ($SD = 1.63$). A significant difference, $t(171) = 2.37, p < .05$, was found for
the reporter group’s average number of weekly breaks and the manager group’s perceptions of reporters’ breaks. Several factors may have contributed to this finding: reporters may have indicated a fewer number of breaks than they had actually taken or respondents in either group felt compelled to indicate a socially desirable answer.

Additionally, the research attempted to measure respondents’ web-reporting expectancy and social-media-reporting expectancy. Recall that web-reporting expectancy was the manager’s expectations for reporters to contribute to the organization’s website. For the journalist-survey instrument, web-reporting expectancy was measured with a single item asking respondents whether they agreed or disagreed (5 = strongly agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 1 = strongly disagree) with the statement “my manager expects me to write stories for the station’s/newspaper’s website.” The total reporter sample \( (M = 4.26, SD = 1.15) \) “agreed” with the statement; however, a significant difference, \( t(142) = 2.58, p < .05 \), was found between media, with print reporters \( (M = 4.50, SD = .85) \) indicating that their managers have significantly higher web-reporting expectancy than the TV reporter group \( (M = 4.01, SD = 1.37) \). For the news-manager survey, respondents were asked whether they agreed or disagreed (5 = strongly agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 1 = strongly disagree) with the statement, “reporters in our newsroom are expected to write stories for the station’s/newspaper’s website.” For the web-reporting expectancy statement, managers \( (M = 4.47, SD = 1.08) \) indicated a similar level of “agreement” as the total reporter sample.

Social-media-reporting expectancy was also measured with a single item asking journalists whether they agreed or disagreed (5 = strongly agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 1 = strongly disagree) with the statement “my manager expects me to post stories on Facebook and/or Twitter.” The total reporter sample “moderately agreed” agreed \( (M = \)
3.80, SD = 1.16) with this item, as did the TV reporter group (M = 3.91, SD = .99) and the print reporter group (M = 3.68, SD = 1.29). For managers, the item was phrased, “reporters in our newsroom are expected to post stories on Facebook and/or Twitter.” News managers (M = 4.16, SD = 1.08) “agreed” with the statement, and no significant difference was found between managers and reporters.

Further analysis was conducted to identify significant differences between web-reporting expectancy and social-media-reporting expectancy within each group. Paired t-tests indicated a significant difference, t(141) = 4.34, p < .01, for the total reporter sample, with web-reporting expectancy (M = 4.25, SD = 1.16) being significantly higher than social-media-reporting expectancy (M = 3.80, SD = 1.16). For the print reporter group, t(72) = 6.13, p < .01, web-reporting expectancy (M = 4.49, SD = .85) was also significantly higher than social-media-reporting expectancy (M = 3.68, SD = 1.29). This suggests that some journalists worked for organizations that placed a stronger emphasis on producing content for newsroom-sponsored websites rather than social media sites. There was no significant difference for web-reporting expectancy and social-media-reporting expectancy for the news manager group or the TV reporter group.

**Adopter Status**

One of the RQ’s attempted to identify the social-media-adopter categories journalists belonged to. To determine journalists’ social media adopter status (e.g. voluntary adopter, forced adopter, non-adopter), the present study adapted Yuqiong’s (2008) concept of adoption, which was composed of three questions: (1) Do you use social media for news reporting purposes (yes, no)?  (2) Does your organization have social media guidelines (yes, no)?  (3) Did you (the reporter) begin using social media for news reporting before the
organization implemented social media guidelines (yes, no, neither the organization nor I use social media)? Subsequently, the data identified potential errors with using this technique. According to Yuqiong’s (2008) research, a “voluntary adopter” was one who indicated that he/she began using social media as reporting tools prior to the news organization instituting social media guideline, and a “forced adopter” was one who began using social media after the organization instituted social media guidelines. However, problems arose with this line of questioning. For one survey question, respondents selected the option stating they did not use social media as reporting tools. In a separate question, the same respondents selected the option indicating they began using social media before the organization; thus, the respondents contradicted themselves. Additionally, one respondent indicated that he/she used social media as reporting tools but also selected the option stating, “neither I nor the organization used social media” in the third adopter question. Consequently, it was impossible to accurately determine whether one was a “voluntary” or “forced” adopter. Thus, the present research focused on whether respondents use social media as reporting tools. Of the 70 individuals in the television reporter group, 60 indicated that they used social media as reporting tools. Of the 74 individuals in the print reporter group, 64 indicated that they used social media as reporting tools.
Chapter 4

Social Media Beliefs

RQ1 and RQ2 attempted to determine journalists and managers’ beliefs about using social media (Facebook and/or Twitter) as reporting tools. The 5-point-agreement scale (5 = strongly agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 1 = strongly disagree) was used to measure ease with using Facebook and/or Twitter, whether Facebook and/or Twitter improved the quality of news reports, and whether the respondent would recommend Facebook and/or Twitter to a fellow journalist. The aforementioned qualities are similar to those found in Rogers’ (2003) diffusion of innovations research: an innovation’s complexity, its relative advantage and an adopter’s favorable/unfavorable opinion about an innovation.

Social Media Ease of Use

For ease about using Facebook and/or Twitter, the total reporter sample ($M = 4.20$, $SD = .86$) “agreed” that using social media was easy, as did the TV reporter group ($M = 4.19$, $SD = .94$), the print reporter group ($M = 4.22$, $SD = .78$), and the manager group ($M = 4.41$, $SD = .61$). The ease concept also emerged in an open-ended question that asked respondents which social media platform (Facebook or Twitter) they preferred to use for news-reporting purposes. Several respondents indicated that their preference was based heavily on the platform’s ease of use. “I prefer to use Facebook because its [sic] easier for me to use and to get constant feedback from viewers. It seems to me more user friendly for the older generation,” wrote a TV journalist. A print reporter described a similar reason for choosing Twitter, “because it is quick, easy and straight-forward.”
Social Media and News Quality

The second beliefs about using social media item attempted to understand whether Facebook and/or Twitter improved the quality of news reports. The total reporter sample ($M = 3.76$, $SD = 1.02$) “marginally agreed” with the statement, as did the TV reporter group ($M = 3.73$, $SD = 1.02$) and the print reporter group ($M = 3.80$, 1.03). Additionally, the concept of social media improving the quality of news reports emerged in an open-ended question, which asked social-media “adopters” whether they preferred Facebook or Twitter. A print reporter highlighted several of Twitter’s relative advantages:

The barriers of entry and time required are very low, while the value of the conversation and added nuggets of information is fairly high, with the right amount of curation [sic]. An instant survey of the environment, feedback on a news topic and added bits of information are near-effortless benefits. In that sense, it increases a reporter’s PERSONAL engagement in a subject while producing a higher quality PROFESSIONAL product, all with minimal social baggage, time investment, useless noise, etc.

On the other hand, some journalists felt social media were a distraction. A TV reporter wrote, “I still believe that the best journalism happens when you cultivate relationships with people. I do feel that too many journalist [sic] get caught up in Twitter and Facebook to look for ideas instead of concentrating on building sources.”

While reporters indicated a marginal level of agreement about social media improving the quality of news reports, news managers’ beliefs ($M = 4.22$, $SD = .75$) were significantly higher, $t(174) = 2.37$, $p < .05$, than the total reporter sample ($M = 3.76$, $SD = 1.02$). In an open-ended question, which asked respondents whether they preferred Facebook or Twitter,
a television news director wrote, “We rely on both Facebook and Twitter. They don’t replace our traditional news reporting, but enhance it by reaching a broader audience.” In addition, a TV assistant news director outlined social media’s pros and cons:

I feel it’s more useful in the field because it takes viewers to the scene and gives a story more urgency. The drawback, though, is that it’s difficult for reporters to interact with viewers on social media while covering a story.

**Recommend Social Media**

The third *belief* item asked respondents whether they would *recommend* social media to a fellow journalist. The total reporter group (*M* = 4.01, *SD* = .95) “agreed” with the statement, as did the TV reporter group (*M* = 4.01, *SD* = .92) and the print reporter group (*M* = 4.00, *SD* = .99). However, a significant difference was found for respondent position, *t*(173) = 2.42, *p* < .05, with news managers (*M* = 4.44, *SD* = .67) indicating that they were more likely to recommend social media to a fellow journalist than the total reporter sample.

**Overall Beliefs About Social Media**

To assess respondents’ overall *beliefs about using social media* as reporting tools, a new variable was created using each of the social media *belief* items (α = .82); for each respondent, social media *ease*, whether social media *improves* news reporting, and whether they would *recommend* social media were summed and divided by the number of *belief* items (*n* = 3) to create an *overall beliefs* variable (5 = very high beliefs, 3 = neither high nor low beliefs, 1 = very low beliefs). The total reporter sample (*M* = 3.99, *SD* = .81) had a high *overall belief* score, as well as the TV reporter group (*M* = 3.98, *SD* = .81) and the print reporter group (*M* = 4.00, *SD* = .83). News managers (*M* = 4.35, *SD* = .55), on the other hand, had significantly higher *overall beliefs* about social media, *t*(173) = 2.43, *p* < .05, than
reporters. A TV news manager summed up his beliefs about social media in one of the survey’s open-ended questions:

I think social media is crucial for the newsroom, in that it helps generate a lot more than you can do with shrinking staffs. News gets reported faster on Twitter than the traditional model of waiting until the Associated Press sends [sic] out an urgent. I think it allows our newsroom quicker access to witnesses and information.

“The Competition’s” Use of Social Media

Shoemaker and Reese’s (1996) research of influences on mass media content learned that news organizations frequently make content decisions that are similar to that of competing news outlets. Thus, respondents were asked whether they agreed or disagreed (5 = strongly agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 1 = strongly disagree) with the statement, “My competitors use Facebook and/or Twitter to report the news.” The total reporter sample (M = 4.35, SD = .70) “agreed” with the statement; however TV reporters (M = 4.50, SD = .53) had a significantly higher perception of “the competition’s” use of social media, t(142) = -2.46, p < .05, than print reporters (M = 4.22, SD = .82). News managers were also asked about “the competition’s” use of Facebook and/or Twitter. Similar to the total reporter sample, managers “agreed” (M = 4.38, SD = .49) that “the competition” utilized social media in reporting.

In the questionnaire’s open-ended items, perceptions of “the competition’s” use of social media emerged in several TV reporter responses. In one of those responses, a TV reporter stated social media was “CRITICAL to learning what our competitors are doing.” This is why a different TV reporter was skeptical about posting information on social media
channels, “I sometimes feel my tweets can alert my competitors to the story I am breaking / covering.” To avoid giving “the competition” privileged information, another TV reporter wrote, “I don’t always say exactly what my stories will include. I use it more to tease and get people to watch. Also keeps the competition guessing because they might not know what I know.”
Chapter 5

RQ3 attempted to learn how reporters’ use social media (Facebook and/or Twitter) to gather news, and RQ4 attempted to identify news managers’ perceptions of journalists’ social media uses. Nine reporting uses were measured using the 5-point-agreement scale, with 5 = strongly agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 1 = strongly disagree. Recall that items asked respondents about their use of “Facebook and/or Twitter,” as opposed to creating individual questions for each social media platform. For journalists, each item assessed reporters’ actual uses of Facebook and/or Twitter. For managers, each item assessed respondents’ perceptions of how reporters use Facebook and/or Twitter. Table 5 provides use mean agreement scores, ordered from highest to lowest, for the total reporter sample, the TV reporter group and the print reporter group, while Table 7 provides use mean agreement scores for the manager sample.

Story Promotion

For the total reporter sample, the most common social media use was to promote reporters’ broadcast/newspaper stories ($M = 4.24$, $SD = .86$), as opposed to creating a new story for Facebook and/or Twitter. Paired samples $t$-tests of the social media uses with similar means indicated that the total reporter sample used social media to promote broadcast/newspaper stories at a significantly higher rate, $t(122) = 2.91$, $p < .01$, than to communicate with the news audience ($M = 4.05$, $SD = .95$), which was the second-most common use. This indicated that the reporter sample used social media to promote broadcast/newspaper stories at a significantly higher rate than any of the remaining news
uses. In addition, both the TV reporter group ($M = 4.30$, $SD = .87$) and the print reporter group ($M = 4.19$, $SD = .86$) indicated that story promotion was the number one social media use. In their open-ended responses, several reporters described the use of social media to promote broadcast/newspaper stories along with the organization’s website. A newspaper reporter wrote, “I see social media not so much as news reporting but rather as a sort of promotional vehicle for the newspaper and its website – where the substance is.” Because news viewers’ habits have changed, a TV reporter suggested social media were essential for news promotion:

   The day of the TV newscast being must-see TV is over. You have to hook people into watching or at least give them straight facts during the day so maybe they say they heard it first from you and/or your station.

   Additionally, news managers assigned a high ranking to using social media to promote broadcast/newspaper stories ($M = 4.28$, $SD = .77$), which was similar to the total reporter sample’s ranking. When addressing the survey’s open-ended questions, several news managers described the importance of using social media to boost TV ratings/newspaper readership and web traffic. A TV executive producer indicated that social media serve a purpose:

   But it needs to be used to drive to the stations [sic] broadcast and website.

   Social media cannot be monetized, so you can’t rely too much on it. I believe its biggest benefit is to drive to the more traditional platforms.
Social Media Uses

Communicate

Because social media are primarily considered communication tools, a survey item asked respondents whether they agreed or disagreed with using social media to communicate with the news audience. The total reporter sample indicated that using social media to communicate with the news audience ($M = 4.05$, $SD = .95$) was the second most common use, and no significant differences were found between the print reporter group ($M = 3.92$, $SD = 1.00$) and the TV reporter group ($M = 4.18$, $SD = .87$). Additionally, news managers ($M = 4.31$, $SD = .82$) perceptions of this use were similar to reporters’ actual use of social media to communicate with the news audience.

Surveillance

Surveillance of the news market was another high-ranking social media use for the total reporter sample ($M = 4.03$, $SD = .95$). While answering the open-ended question that asked whether Facebook or Twitter was a more useful reporting tool, some reporters emphasized social media’s value as surveillance tools. “Twitter is often helpful during a breaking news event. Just this week, I watched Twitter for updates from students who were inside a local high school on lockdown after a gun threat,” a print reporter wrote. A TV reporter also provided examples of using social media for surveillance:

Twitter is an excellent way to follow government agencies and individuals during a breaking news situation. For example, during Hurricane Irene, I utilized Twitter to get up-to-the-minute updates from local emergency agencies in an area of the state that I did not have contacts.
News managers were asked about their perception of reporters’ *uses* of social media as a surveillance tool, and the manager group’s \( (M = 4.31, SD = .64) \) perception aligned with reporters’ actual *use* social media for surveillance.

**Finding Interviews**

Following surveillance, the total reporter sample indicated that finding interviews was a common social media *use* \( (M = 3.94, SD = 1.00) \). This item attempted to learn whether journalists use social media channels to locate individuals who may become part of the news story. “I typically look for a crime victim’s Facebook page, and then look for friends or family to contact. I’ve got several successful interviews as a result of sending messages to people via Facebook,” wrote one print reporter. In addition, a TV reporter said she uses social media to find people affected by particular issues. “I’ll turn to facebook to see if anyone can’t afford their heat this year before I call up Salvation Army or a church because it gives faster results,” explained the respondent. Similar to the reporter sample, the news manager sample \( (M = 3.81, SD = .90) \) “agreed” that finding interviews was a common social media *use* for their reporters.

**Generate Story Ideas**

One item asked respondents whether they strongly agreed/disagreed \( (5 = \text{strongly agree}, 3 = \text{neither agree nor disagree}, 1 = \text{strongly disagree}) \) with using social media to generate story ideas. This item was meant to identify respondents’ agreement or disagreement with using social media to develop specific topics, which could be turned into print or broadcast stories. While the total reporter sample \( (M = 3.65, SD = 1.14) \) “moderately agreed” with this *use*, TV reporters \( (M = 3.95, SD = .96) \) indicated that they used social media to generate story ideas at a significantly higher rate, \( t(121) = -2.84, p < .01 \), than print
reporters ($M = 3.38, SD = 1.24$). Additionally, news managers’ ($M = 4.06, SD = .67$) perceptions of their reporters using social media to generate story ideas were similar to the total reporter sample.

**Scoop the Competition**

Because the journalism industry is highly competitive, a survey item asked respondents whether they agreed or disagreed (5 = strongly agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 1 = strongly disagree) with using social media to scoop the competition; in essence, a journalist might *use* social media to report information before the organization’s competitors, as opposed to waiting for the story to appear in the print newspaper or TV news broadcast. The total reporter sample ($M = 3.62, SD = 1.10$) and the news manager sample ($M = 4.03, SD = .97$) similarly “agreed” with this social media *use*. This social media *use* also emerged in one open-ended answer as a print reporter described the benefits of using social media in the field and the newsroom:

I think it’s probably most useful in the field -- to tweet news as it happens.

That gives you an advantage over a competitor who isn’t there. Although,
sometimes, news happens when you’re in the newsroom, when it would serve the same purpose.

Additionally, a newspaper editor offered his perspective on using social media to scoop the competition, “It’s more of a way to stay ahead of the competition with breaking news and to make readers want to buy the newspaper to see the full story.”

**Pitch Stories**

Before a news story is published or broadcasted, the story idea is typically discussed during a news-editorial meeting. In such meetings, journalists and news managers decide
which stories reporters will effort for the print-edition newspaper or TV-news broadcasts. For this reason, a survey item asked respondents whether they agreed or disagreed (5 = strongly agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 1 = strongly disagree) with using social media to pitch stories to news managers. The total reporter sample ($M = 3.39, SD = 1.18$) “moderately agreed” with this use; however, a significant difference was identified for media, $t(121) = -4.17, p < .01$, with TV reporters ($M = 3.82, SD = 1.02$) using social media to pitch stories to news managers significantly more than print reporters ($M = 2.98, SD = 1.18$). This suggests that TV reporters are more likely than print reporters to use social media content and conversations as evidence that supports the need to cover a particular story. In addition, the manager sample’s perception of this use ($M = 3.66, SD = 1.15$) was similar to the reporter sample’s actual use.

**Posting Exclusive Information**

Respondents were also asked whether they use social media to post information not included in print/broadcast stories. This item was meant to learn whether respondents’ create and post exclusive social media content, rather than producing content for multiple media. Both the reporter sample ($M = 3.02, SD = 1.17$) and the manager sample ($M = 3.16, SD = 1.11$) indicated that this was not a common social media use. Thus, both groups appeared to “neither agree nor disagree” with this survey item.

**Sharing Opinions**

Another item asked respondents whether they agreed or disagreed (5 = strongly agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 1 = strongly disagree) with using social media to share opinions about news stories. This was the lowest ranked use for the total reporter sample ($M = 1.84, SD = .91$). In fact, paired samples $t$-tests comparing social media uses with similar
means indicated reporters share opinions at a significantly lower rate, \( t(122) = 2.84, p < .01, \) than they post information not included in print/broadcast stories. This suggests reporters share opinions via social media at a significantly lower rate than any of the other social media uses. Print reporters \((M = 1.84, SD = .91)\) and TV reporter \((M = 2.30, SD = 1.14)\) also indicated that sharing opinions was the least common use; however, the print reporter group’s level of “disagreement” for this use was significantly higher than TV reporters, \( t(122) = -2.47, p < .05. \) In the questionnaire’s open-ended questions, several journalists indicated that sharing opinions violated organizational guidelines and/or personal ethics. “We are encouraged not to share our personal opinions, only report the facts, stay balanced just as if it were a typical script or story for the web, often we link the web,” wrote a TV reporter. Paired samples \( t \)-tests also indicated that print reporters share opinions via social media at a significantly lower rate, \( t(62) = 6.20, p < .01, \) than the social media use with the closest mean, pitch stories to news managers. A paired samples \( t \)-test resulted in a similar finding for the TV group, with TV reporters sharing opinions significantly less, \( t(59) = 4.06, p < .01, \) than the use with the closest mean (posting information not included in print/broadcast stories). This suggests that both the TV reporter group and the print reporter group share opinions via Facebook and/or Twitter at a significantly lower rate than any of the other social media uses. In addition, the news manager sample was asked whether reporters used social media to share opinions; consequently, the total reporter sample \((M = 2.07, SD = 1.05)\) showed a significantly stronger level of “disagreement”, \( t(154) = 2.28, p < .05, \) than the news manager sample \((M = 2.56, SD = 1.29).\)
Social Media Uses: Capital and Non-Capital Markets Comparison

Recall that two sampled markets were state capitals. Such markets, presumably are areas for qualitatively, if not quantitatively, different levels of media coverage; are home to large numbers of public relations and lobby organizations, in addition to government officials and agencies; and are closely associated with one of this study’s story type categories: government news. As a result, sub-analysis of the data compared each of the nine social media uses of the capital group and non-capital group; however, no significant differences were found between these groups for any of the social media uses. Table 6 provides use mean agreement scores, ordered from highest to lowest for the capital and non-capital groups.
Chapter 6

For RQ3 and RQ4, the present research also attempted to identify the story types journalists most frequently post on “Facebook and/or Twitter” and news managers’ perceptions of the story types most often posted on “Facebook and/or Twitter.” Six survey items, each focusing on a particular story type, were measured using the 5-point-agreement scale (5 = strongly agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 1 = strongly disagree). Table 8 provides story-type mean agreement scores, ordered from highest to lowest, for the total reporter sample. Table 10 provides story-type mean agreement scores for the manager sample. In addition, a sub-analysis of the data compared each of the story types for the two capital markets (Raleigh – Durham, NC and Columbia, SC) and the non-capital markets; however, no significant differences were found for these groups. Table 9 provides a list of mean-agreement scores for each of the six story types for both the capital and non-capital groups.

Breaking News

For the total reporter sample, breaking news \((M = 4.12, SD = 1.09)\) was the most frequently reported story type via social media. Breaking news stories would include a range of topics, such as high-speed police chases, house fires, natural disasters, etc. Paired samples t-tests comparing social media story types with similar means indicated that the total reporter, sample used social media to post breaking news significantly more, \(t(122) = 4.61, p < .01\), than government news \((M = 3.75, SD = 1.09)\), which was the second-most-common story type. In addition, print reporters \((M = 3.95, SD = 1.25)\) and TV reporters \((M = 4.30, SD = \)
similarly “agreed” that breaking news was the most frequently reported social media story type. Paired samples t-tests comparing social media story types with similar means indicated TV reporters posted breaking news stories significantly more, $t(59) = 3.58, p < .01$, than the group’s second-most-common story type (crime news). Similar to the TV reporter group, print reporters posted breaking news stories significantly more, $t(63) = 2.81, p < .01$, than the group’s second-most-common story type (government news). This suggests that the reporters, regardless of media, post breaking news stories at a significantly higher rate than any of the other story types. When answering the survey’s open-ended questions, several journalists described social media’s value for reporting breaking news. “It allows me to transmit basics and photos about breaking news with nothing more than my cell phone. I’m limited only by how fast I’m able to text or snap and said pictures,” explained a TV reporter. News managers also indicated that breaking news was the most common story type ($M = 4.59, SD = .50$); however, managers’ perceptions of the frequency of breaking news posts were significantly higher, $t(154) = 2.34, p < .05$, than reporters’ actual breaking news posts. Additionally, paired samples t-tests indicated that managers’ perceptions of reporter breaking news posts were significantly higher, $t(31) = 2.74, p = .01$, than managers’ perceptions of reporters’ government news posts, which was the story type with the closest mean. This suggests that managers perceive their reporters post breaking news stories at a significantly higher rate than any other story type.

**Social Media Story Types**

**Local and State Government News**

Following breaking news, the total reporter sample indicated that it regularly posted government news (local and state) stories via “Facebook and/or Twitter” ($M = 3.75, SD = .87$)
Government news would include a range of topics, such as state and local elections and legislation. Managers also perceived government news as the second-most-frequently-posted story type ($M = 4.28, SD = .81$), but managers’ perceptions of this story type were significantly higher, $t(153) = 2.58, p < .05$, than the total reporter sample’s actual government news posts. In the open-ended question that asked whether Facebook or Twitter was a more useful news-reporting platform, a newspaper editor offered an example of how a reporter posted government news via social media:

A gov / politics reporter is at a hearing on state pension ‘reform.’ There is a huge audience for that -- retirees and taxpayers. We will post a short story online summarizing what went on. However, during the hearing, the reporter will tweet what is being said, asked, etc. We put their Twitter feeds on our site, and when they post a full story they tweet that out.

**Crime News**

One survey item asked respondents whether they strongly agree/disagree (5 = strongly agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 1 = strongly disagree) with posting crime news via social media. Examples of crime news would include murders, shootings and robberies/burglaries. The total reporter sample indicated crime news was the third most frequently posted social media story type ($M = 3.74, 1.07$), however a significant difference for media, $t(122) = -2.86, p < .01$, was identified, with TV reporters ($M = 4.02, SD = .87$) posting crime news more often than print reporters ($M = 3.48, SD = 1.17$). In addition, the news manager sample ($M = 4.22, SD = .79$) perceived that crime news stories were posted at a significantly higher rate, $t(152) = 2.20, p < .05$, than the total reporter sample’s actual crime news posts.
Economic News

Respondents were also asked whether they strongly agreed/disagreed (5 = strongly agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 1 = strongly disagree) with posting economy news stories via “Facebook and/or Twitter.” Economy news stories could be a range of stories including layoffs, the housing market, tax increases, etc. The total reporter sample ($M = 3.49, SD = 1.09$) “moderately agreed” with posting this story type via social media, however a significant difference was found for media, $t(121) = -3.99, p < .01$, with TV reporters posting economy news stories via social media ($M = 3.89, SD = .87$) more often than print reporters ($M = 3.13, SD = 1.16$). Furthermore, a significant difference was found for respondent position, $t(153) = 2.17, p < .05$, with news managers ($M = 3.94, SD = .84$) having the perception that economy news stories were posted more often than the total reporter sample actually indicated.

Glimpse Behind the Scenes

The fifth story type item asked respondents whether they strongly agreed/disagreed (5= strongly agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 1 = strongly disagree) with posting content on social media that offered the audience a glimpse behind the scenes. A journalist posting to Facebook or Twitter a picture of employees working in the newsroom would be an example of this story type. A journalist may post a glimpse behind the scenes to connect with the audience or give people a better understanding of the newsgathering process. The total reporter sample ($M = 3.48, SD = 1.08$) “moderately agreed” with this story type, as did manager sample ($M = 3.59, SD = 1.10$). Of the six story types, this was the only category where the manager sample and the reporter sample were statistically similar, as well as the TV reporter group ($M = 3.65, SD = .99$) and the print reporter group ($M = 3.31, SD = 1.14$).
Education News

The final story type item focused on education news posts. This story type would cover a range of topics, such as the “No Child Left Behind” act, school district realignment and college-tuition increases. Education news was the least-common story type for the total reporter sample ($M = 3.37, SD = 1.16$). Once again, a significant different emerged for media, $t(121) = -4.43, p < .01$, with TV reporters ($M = 3.82, SD = 2.95$) posting education news stories more frequently than print reporters ($M = 2.95, SD = 1.22$). Additionally, news managers ($M = 4.06, SD = .62$) perceived education news stories were posted at a significantly higher rate, $t(153) = 3.23, p < .01$, than the reporter group’s actual posts.

Overall Uses of Social Media

To calculate an overall social media use score, the nine individual social media uses and the six story types ($\alpha = .88$) were summed and divided by the total number of items ($n = 15$), with $5 =$ very high use, $3 =$ neither high nor low use, $1 =$ very low use). The total reporter sample had an overall social media use score of $3.60 (SD = .65)$, indicating “moderate” social media use. According to an independent samples $t$-test, the TV reporter group ($M = 3.78, SD = .59$) had an overall social media use score that was significantly higher, $t(119) = -3.06, p < .01$, than the print reporter group ($M = 3.43, SD = .67$). This suggests that TV reporters are significantly more likely to use social media as a newsgathering and delivery tool; this is a result of the TV reporters assigning higher levels of “agreement” for three social media uses and three social media story types.

Additionally, the total reporter sample’s overall social media use was compared to news managers’ perceptions of overall social media use ($M = 3.93, SD = .47$). An independent samples $t$-test indicated a significant difference, $t(151) = 2.62, p = .01$, with
managers’ perceiving higher overall social media use than the reporter group’s actual overall social media use. This was due to the manager group’s higher level of “agreement” for one of the social media uses and five of the social media story types.

**Predictors of Social Media Uses**

Research Question 3 attempted to identify how journalists use social media as news-reporting tools. Learning journalists’ specific uses of social media was not the only goal of the present study. Additionally, the objectives were to determine whether it is possible to predict journalists’ uses of social media. Recall that the nine social media uses (e.g. news market surveillance, generate story ideas, etc.) and six social media story types (e.g. breaking news, government news, etc.) were summed and divided by the total number of items (n = 15) to create an overall social media use score, with 5 = very high use, 3 = neither high nor now use, 1 = very low use. The total reporter sample had an overall social media use score of 3.60 (SD = .65). Correlation and multiple-regression analyses were conducted to examine the relationship between journalists’ overall social media use and various potential predictors. Table 11 summarizes the descriptive statistics and analysis results. The results of the regression indicated that six predictors explained 23% of the variance (R² = .23, F(6, 107) = 6.57, p < .01). Consequently, reporters’ perceptions of “the competition’s” use of social media significantly predicted his/her overall social media use score, b = .32, t(113) = 3.41, p < .01, as did the organization’s social-media-reporting expectancy, b = .19, t(113) = 2.18, p < .05. As a result, “the competition’s” perceived use of social media followed by the organization’s social-media-reporting expectancy appear to be the best predictors for RQ3, which attempted to explain journalists uses of social media as news reporting tools.
RQ5 attempted to learn the social media guidelines journalists were expected to follow. Previous research has found that guidelines were absent in many organizations (Zerfass et al., 2010), but little attention has been focused on news organizations’ social media guidelines. Two guideline items, which included one close-ended question and one open-ended question, were posed to respondents. The close-ended question simply asked respondents whether their organization had social media guidelines, with 1 = Yes and 2 = No. For the total reporter sample, 96 of the 144 respondents indicated that social media guidelines were in place, representing 67% of the reporter sample. A total of 49 TV reporters (out of 70 respondents), which represented 86% of the group, indicated that their TV station had social media guidelines. For the print reporter group, 47 of the 74 respondents indicated that their newspaper had social media guidelines, representing 64% of the print reporter group. For the manager sample, 27 of the 32 respondents indicated that their news organization had social media guidelines, representing 84% of the sample. The percentage of participants who indicated that their organization had social media guidelines differed significantly by respondent position, $X^2 (1, N = 176) = 3.90, p < .05$, with a higher percentage of news managers claiming social media guidelines were in place.

While several respondents indicated that their news organization had social media guidelines, it was unclear what, exactly, those guidelines were. For this reason, a second social media guidelines item, which was an open-ended question, asked respondents to
describe – in detail – their organization’s social media guidelines. The researcher analyzed each open-ended response qualitatively. Consequently, four common themes emerged: (1) No Policy, (2) TV/Print Guidelines, (3) Social Media Quotas, (4) Spelled-Out Policy.

No Policy

For the “No Policy” category, one manager and several TV and newspaper reporters described the absence of written or spoken social media guidelines. “We really don’t have guidelines. Just not to get sued,” stated on TV reporter. Some journalists described a similar, casual approach for posting news via social media. As one print reporter explained, “Guidelines are more relaxed on sources and sentence structure, etc. Conduct is monitored and expected to be professional.” Another print reporter described a similar practice, “I am more likely to use unnamed sources or unconfirmed reports on Twitter to report news developments.” But this approach toward social media reporting was not universal. Rather than loosening journalistic rules and ethics, some reporters said they adhered to “self-imposed” social media guidelines. A print reporter said, “I’m expected to, of course, not write anything that could be interpreted as offensive. Otherwise, guidelines haven’t really been laid out.” Because her TV station did not have social media guidelines, one reporter said:

I have instituted my own personal set of guidelines, which includes things like – not giving my personal opinion on a story; not posting the story if it is an exclusive (so as not to tip off the competition beforehand); and only posting things on Twitter which are confirmed through multiple sources.
It was also apparent that the absence of social media guidelines troubled some reporters. “Right now there’s really no clear cut guideline to follow at my station. I feel that can be dangerous because there are some gray areas with social media,” stated one TV reporter.

**TV/Print Guidelines**

While “written” social media guidelines appeared to be nonexistent in some news organizations, several respondents said the expectation was for journalists to follow traditional “TV/Print Guidelines.” When posting reports on Facebook or Twitter, some respondents said journalists were expected to confirm the information and present it in objective way. A TV news director said his reporters adhered to, “The same reporting guidelines used for television -- sourced, factual information without opinion or judgment.” A TV executive director said managers cautioned the reporting staff about the legitimacy of information found on social media:

Because it’s on social media does not make it fact. Many times people take something that is tweeted or on facebook as fact. Actually, we find a majority of tweets and posts have false information. You still have to double check facts.

Furthermore, one print reporter said the company’s journalistic standards “transcends the platform we’re using (web or print). Also attribute the information where appropriate, follow up with updates if required (that the road that was closed earlier because of a wreck is now open, etc.).”

**Social Media Quotas**

A third theme emerged in respondents’ descriptions of their organization’s social media guidelines: “Social Media Quotas.” The researcher noticed several responses whereby
respondents stated the primary social media guideline focused on the quantity of social media posts. Thus, the posts containing this theme were placed in a “Social Media Quotas” category. Several reporters indicated that their organizations required them to post a specific number of news stories via social media. “They’ve asked me to post once per day to Facebook, and not post proprietary company information,” wrote a TV reporter. Other organizations appeared to have varying expectations. A print reporter said journalists were “expected to tweet a certain number of times (depending on the circumstances) when covering an event live. We also have goals that require us to use Facebook and Twitter for a certain amount of times per month.” However, “Social Media Quotas” did not necessarily mean an organization’s reporters were expected to post social media stories at a high frequency; one TV executive producer said journalists “are not to post too many stories too close together on Facebook, so as to bog down people’s news feeds.”

**Spelled-Out Policy**

The fourth theme that emerged in respondents’ descriptions of the social media guidelines indicated that the respondent’s news organization had a “Spelled-Out Policy.” A print reporter said managers recently instituted social media guidelines:

> It reminds us that anything we have online (even our personal social media accounts) could reflect on the newspaper, and we need to be mindful of the things we post, including things that might affect our ability to cover an issue in an unbiased way. It also says that any ethical guidelines we have in gathering information applies to gathering information online (identifying ourselves as reporters, etc.).
A TV executive producer described similar social media guidelines at her station. “All communication on social networks must adhere to the same ethical, legal and marketing considerations that apply to broadcast content. Personal opinions and commentary are not appropriate,” wrote the manager. In addition, the executive producer said news management reserved the right to edit or remove social media content produced by newsroom employees. Some respondents said their organization’s “Spelled-Out Policies” reinforced the consequences of posting biased, inaccurate, and inappropriate information. “If a member, any member of our TV station comments on a story, candidate, law it affects the way the public sees our tv [sic] station as an unbiased and fair organization. No opinions are allowed,” wrote an assistant news director.

**Social Media Non-Adopters**

RQ7 attempted to understand *why* some journalists have not adopted social media as a newsgathering tool. Two survey items focused on this research question: a close-ended question and an open-ended question. Recall that a close-ended question, which asked journalists whether they *used* social media for news-reporting purposes (yes or no), determined whether a respondent was an “adopter” or “non-adopter.” Of the 74 respondents in the print reporter group, 10 journalists indicated that they were “non-adopters.” For the TV reporter group, 10 of the 70 respondents indicated that they were “non-adopters.” One open-ended item was presented to respondents who were identified as “non-adopters.” The open-ended item asked respondents to describe – in detail – why they do not use social media for newsgathering. The researcher analyzed each response qualitatively; consequently, two common themes emerged: time shortage and no organizational expectations.
Time Shortage

The lack of time emerged as one of the most common reasons “non-adopters” rejected social media. Recall that a close-ended item, which asked respondents to indicate the number of 30-minute breaks they had taken during the previous five workdays, suggested that TV and print reporters have little downtime. The total reporter sample averaged 2.4 ($SD = 1.76$) thirty-minute breaks, while TV reporters averaged 1.56 ($SD = 1.42$) breaks and print reporters averaged 3.26 ($SD = 1.65$). One TV reporter said he simply does not have the time to complete his daily duties and report via social media:

I am a one man [sic] band. I shoot the video, write the stories, edit the stories, operate live trucks and handle a bureau all on my own. As a result, I do not have time during the day to keep the social media outlets up to date. To stop and work on those ends of the business would keep me from reporting.

Another TV reporter said social media may help him generate story ideas and promote broadcast stories, “But it might also dramatically [sic] increase my workload, and I am already pushed to the limit.” Additionally, a print reporter said he posts breaking news on the newspaper’s website but does not have the time to do the same via social media:

the [sic] workday only has so many hours and i [sic] choose to spend my time researching stories to better serve readers rather than spend it on an effort for which there are no measureable benefits to the newspaper, its readers or me.

No Organizational Expectations

The second theme emerging from “non-adopters” answers was that their news organization did not expect journalists to use social media as news-reporting tools. “It has never been demanded of me and I am old school,” claimed one TV reporter. Another TV
reporter wrote, “Some reporters at my station have started doing this, but until it’s required by management, I won’t because I just don’t have the time.” Moreover, a print reporter indicated neither he nor news management believed there were benefits for using social media:

It hasn’t been required by my supervisors and I have no personal interest in social media. I have to admit I’ve gotten second-hand news tips a time or two from colleagues who use Facebook and Twitter but my impression is that very small numbers of people follow ‘news’ by social media. Short answer: I guess I have no incentive to explore it as a news medium.

The above answers support the results of the regression analysis, which attempted to identify the main predictors of journalists’ overall social media use. Recall that the organization’s social-media-reporting expectancy was the second-highest predictor variable for one’s overall social media use (see Table 11).

**Other Reasons for Non-Adoption**

A shortage of time and the absence of organizational expectations were the two most common themes echoed by “non-adopters”, but they were not the only reasons “non-adopters” rejected social media. Two reporters indicated they did not use Facebook or Twitter because of the platforms’ complexity. “i [sic] dont [sic] use facebook or twitter personally and so i’m [sic] unfamiliar with using it for work. if [sic] required to, i [sic] would use it for work purposes, however that hasn’t been the case in my newsroom yet,” wrote a TV reporter. Additionally, there was a degree of skepticism among some “non-adopters”, regarding the relative advantages of social media. A print reporter said, “I rarely use social media to report because I’ve seen little evidence that it yields much more than
anecdotes. I find it easier to report facts from known, credible sources than to parse out the truth from social commenters [sic].” The lack of editorial oversight of social media content also troubled some journalists. “JUST HAVEN’T ADAPTED TO IT. ALSO CONCERNS ABOUT MEDIA-- UNEDITED...ALMOST STREAM OF CONCIOUSNESS…,” stated a TV reporter.

“Non-adopters” open-ended responses suggested that several variables affected journalists’ during the social-media-adoption process. While the shortage of time and the absence of organizational expectations where among the most common themes, respondents indicated they were not the only factors. As Rogers’ (2003) diffusion of innovations research indicated, potential adopters often evaluate an innovation’s relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, trialability and observability prior to adopting or rejecting the innovation; for “non-adopters”, the open-ended responses suggest many individuals evaluated social media based on the aforementioned characteristics.
Chapter 8
Discussion

This thesis attempted to identify journalists’ uses of social media (Facebook and Twitter) as news-reporting tools, managers’ perceptions of reporters’ social media uses, and news organizations’ social media guidelines. In addition, gaining a clearer understanding of journalists’ perceptions of the news industry and workload were critical components of the project. Both print and TV reporters indicated that newsroom resources have been shrinking in recent years; however, print reporters’ perceptions of shrinking resources were significantly higher than television reporters’. This was not surprising because in recent years the newspaper industry has experienced steeper advertising revenue declines than the broadcast TV industry (Edmonds, Guskin & Rosenstiel, 2011). Consequently, print reporters would be more likely to witness the affects of budget cuts, which may include employee layoffs and fewer capital expenditures.

Furthermore, the research attempted to gain a clearer understanding about journalists’ workloads. According to the data, news reporters’ workdays included little downtime. In the previous five workdays, the total reporter sample indicated that they were able to take two breaks that lasted at least 30-minutes. However, the TV reporter group indicated that it took significantly fewer breaks ($M = 1.56$, $SD = 1.42$) than the print reporter group ($M = 3.26$, $SD = 1.65$). During a typical workday, TV reporters are often asked to meet multiple deadlines by reporting stories for multiple news broadcasts, which could have contributed to this result. The research also attempted to gather news managers’ perceptions of reporters’ downtime.
Unlike the total reporter sample, managers perceived journalists took a significantly higher number of breaks. The research did not attempt to learn why managers’ perceptions did not align with journalists’ answers; however, previous studies have suggested that it is common for managers to have perceptions that do match their subordinates’ actual output (Ashkansky, 1991; James & White, 1983); in addition, the manager sample could have felt compelled to provide socially desirable answers.

Because many local television and newspaper newsrooms are stressful and busy workplaces, it was not clear whether journalists would welcome the added task of newsgathering and reporting via social media (Facebook and/or Twitter). As a result, RQ1 and RQ2 attempted to learn journalists and managers’ beliefs about social media as news-reporting tools. Regardless of local journalists’ busy schedules, the data suggested that print and TV reporters had similar high beliefs about social media as news-reporting tools. Both TV and print reporters similarly “agreed” that social media were easy to use, that social media improved news reports, and indicated that they would recommend social media to a fellow journalist. This suggests that many journalists are willing use social media channels for gathering and distributing news content. The news manager group similarly “agreed” with the total reporter sample’s belief about social media’s ease, however news managers demonstrated significantly higher levels of “agreement” for social media improving news reports and indicated they were more likely to recommend social media to fellow journalists. The specific reasons for news managers demonstrating higher beliefs about social media are not known; it may be that news managers take part in the design and analysis of news organizations’ budgets and are more cognizant of increasing or decreasing news revenues, which could lead to managers possessing higher beliefs about social media’s ability to
promote and market the news product. Managers may have also felt compelled to provide more socially desirable answers for the beliefs about social media items.

Along with learning journalists’ beliefs about social media, the present study was designed to learn how local journalists use social media as newsgathering and news-reporting tools. While RQ3 attempted to identify reporters’ most common social media uses and story types, RQ4 attempted to learn managers’ perceptions of reporters’ most common social media uses and story types. TV and print reporters indicated that the most common social media use was to promote broadcast/newspaper stories. Furthermore, the total reporter group indicated that it used social media to promote broadcast/newspaper stories at a significantly higher rate than any other use. While news organizations control the content they publish on Facebook and Twitter, it is safe to assume that many have not developed a steady advertising-revenue stream for their social media efforts. Thus, it makes sense that journalists would be instructed to use social media channels as tools to drive news consumers to in the traditional-media product, which could lead to increased newspaper readership or newscast ratings and more web traffic. The news manager group also assigned a high ranking to story promotion; however, the group perceived their reporters were more likely to use social media for surveillance and communicating with the news audience.

Additionally, RQ3 and RQ4 attempted to learn journalists’ most common social media story types and news managers’ perceptions of the most common story types. Print and TV reporters similarly “agreed” that breaking news was the most frequently posted social media story type. Furthermore, both reporter groups indicated that they posted breaking news stories via social media at a significantly higher rate than any other story type. In the survey’s open-ended questions, several reporters indicated that posting breaking news
via social media allowed the news organization to position itself as the market’s news leader, and they believed setting this precedent during breaking news events would benefit the organization in the long run. Recall that two news markets (Raleigh-Durham, NC and Columbia, SC) were state capitals; however, no significant differences were found between the capital reporter group and the non-capital group for social media uses or story types.

Like the total reporter group, news managers rated breaking news as the number one story type; however, managers’ perceptions of breaking news posts were significantly higher than reporters’ actual posts. In fact, managers perceived higher social media posts for all of the story types but glimpse behind the scenes. As was the case with the weekly breaks question, previous research suggests that managers’ perceptions of their subordinates’ workdays and output are often inaccurate (Ashkansky, 1991; James & White, 1983). Social desirability may have also led to the disparity between the reporter and manager samples.

Along with learning the most common social media uses and story types, the research developed an overall social media use score by summing the uses ($n = 9$) and story types ($n = 6$) and dividing the total by the number of variables ($n = 15$). The data indicated that TV reporters had an overall social media use score that was significantly higher than print reporters. Consequently, it appears that TV reporters use social media to gather news and post story types more frequently than print reporters. Furthermore, the news manager group’s perception of journalists’ overall social media use was higher than the journalists indicated. The present study did not attempt to learn why manager perceptions were higher than reporters’ actual social media activity, nevertheless there appears to be a logical explanation. A decade ago newsroom managers could easily track journalists’ output by simply scanning the daily newspaper or news broadcasts. Accurately quantifying journalists’
social media uses is more difficult due to the notion that the news organization and every journalist may have his or her own Facebook and Twitter page, which can be updated at any moment. Similar to the beliefs questions, managers may have felt inclined to provide socially desirable regarding social media uses and story types.

The research also attempted to understand which variables were most likely to predict a journalist’s overall social media use. A simple-multiple regression analysis determined that “the competition’s” use of social media followed by the organization’s social-media expectancy were the best predictors of a journalist’s social media use. This suggests a journalist who perceives that “the competition” frequently uses social media use social media more frequently. This finding is similar to the results of Shoemaker and Reese’s (1996) research, which suggested “each news organization acts as a source for the others” (p. 189). Thus, there appears to be an interaction between “the competition’s” social-media strategy and the organization’s social-media expectancy. Additionally, news managers and ownership groups regularly set the news agenda (Shoemaker & Reese, 1996); if both place a strong emphasis on using social media as news-reporting tools, the individual journalist may be more inclined to use social media.

After identifying reporters’ overall social media use, RQ5 attempted to understand the social media guidelines reporters were required to follow. A close-ended question asked respondents (reporters and managers) whether their news organization had social media guidelines. The percentage of respondents who indicated that their organization had social media guidelines differed significantly by respondent position, with a higher percentage news managers indicating that their organization had social media guidelines compared to news reporters. In addition, an open-ended question asked respondents (reporters and managers) to
describe their organization’s social media guidelines. The researcher analyzed each answer qualitatively and found an array of answers ranging from a total absence of social media guidelines to strict social media policies. Ultimately, four common categories emerged: (1) No Policy, (2) TV/Print Guidelines, (3) Social Media Quotas, (4) Spelled-Out Policy. While some organizations appear to have clearly stated social media guidelines, many others do not. This troubled the researcher because libel lawsuits against news organizations are common. What’s more, several individuals have filed defamation suits against news organizations for content posted to news outlets’ social media sites (Tenore, 2011). It would be impossible for a news organization to eliminate the possibility of libelous lawsuits, but it may be able to reduce such risks by developing a comprehensive list of social media do’s and don’ts. At the very least, news managers could present reporters and other newsroom workers with the list of social media guidelines found in the Associated Press’ Stylebook (Christian, Jacobsen & Minthorn, 2011).

The present research also attempted to segment adopters based on Rogers’ (2003) diffusion of innovations theory. Recall that Rogers placed adopters in one of five categories (innovator, early adopter, early majority, late majority, laggard) based on the time it took for one to progress through the innovation-adoption process. To answer RQ7, the present study used three questions, which were adapted from Yuqion’s (2008) survey, in an attempt to identify “voluntary” and “forced” social media adopters. The line of questioning asked reporters whether they used social media as news-reporting tools, whether their organization had social media guidelines, and whether the reporter began using social media before the organization implemented social media guidelines. Those who indicated they began using social media before the organization would be considered “voluntary” adopters and those
who began using social media after the organization would be “forced” adopters. However, serious problems arose with this line of questioning. For example, several reporters indicated that they did not use social media as reporting tools but stated they began using social media before the news organization. Contradictions such as this made it impossible to accurately segment “voluntary” and “forced” adopters. As a result, the researcher chose to place respondents (journalists) in one of two groups (non-adopters and adopters), which was determined by the question asking reporters whether they used social media as news-reporting tools. Ultimately, the majority of journalists (86%) indicated that they use to gather and report news stories.

Lastly, social media “non-adopters” were the focus of RQ7. This research question attempted to understand why certain reporters rejected social media as news-reporting tools. Journalists who indicated they do not use social media were asked to answer an open-ended question, which had them describe the reason(s) for their decision. The researcher analyzed the open-ended answers qualitatively and found two common themes: time constraints and the absence of organizational expectations. Recall the data suggest that news reporters have busy workdays with very little downtime. Consequently, some reporters said that they could not afford the time needed to take on the added responsibility of reporting news via social media. In regard to organizational expectations, some journalists specifically stated that they did not use social media because their managers did not expect them to use social media. This reasoning falls in line with the regression analysis’ findings, which indicated that social-media expectancy was a significant predictor of journalists’ overall social media use. Thus, it appears this group of “non-adopters” may have been willing to use social media as news-reporting tools had their news manager made them part of the reporter’s job description.
Conclusion

It is clear that news audiences are using new media tools to consume, create and distribute media content. Rather than relying on local TV newscasts or print newspapers for news, one can access information instantly via the Internet and social media sites, such as Facebook and Twitter. Consequently, some of this study’s participants recognized this shift. As one reporter stated, “The day of the TV newscast being must-see TV is over.” It appears the television news and newspaper industries are entangled in Schümpeter’s process of creative destruction. This does not suggest that local newspapers and TV stations are nearing the end of their economically useful life, but it does emphasize the need for local news decision makers to reassess their news delivery strategies and business models.

The purpose of this thesis was to understand whether the audiences’ shifting media-consumption habits had affected local TV and newspaper reporters’ routines. Social media are primarily used as communication tools. However, the research suggests respondents used Facebook and Twitter as communications tools, to gather and deliver news and to connect with the news audience. Rather than solely using social media as a distribution channel, reporters indicated that social media’s primary benefit was as a promotional tool. This implies that the news organization’s core content can be found on the organization’s website and print newspaper or news broadcast. Consequently, reporters appear to be using Facebook and Twitter as tools to notify the audience as to where they can locate the core content.

For the most commonly posted story types, reporters indicated that they posted breaking news stories at a significantly higher rate than any other category. This suggests journalists recognize the need to post news stories via Facebook and Twitter so it will be
readily available for the news consumer. Afterall, if the reporter at station “A” holds on to the information, the reporter at newspaper “B” may post the information and get credit for scooping “the competition.”

The research also compared overall social media use by media and capital-market status. Additionally, the research compared reporters’ self-reported uses to their managers’ perceptions of overall social media use. The data indicated that TV reporters are more active social media users throughout the story generation, production and distribution process. An explanation for this may be that the TV group had a higher perception of “the competition’s” use of social media, which was considered a primary predictor of social media use. It should also be mentioned that local TV stations regularly market their news “talent”, and they are often recognizable figures in the community. Thus, TV reporters may be more inclined than print reporters to maintain a presence on Facebook and Twitter. Additionally, reporters’ overall social media use score was measured with capital-market status acting as the independent variable. This decision was made because two markets (Raleigh-Durham, NC and Columbia, SC) were capital markets and each was closely associated with one of the story types (state and local news). Surprisingly, no significant differences were found for any of the social media uses or types. News managers, on the other hand, perceived their reporters had an overall social media use score that was significantly higher than the journalists’ self-reported score. Previous research suggests that this is common (Ashkansky, 1991; James & White, 1983). Moreover, news managers would have a difficult time accurately assessing their reporters’ social media output when each individual may have his or her own Facebook and Twitter account.
The research also suggests that the majority of the sampled journalists use social media as news-reporting tools, but it appears many are not provided with clearly stated social-media guidelines. Several individuals typically screen news content for accuracy and potential legal issues prior to it being published in the newspaper or TV-news broadcast. Social media allows individuals, which includes news reporters, to publish media without it clearing the aforementioned “screening process.” Because of legal-liability issues, it is of the researcher’s opinion that journalists be advised on the story types and situations where social media content must be approved or fact-checked prior to publication.

**Limitations**

It is evident that social media have become common tools in local newsrooms. However, limitations exist with surveys that ask respondents to self-report information. For example, journalists and news managers complete an unknowable number of tasks each day; thus, it could difficult for them to accurately report the frequency at which they complete a particular task or post a particular story type. It must also be noted that each individual who completed the questionnaire did so on his or her own accord. Because the research was titled “New Media in the Newsroom”, some potential respondents who were not interested in the topic could have declined to take part in the study, which would certainly affect the findings.

It must also be noted that the sample works in a two state region: North Carolina and South Carolina. Different news philosophies are often found in different regions, which may make it difficult to generalize the studies findings. Furthermore, the level social media activity and the number of social media users often differ by region, which may affect a news organizations’ social media output. Additionally, the researcher identified potential-respondents by visiting each organization’s website. This method is limited as websites that
are not updated regularly may neglect to display the names of newly hired employees and the sites may list the names of employees who are no longer working for the organization or who have assumed new roles within the organization.

Limitations also existed within the survey instruments. Because newsrooms are busy and noisy environments, the researcher felt it was necessary to reduce the time needed to complete the survey in an effort to increase response rates. For this reason, items that measured beliefs about social media, social media uses and social media story types focused on Facebook and Twitter collectively or in combination. This makes it impossible to accurately assess the time and effort one placed on a particular social media platform. Future research might include a content analysis of news organizations and journalists’ social media pages, which may provide the researcher with a more accurate method of quantifying social media use. Due to the fact that new users regularly join social media and that new social media platforms emerge, one may also consider implementing a longitudinal study that measures journalists’ social media

Finally, it is not known whether news outlets have identified specific social media goals and whether they have formulated strategies to accomplish their objectives. Case studies on newsrooms’ social media efforts may provide valuable information. Media evolution will not end with Facebook, Twitter, or any of the current social media platforms, which is why it is imperative for scholars, journalists, and news managers to assess the industry’s use of social media. This exercise may uncover valuable lessons that may benefit the industry as it progresses through the next chapter of media evolution.
Appendix A

Journalists’ Survey

Survey Introduction:

An effort to understand new media in the newsroom and its affect on news reporting.

Hello,

The Internet and "social media" have changed the way people receive news. As a result, many journalists have altered the way they gather and report the news. But to this point news managers and reporters are not sure whether this new reporting strategy has paid off.

Your participation in this short survey is vital to understanding social media use in newsrooms and will help identify areas that need improvement. This questionnaire should take you no more than 13 minutes to complete. Your responses will be absolutely confidential.

Thank you in advance for your help. If you have any questions feel free to contact Eric White, the study’s principal investigator, at ewhite78@email.unc.edu or his faculty advisor, Dr. Daniel Riffe at driffe@email.unc.edu. Before you begin please take a moment and read the following instructions.
Consent Form: Please indicate whether you agree to participate below.

IRB Study #: 11-1873
Title of Study: New Media in the Newsroom: A Survey of TV and Newspaper Journalists on the Role of Social Media Reporting
Investigators: Eric White (ewhite78@email.unc.edu); Daniel Riffe, Ph.D. (driffe@email.unc.edu)
UNC-Chapel Hill Department: School of Journalism and Mass Communication

What is the purpose of this study?
The purpose of the proposed study is to describe the role of the news reporter now that new media have become a common component in local television and newspaper newsrooms. You are being asked to participate in this study because you have been identified as someone who works in a local television or newspaper newsroom.

How will your privacy be protected?
Your name will not appear with any of the survey data. If you choose to receive a summary of the results, we will collect your email address, but this information will be kept separate from research data and will be destroyed after we send the results. The data will be accessible only to the principal investigators. In any presentations, written reports or publications, only group results will be presented.

What if you stop before your in the study is complete?
You can withdraw from this survey at any time, without penalty.

What if you have questions about this study or your rights as a research participant?
You have the right to ask any questions you may have about this research. If you have questions, complaints or concerns, you should contact principal investigators Eric White at ewhite78@email.unc.edu or faculty advisor Daniel Riffe at driffe@email.unc.edu. All research on human volunteers is reviewed by a committee that works to protect your rights and welfare. If you have questions or concerns about your rights as a research subject, you may contact the Institutional Review Board at 919-966-3133 or by email to IRB_subjects@unc.edu.

Participant’s Agreement:
I have read the information provided above. I have asked all the questions I have at this time. I voluntarily agree to participate in this research study.

Identification Number

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I agree to participate</th>
<th>I do not wish to participate</th>
</tr>
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</table>

64
Thank you for your participation. To begin with, we would like to ask you a few questions about your workday.

1. Are you a journalist for a television or newspaper organization?
   _____ Television  _____ Newspaper

   Respondents who check “television” will be asked to answer questions 4A, 8A, and 24A. Respondents who check “newspaper” will be asked to answer questions 4B, 8B, and 24B.

2A. How many newscasts do you report for in a typical workday?
   _____ 1 newscast
   _____ 2 newscasts
   _____ 3 newscasts
   _____ 4 newscasts
   _____ 5 or more newscasts

2B. During an average workday how many stories do you write for your newspaper’s print edition?
   _____ 1 story
   _____ 2 stories
   _____ 3 stories
   _____ 4 stories
   _____ 5 or more stories
3. During the past 5 workdays, how many times have you been able to take a break that lasted at least 30 minutes?
   ____ 1 break
   ____ 2 breaks
   ____ 3 breaks
   ____ 4 breaks
   ____ 5 breaks

Thinking about your own newsroom, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

4. Newsroom resources have been shrinking over the past few years.

   Strongly Agree
   1

   Agree
   2

   Neither agree nor disagree
   3

   Disagree
   4

   Strongly Disagree
   5

5. The quality of journalism has been decreasing steadily over the past few years.

   Strongly Agree
   1

   Agree
   2

   Neither agree nor disagree
   3

   Disagree
   4

   Strongly Disagree
   5

6A. My manager expects me to write stories for the station’s website.

   Strongly Agree
   1

   Agree
   2

   Neither agree nor disagree
   3

   Disagree
   4

   Strongly Disagree
   5

6B. My manager expects me to write stories for the newspaper’s website.

   Strongly Agree
   1

   Agree
   2

   Neither agree nor disagree
   3

   Disagree
   4

   Strongly Disagree
   5

7. My manager expects me to post news stories on Facebook and/or Twitter.

   Strongly Agree
   1

   Agree
   2

   Neither agree nor disagree
   3

   Disagree
   4

   Strongly Disagree
   5
The use of social media in the newsroom has received much attention. The following questions will help us understand social media use in your organization.

8. Do you use Facebook and/or Twitter to report news stories?
   ____ Yes
   ____ No

For Question 8: Respondents that check “yes” will be asked to answer questions 15 – 32. Respondents that check “no” will skip questions 15 – 32 and will be asked to answer open-ended 34.

9. Has your organization instituted social media (Facebook and/or Twitter) guidelines?
   ____ Yes
   ____ No

10. Did you begin using Facebook and/or Twitter as a reporting tool before your organization instituted social media guidelines?
   ____ Yes
   ____ No
   ____ Neither the organization nor I use social media.

Thinking about your familiarity with social media, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

11. Using Facebook and Twitter is easy.

   | Strongly Agree | Agree | Neither agree nor disagree | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
   | 1              | 2     | 3                         | 4        | 5                  |

12. Using Facebook and/or Twitter can improve the quality of news reporting.

   | Strongly Agree | Agree | Neither agree nor disagree | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
   | 1              | 2     | 3                         | 4        | 5                  |
13. My competitors use Facebook and/or Twitter to report the news.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
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14. I would recommend fellow journalists use Facebook and/or Twitter as a reporting tool.

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<thead>
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<th>Strongly Agree</th>
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(For those that answered “yes” on Question 8) Earlier you indicated that you use Facebook and/or Twitter to report news stories. Now we would like to find out exactly how you use Facebook and/or Twitter on the job. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

15. I use Facebook and/or Twitter to find out what’s happening in my news market.

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<th>Strongly Agree</th>
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16. I use Facebook and/or Twitter to generate story ideas.

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<th>Strongly Agree</th>
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17. I use information from Facebook and/or Twitter to pitch stories to my news managers.

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<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
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<th>Disagree</th>
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18. I use Facebook and/or Twitter to promote my news stories.

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<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
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<th>Disagree</th>
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19. I use Facebook and/or Twitter to communicate with the news audience.

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<th>Strongly Agree</th>
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20. I use Facebook and/or Twitter to find people to interview for my story.

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<th>Strongly Agree</th>
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21. I use Facebook and/or Twitter to give the audience a glimpse behind the scenes.

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<th>Strongly Agree</th>
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<th>Disagree</th>
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22. I use Facebook and/or Twitter to share my opinion about news stories.

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<th>Strongly Agree</th>
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<th>Disagree</th>
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23A. I use Facebook and Twitter to share information that is not included in my broadcast story.

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<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
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23B. I use Facebook and Twitter to share information that is not included in my newspaper story.

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<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
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24. I use Facebook and/or Twitter because it helps me break stories **BEFORE** the competition.

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<th>Strongly Agree</th>
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<th>Disagree</th>
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25. I use Facebook and/or Twitter to report breaking news.

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<th>Strongly Agree</th>
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<th>Disagree</th>
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26. I use Facebook and/or Twitter to report news about state and/or local government.

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<th>Strongly Agree</th>
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27. I use Facebook and/or Twitter to report news about local schools and education.

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<th>Strongly Agree</th>
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28. I use Facebook and/or Twitter to report news about the local economy.

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<th>Strongly Agree</th>
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29. I use Facebook and/or Twitter to report news about local crime.

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<th>Strongly Agree</th>
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<th>Disagree</th>
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(This is the transition for “social media” users) You’re almost finished. Your answers to the final set of questions are vital to helping us better understand the way you use Facebook and Twitter on the job.

30. Describe in detail which social media platform (Facebook or Twitter) you prefer to use for news reporting purposes and why that is.

31. Describe in detail what – if any – guidelines you are expected to follow when reporting news via Facebook and/or Twitter.

32. Do you believe social media is a more useful reporting tool in the field OR in the newsroom? Describe why you feel this way.
(This is the transition for non-social media users. They will see this after they complete Question 14.) You’re almost finished. Your answers to the final set of questions are vital toward helping us understand your workday.

33. (For respondents that do not use social media) In Question 8 you indicated that you do not use social media to report news stories. Would you please describe in detail why this is?

The following information will only be used for statistical purposes and will not be identifiable to you.

34. Please tell us what is your age in years?

   _____ Years

35. How many years have you worked in the news business?

   _____ Years

36. If you would you like a copy of this study after its completion please enter your email below and click submit?

   ______________ Email

Your completed questionnaire has been received. Thank you so much for your time and help! You can send questions about this research study to Eric White at ewhite78@email.unc.edu or Dr. Dan Riffe at driffe@emailunc.edu.
Appendix B

News Manager Survey

Survey Introduction:

_An effort to understand new media in the newsroom and its affect on news reporting._

Hello,

The Internet and “social media” have changed the way people receive news. As a result, many news organizations have altered they way they gather and report the news. But to this point industry leaders are not sure if this new reporting strategy has paid off.

Your participation in this short survey is vital to understanding social media use in newsrooms and will help identify areas that need improvement. This questionnaire should take you no more than 13 minutes to complete. Your responses will be absolutely confidential.

Thank you in advance for your help. If you have any questions feel free to contact Eric White, the study’s principal investigator, at ewhite78@email.unc.edu or his faculty advisor, Dr. Daniel Riffe at driffe@email.unc.edu. Before you begin please take a moment and read the following instructions.
Consent Form: Please indicate whether you agree to participate below.

IRB Study #: ??-????
Title of Study: New Media in the Newsroom: A Survey of TV and Newspaper Journalists on the Role of Social Media Reporting
Investigators: Eric White (ewhite78@email.unc.edu); Daniel Riffe, Ph.D. (driffe@email.unc.edu)
UNC-Chapel Hill Department: School of Journalism and Mass Communication

What is the purpose of this study?
The purpose of the proposed study is to describe the role of the local news organization that new media have become a common component in television and newspaper newsrooms. You are being asked to participate in this study because you have been identified as someone who works as a manager in a local television or newspaper newsroom.

How will your privacy be protected?
Your name will not appear with any of the survey data. If you choose to receive a summary of the results, we will collect your email address, but this information will be kept separate from research data and will be destroyed after we send the results. The data will be accessible only to the principal investigators. In any presentations, written reports or publications, only group results will be presented.

What if you stop before your in the study is complete?
You can withdraw from this survey at any time, without penalty.

What if you have questions about this study or your rights as a research participant?
You have the right to ask any questions you may have about this research. If you have questions, complaints or concerns, you should contact principal investigators Eric White at ewhite78@email.unc.edu or faculty advisor Daniel Riffe at driffe@email.unc.edu. All research on human volunteers is reviewed by a committee that works to protect your rights and welfare. If you have questions or concerns about your rights as a research subject, you may contact the Institutional Review Board at 919-966-3133 or by email to IRB_subjects@unc.edu.

Participant’s Agreement:
I have read the information provided above. I have asked all the questions I have at this time. I voluntarily agree to participate in this research study.

Identification Number

I agree to participate  
I do not wish to participate
Thank you for your participation. To begin with, we would like to ask you a few questions about your organization.

1. Are you a news manager working for a television station or newspaper?

   ____ Television  ____ Newspaper

   **Respondents who check “television” will be asked to answer questions 2A and 23A. Respondents who check “newspaper” will be asked to answer questions 2B and 23B 8B.**

2A. Thinking about a general assignment reporter’s average workday, how many newscasts would he or she typically report for?

   ____ 1 newscast
   ____ 2 newscasts
   ____ 3 newscasts
   ____ 4 newscasts
   ____ 5 or more newscasts

2B. Thinking about a general assignment reporter’s average workday, how many stories would he or she typically write for the newspaper’s print edition?

   ____ 1 story
   ____ 2 stories
   ____ 3 stories
   ____ 4 stories
   ____ 5 or more stories
3. During an average 5-day workweek, how many breaks lasting at least 30 minutes do reporters typically take?

____ 1 break
____ 2 breaks
____ 3 breaks
____ 4 breaks
____ 5 breaks
____ Reporters do take a break

Thinking about your own newsroom, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

4. Newsroom resources have been shrinking over the past few years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
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5. The quality of journalism has been decreasing steadily over the past few years.

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6. Reporters in our newsroom are expected to write stories for the station’s website.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
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<th>Disagree</th>
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7. Reporters in our newsroom are expected to post news stories on Facebook and/or Twitter.

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The use of social media in the newsroom has received much attention. The following questions will help us understand social media use in your organization.

8. Do the majority of your general assignment reporters use Facebook and/or Twitter to report news stories?

____ Yes
____ No

9. Has your organization instituted social media (Facebook and/or Twitter) guidelines?

____ Yes
____ No

10. Did your organization institute social media (Facebook and/or Twitter) guidelines before reporters began using them?

____ Yes
____ No

____ Neither the organization nor the reporters use social media. (Respondents that check this response will be complete Questions 11-14. They will then be routed to Question 31.)

Thinking about your familiarity with social media, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

11. Using Facebook and Twitter is easy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
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12. Using Facebook and/or Twitter can improve the quality of news reporting.

<table>
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13. My competitors use Facebook and/or Twitter to report the news.

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</tbody>
</table>

14. I would recommend fellow journalists use Facebook and/or Twitter as a reporting tool.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Now we would like to ask you about specific ways Facebook and/or Twitter have been used as a reporting tool. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

15. Reporters in my organization use Facebook and/or Twitter to find out what’s happening in the news market.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

16. Reporters in my organization use Facebook and/or Twitter to generate story ideas.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17. Reporters in my organization use information gathered from Facebook and/or Twitter to pitch stories ideas.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

18. Reporters in my organization use Facebook and/or Twitter to promote news stories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
19. Reporters in my organization use Facebook and/or Twitter to communicate with the news audience.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20. Reporters in my organization use Facebook and/or Twitter to find people to interview for their news stories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

21. Reporters in my organization use Facebook and/or Twitter to give the audience a glimpse behind the scenes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

22. Reporters in my organization use Facebook and/or Twitter to share their opinions about news stories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

23A. Reporters in my organization use Facebook and Twitter to share information that is not included in their broadcast stories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

23B. Reporters in my organization use Facebook and Twitter to share information that is not included in their newspaper stories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
24. Reporters in my organization use Facebook and/or Twitter because it helps them break stories **BEFORE** the competition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

25. Reporters in my organization use Facebook and/or Twitter to report breaking news.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

26. Reporters in my organization use Facebook and/or Twitter to report news about state and/or local government.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

27. Reporters in my organization use Facebook and/or Twitter to report news about local schools and education.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

28. Reporters in my organization use Facebook and/or Twitter to report news about the local economy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

29. Reporters in my organization use Facebook and/or Twitter to report news about local crime.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
You're almost finished. Your answers to the final set of questions are vital to helping us better understand the way you use Facebook and Twitter on the job.

30. Describe in detail which social media platform (Facebook or Twitter) you feel is best suited for news reporting purposes and why that is.

31. Describe in detail what – if any – guidelines you are expected to follow when reporting news via Facebook and/or Twitter.

32. Do you believe social media is a more useful reporting tool in the field OR in the newsroom? Describe why you feel this way.

33. (For respondents that do not use social media, as indicated in Question 10) Earlier you indicated that your organization does not use social media to report news stories. Would you please describe in detail why this is?

The following information will only be used for statistical purposes and will not be identifiable to you.

32. Please tell us what is your age in years?
   _____ Years

33. How many years have you worked in the news business?
   _____ Years

36. If you would you like a copy of this study after its completion please enter your email below and click submit?
   ___________ Email

Your completed questionnaire has been received. Thank you so much for your time and help! You can send questions about this research study to Eric White at ewhite78@email.unc.edu or Dr. Dan Riffe at driffe@emailunc.edu.
Table 1

*Descriptives of Reporters’ Locations and Media*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Market</th>
<th>Media</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TV Respondents</td>
<td>Print Respondents</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charlotte, NC</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raleigh – Durham, NC</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greensboro – High Point – Winston-Salem, NC</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilmington, NC</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asheville – Greenville – Spartanburg</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Columbia, SC</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charleston, SC</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myrtle Beach, SC</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Underline denotes state capital.
Table 2

*Descriptive of Reporters’ Organizations Locations and Media*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Market</th>
<th>Media</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TV Stations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charlotte, NC</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raleigh – Durham, NC</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greensboro – High Point – Winston-Salem, NC</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilmington, NC</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asheville – Greenville – Spartanburg</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Columbia, SC</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charleston, SC</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myrtle Beach, SC</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Underline denotes state capital.
### Table 3

**Descriptives of Manager-Respondents’ Locations and Organizations Represented**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Market</th>
<th>Manager Responses</th>
<th>Organizations Represented</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Charlotte, NC</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raleigh – Durham, NC</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greensboro – High Point – Winston-Salem, NC</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilmington, NC</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asheville – Greenville – Spartanburg</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Columbia, SC</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charleston, SC</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myrtle Beach, SC</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall</strong></td>
<td><strong>32</strong></td>
<td><strong>23</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Underline denotes state capital.
Table 4

*Manager Respondents’ Job Titles.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Manager Title (TV or Print)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>News Director (TV)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant News Director (TV)</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive Producer (TV)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Editor (Print)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City Editor (Print)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Editor, nights (Print)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Night News Editor (Print)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community News Editor (Print)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing Editor For Online (Print)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Projects Editor (Print)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5

Social Media Use Mean-Agreement Scores for Reporter Sample.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Media Use</th>
<th>Media</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TV $n = 60$</td>
<td>Print $n = 64$</td>
<td>Total Reporter Sample $n = 124$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Story Promotion</td>
<td>4.30 (.87)</td>
<td>4.19 (.86)</td>
<td>4.24 (.86)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicate with Audience</td>
<td>4.18 (.87)</td>
<td>3.92 (1.00)</td>
<td>4.05 (.95)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surveillance</td>
<td>4.03 (1.04)</td>
<td>4.03 (.97)</td>
<td>4.03 (1.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Find Interviews</td>
<td>3.93 (.76)</td>
<td>3.95 (.97)</td>
<td>3.94 (.87)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Story Generation</td>
<td>3.95a (.96)</td>
<td>3.38b (1.24)</td>
<td>3.66 (1.14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scoop Competition</td>
<td>3.58 (1.09)</td>
<td>3.66 (1.12)</td>
<td>3.62 (1.10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pitch Stories to Managers</td>
<td>3.82a (1.02)</td>
<td>2.98b (1.18)</td>
<td>3.39 (1.18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information Not in Print/Broadcast Stories</td>
<td>3.03 (1.13)</td>
<td>3.02 (1.21)</td>
<td>3.02 (1.17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share Opinions</td>
<td>2.30a (1.14)</td>
<td>1.84b (.91)</td>
<td>2.06 (1.05)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Standard deviations appear in parentheses below means. The mean score reflects the level of agreement, which ranges from 5 = Strongly Agree, 3 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree, and 1 = Strongly Disagree. Means with differing subscripts within rows are significantly different at $p < .05$. 
### Table 6

*Social Media Use Mean-Agreement Scores for Capital and Non-Capital Reporter Groups.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Media Use</th>
<th>Capital Status</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Capital</td>
<td>Non-Capitals</td>
<td>Total Reporter Sample</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$n = 32$</td>
<td>$n = 92$</td>
<td>$n = 124$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Story Promotion</td>
<td>4.19 (.93)</td>
<td>4.26 (.84)</td>
<td>4.24 (.86)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicate with Audience</td>
<td>4.16 (.92)</td>
<td>4.01 (.96)</td>
<td>4.05 (.95)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surveillance</td>
<td>3.91 (1.17)</td>
<td>4.08 (.93)</td>
<td>4.03 (1.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Find Interviews</td>
<td>4.06 (.98)</td>
<td>3.90 (.83)</td>
<td>3.94 (.87)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Story Generation</td>
<td>3.81 (1.20)</td>
<td>3.60 (1.12)</td>
<td>3.66 (1.14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scoop Competition</td>
<td>3.59 (1.21)</td>
<td>3.63 (1.07)</td>
<td>3.62 (1.10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pitch Stories to Managers</td>
<td>3.50 (1.27)</td>
<td>3.35 (1.15)</td>
<td>3.39 (1.18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information Not in Print/Broadcast Stories</td>
<td>2.97 (1.26)</td>
<td>3.04 (1.15)</td>
<td>3.02 (1.17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share Opinions</td>
<td>2.03 (1.28)</td>
<td>2.08 (.96)</td>
<td>2.06 (1.05)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Standard deviations appear in parentheses below means. The mean score reflects the level of agreement, which ranges from 5 = Strongly Agree, 3 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree, and 1 = Strongly Disagree.
Table 7

Manager Perceptions of Reporters’ Uses of Social Media.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Media Use</th>
<th>Manager Sample (n = 32)</th>
<th>Total Reporter Sample (n = 124)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Story Promotion</td>
<td>4.28 (.77)</td>
<td>4.24 (.86)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicate with Audience</td>
<td>4.31 (.82)</td>
<td>4.05 (.95)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surveillance</td>
<td>4.31 (.64)</td>
<td>4.03 (1.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Find Interviews</td>
<td>3.81 (.90)</td>
<td>3.94 (.87)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Story Generation</td>
<td>4.06 (.67)</td>
<td>3.66 (1.14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scoop Competition</td>
<td>4.03 (.97)</td>
<td>3.62 (1.10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pitch Stories to Managers</td>
<td>3.66 (1.15)</td>
<td>3.39 (1.18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information Not in Print/Broadcast Stories</td>
<td>3.16 (1.11)</td>
<td>3.02 (1.17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share Opinions</td>
<td>2.56a (.29)</td>
<td>2.06b (1.05)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Standard deviations appear in parentheses below means. The mean score reflects the level of agreement, which ranges from 5 = Strongly Agree, 3 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree, and 1 = Strongly Disagree. Means with differing subscripts within rows are significantly different at \(p < .05\).
Table 8

*Story Type Mean-Agreement Scores for Reporter Sample.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Media Story Type</th>
<th>Media</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TV</td>
<td>Print</td>
<td>Total Reporter Sample</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n = 60</td>
<td>n = 64</td>
<td>n = 124</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breaking News</td>
<td>4.30 (.87)</td>
<td>3.95 (1.25)</td>
<td>4.12 (1.09)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government News</td>
<td>3.90 (.94)</td>
<td>3.61 (1.20)</td>
<td>3.75 (1.09)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime News</td>
<td>4.02&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt; (.87)</td>
<td>3.48&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt; (1.17)</td>
<td>3.74 (1.07)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic News</td>
<td>3.87&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt; (.87)</td>
<td>3.13&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt; (1.16)</td>
<td>3.49 (1.09)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glimpse Behind the Scenes</td>
<td>3.65 (.99)</td>
<td>3.31 (1.14)</td>
<td>3.48 (1.08)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education News</td>
<td>3.82&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt; (.91)</td>
<td>2.95&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt; (1.22)</td>
<td>3.37 (1.16)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Standard deviations appear in parentheses below means. The mean score reflects the level of agreement, which ranges from 5 = Strongly Agree, 3 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree, and 1 = Strongly Disagree. Means with differing subscripts within rows are significantly different at p < .05.
Table 9

*Story Type Mean-Agreement Scores for Capital and Non-Capital Reporter Groups.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Media Story Type</th>
<th>Capitals $n = 32$</th>
<th>Non Capital $n = 92$</th>
<th>Total Reporter Sample $n = 124$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Breaking News</td>
<td>4.13 (1.26)</td>
<td>4.12 (1.04)</td>
<td>4.12 (1.09)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government News</td>
<td>3.77 (1.09)</td>
<td>3.74 (1.10)</td>
<td>3.75 (1.09)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime News</td>
<td>3.75 (1.02)</td>
<td>3.74 (1.09)</td>
<td>3.74 (1.07)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic News</td>
<td>3.56 (1.13)</td>
<td>3.46 (1.08)</td>
<td>3.49 (1.09)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glimpse Behind the Scenes</td>
<td>3.53 (1.16)</td>
<td>3.46 (1.05)</td>
<td>3.48 (1.08)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education News</td>
<td>3.63 (1.13)</td>
<td>3.29 (1.17)</td>
<td>3.37 (1.16)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Standard deviations appear in parentheses below means. The mean score reflects the level of agreement, which ranges from 5 = Strongly Agree, 3 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree, and 1 = Strongly Disagree.
Table 10

*Story Type Mean-Agreement Scores for Manager and Reporter Samples.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Media Story Type</th>
<th>Manager Sample</th>
<th>Total Reporter Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$n = 32$</td>
<td>$n = 124$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breaking News</td>
<td>4.59&lt;sub&gt;a&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>4.12&lt;sub&gt;b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.12)</td>
<td>(1.09)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government News</td>
<td>4.28&lt;sub&gt;a&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>3.75&lt;sub&gt;b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.81)</td>
<td>(1.09)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime News</td>
<td>4.22&lt;sub&gt;a&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>3.74&lt;sub&gt;b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.79)</td>
<td>(1.07)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic News</td>
<td>3.94&lt;sub&gt;a&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>3.49&lt;sub&gt;b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.84)</td>
<td>(1.09)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glimpse Behind the Scenes</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>3.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.10)</td>
<td>(1.08)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education News</td>
<td>4.06&lt;sub&gt;a&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>3.37&lt;sub&gt;b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.62)</td>
<td>(1.16)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Standard deviations appear in parentheses below means. The mean score reflects the level of agreement, which ranges from 5 = Strongly Agree, 3 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree, and 1 = Strongly Disagree. Means with differing subscripts within rows are significantly different at $p < .05$. 

Table 11

*Summary Statistics, Correlations and Results From Regression Analysis of Reporters’ Overall Social Media Uses.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Correlation with Overall Social Media Use</th>
<th>Multiple Regression Weights</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Social Media Use</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>36.03</td>
<td>11.89</td>
<td>-.31**</td>
<td>-.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capital or Non-Capital</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium (TV/Print)</td>
<td>.27**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social-Media Expectancy</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>.27**</td>
<td>.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition’s Social Media Use</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.43**</td>
<td>.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekly Breaks</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>-.22*</td>
<td>-.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ R^2 \]

\[ F \text{ for Change in } R^2 \]

6.57**

*Note.* *p < .05, **p < .01*
References


98


Wardle, C., & Williams, A. (2010). Beyond user-generated content: A production study examining the ways in which UGC is used at the BBC. Media, Culture & Society, 32(5), 781-799. doi:10.1177/0163443710373953


