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BREAKING TELEVISION NEWS: IS SOCIAL MEDIA
COVERAGE YOU CAN COUNT ON?

by

EILEEN C. TEVES

A DISSERTATION

Presented to the Faculty of the University of the Incarnate Word
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

UNIVERSITY OF THE INCARNATE WORD

May 2016

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BREAKING TELEVISION NEWS: IS SOCIAL MEDIA COVERAGE YOU CAN COUNT ON?

Eileen C. Teves, DBA

University of the Incarnate Word, 2016

This mixed methods study explored how 10 television journalists and photojournalists handled social media's integration and its impact on television news. A quantitative survey modeled after Moore and Benbasat's (1991) instrument using the Diffusion of Innovations theory as a foundation measured how participants adopted social media in newsgathering and dissemination.

Through qualitative one-on-one interviews, data revealed that participants believed social media was advantageous in collecting and reporting television news. Television journalists were able to locate sources, experts, and visual images. Social media allowed participants to report live from the scene and deliver news quickly. The innovation enabled participants to connect and interact with viewers and promote their personal and professional brands. The use of social media has encouraged station managers to be first with information, albeit adding concerns of releasing false or incorrect information. Both television journalists and photojournalists realized that social media forced them to become more creative storytellers.

This study uncovered how social media transformed television news, its impact on the workload of television journalists, and if the use of social media triggered concerns for the quality and accuracy of content. Results from this study explained the need to understand a changing business model, the potential for news to go wrong, and the rise of multimedia journalism.

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Chapter One—Overview

Context of the Study

Technology continues to drive how journalists gather and deliver news. Since the 1970s and 1980s, news station managers have been encouraging television journalists and photojournalists to go live from the scene even if it means going “live for the sake of live” (Tuggle & Huffman, 1999, p. 492) because of the available technology. Microwave vans and satellite trucks allowed journalists to broadcast live from any location (Tuggle & Huffman, 1999). By 2010, companies like LiveU (www.liveU.tv) and Dejero (www.dejero.com) were marketing cellular-based video transmission, allowing a photojournalist or solo television journalist to perform a live report from any location but with more ease. Instead of using vans and trucks equipped with video uplink technology, news crews could travel with fewer people and less gear by wearing a backpack with a box operating as a cell phone. The backpack cell phone could transmit video signals, and news crews could broadcast live as news happened.

For viewers, the use of smartphones, tablets, and desktops is part of the news watching experience (Cameron & Geidner, 2014). Viewers can watch the news while commenting, sharing, and posting on social networking sites, or looking up information about a particular subject seen or heard on television. Cameron and Geidner (2014) call this phenomenon “dual-viewing activity” (p. 402). While watching television, users react to news coverage or interact with broadcast journalists through social media with digital devices on hand. Popular social networking sites such as Facebook and Twitter provide the channels for social media by giving users a platform to share their thoughts and opinions online. Television producers embrace this trend because it maintains viewer engagement (Cameron & Geidner, 2014). As a result, social media give viewers “an opportunity to publicly share and interact with others in real-time” (p. 414).

Television journalists see social media as vital to disseminating breaking news, calling it “a productive tool” (Lysak, Cremadas, & Wolf, 2012, p. 188). Engagement with followers on Facebook and Twitter enhances a broadcaster’s identity as a television personality (Lysak et al., 2012). Reporters and anchors connect with fans by posting videos and stories on social media pages. Managers embrace the interaction and see this as a boost to the newsroom image and station brand. Research indicates journalists value the power of social media, especially during breaking news. Twitter gives journalists the opportunity to be first with information (Lysak et al., 2012). A micro-blogging site, Twitter caters to journalists who favor its efficiency and quickness. The site’s 140-character limitation forces journalists to send concise and clear information.

A television journalist’s typical day begins with a story idea assignment given by an assignment desk manager, gathering press releases, story follow-ups, and breaking news before the morning meeting (Verweij, 2009). The news director approves these stories or suggests other ideas, and then the producer decides which stories line up the newscast. Once the news director, producer, and assignment editor approve the journalist’s story, research begins by gathering the facts, looking for similar angles, and calling sources who can contribute with a comment, opinion, or knowledge on the topic. When a source agrees to an interview, the journalist and photojournalist meet with the interviewee at a designated area and conduct the interview.

After a few hours of gathering information, the television journalist and photojournalist return to the station. The television journalist writes the story, and the photojournalist edits it into a *package*, which in the industry, is a pre-taped news report. The photojournalist uploads the package to the station’s video system, and it airs in its assigned newscast. Generally, the journalist introduces the package from a live location and presents it to the station’s viewers. The

story airs on television and online. Digital producers post the story on the station's social networking sites, and the television journalist does the same for his or her Facebook and Twitter page.

Author Ken Doctor (2010) writes *Newsonomics: Twelve New Trends That Will Shape the News You Get* and addresses how companies like Yahoo, Facebook, YouTube, and Google exceed the news industry (p. 107) in terms of newsgathering. Since their emergence, these companies provide an additional source of information and in some cases act as a primary news source. Doctor (2010) stresses accessibility of social networking sites to create convenience, subsequently turning users into “a nation of news multitaskers, taking in radio or Internet audio while taking care of the kids or working” (p. 15).

Peter Verweij (2009) calls this new age of journalism a digital revolution and notes that it is “the source of profound change for journalism and media” (p. 75). That change is not just in television, but also seen in print. Newspaper companies are making the shift to develop more web-based content to drive readers to both the paper and website. For television journalists, the daily operation of newsgathering, producing a story for the newscast, then for the station website, and engaging with followers on social media has confirmed that “their workload was increasing because of multimedia activities” (Adornato, 2014, p. 7).

In Mark Bauerlein's (2011) book, *The Digital Divide: Arguments for and Against Facebook, Google, Texting, and the Age of Social Networking*, contributing author Clay Shirky writes that social media gives users a platform to voice their opinions on political and environmental concerns. Shirky adds that social media give citizens a chance to change the public discourse, creating more opportunities to do so (Bauerlein, 2011, p. 327). Driven by the Internet and digital technology, social media networking sites like Facebook and Twitter launched into popularity by the mid-

2000s, displaying daily content for news consumers and journalists who rely on these sites as news sources.

Statement of the Problem

Technological advancements are changing the way television journalists research, gather, and report the news. News managers react to these changes by giving consumers what they want—providing content and the ability to become a part of the news process. Research shows that news consumers want to participate in the conversation, especially with news organizations they trust. With the success and popularity of Facebook and Twitter, news consumers are relying on these sites for news content.

Historically, the journalist and photojournalist work and travel together as a team to report on the news, but their roles have changed as technology has changed. A new business model, the *multimedia journalist* (or MMJ), has broken up the television journalist and photojournalist team (Perez & Cremadas, 2014). MMJs are trained to shoot, edit and report news stories, plus use social media to inform their audience. When news happens, and a photojournalist is not available to work with a journalist, then that journalist becomes an MMJ, or a News Director will hire an MMJ to work solo. Some MMJs have been known to report live from the scene with a smartphone while the news happens. Despite the grainy, distorted-looking video, these low-quality stories are still allowed to air.

Individuals who use the Internet as an outlet to publish their work are citizen journalists (Meadows, 2013). A citizen journalist participates in the news experience generally by publishing blogs or submitting their work through social media sites such as Facebook and Twitter (Meadows, 2013). Often the citizen journalist contributes video, photos, or information of news happening where journalists cannot be present. This type of journalism has increased

over the years, especially in war-torn countries or hard-to-reach areas destroyed by natural disasters (Barnes, 2012; Meadows, 2013; Sienkiewicz, 2014).

In a world of MMJs, citizen journalists, and the use of social media, television journalists are having to transition into accepting all three. As technology improves, digital devices will make it easier for MMJs to break up the traditional teamwork of television journalists and photojournalists and become a mainstay for television stations. Citizen journalists will add another element of newsgathering, allowing news organizations to rely on content provided by untrained journalists. In addition, social media will allow users to rely on news feeds from Facebook and Twitter because of accessible and available information. These changes leave the television journalist wondering what the future holds for this position.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore (a) the extent to which television journalists and photojournalists have adopted the innovation of social media into their activities collecting and reporting television news, and (b) how television journalists and photojournalists feel about the use of social media in collecting and reporting television news. From the perspective of the interviewees, this study revealed the extent to which social media has been adopted and how, from the perspective of television journalists and photojournalists, social media has transformed television news, its impact on the workload of television journalists, and if the use of social media triggers concerns for the quality and accuracy of content.

Research Questions

According to Ritter (2015), the use of social media by television journalists and photojournalists is a sign of its quick integration into the newsroom. Television journalists are likely to use it as a tool to research daily headlines, gather news updates, and connect with

followers. Because technology enables news consumers to use the convenience of social media, news managers may convince their staff to produce more quantity than quality of content (Huang & Heider, 2007).

In order to find out how television journalists and photojournalists are handling social media's integration and its impact in television news, the guiding research questions were as follows:

Quantitative Research Question

- To what extent have television journalists and photojournalists adopted social media into their work practices?

Ancillary quantitative research questions:

- What are the demographic characteristics of the study participants (age, gender, ethnicity, level of education, income range, employment status, employment role, years in the industry, and network affiliation)?
- To what extent do participants agree their use of social media is voluntary?
- To what extent do participants agree social media creates a relative advantage?
- To what extent do participants agree social media is compatible with their work?
- To what extent do participants agree social media improves their image?
- To what extent do participants agree social media is easy to use?
- To what extent do participants agree they can demonstrate results using social media?
- To what extent do participants agree social media is visible in their industry?
- To what extent do participants agree they have opportunities to try various forms of social media in their work?

Qualitative Research Question

- How do television journalists and photojournalists feel about the use of social media in collecting and reporting television news?

Ancillary qualitative research questions:

- How do television journalists and photojournalists perceive social media has transformed television news?
- How has the use of social media affected television journalists and photojournalists' workload?
- What are television journalists and photojournalists' concerns about the content, quality, and accuracy of television news when social media is the source of said news?

Definition of Terms

Apps: Also known as applications; specialized downloaded software used in smartphones or mobile devices (Khaddage & Lattemann, 2013; Sargent, 2015).

Breaking Television News: An unexpected event, it is news happening or developing at that particular moment ([http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/breaking news](http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/breaking%20news); Rogers, n.d.).

Citizen Journalist: An amateur or untrained individual playing an active role in the news process of collecting, reporting, and disseminating information (Meadows, 2013; Culbertson, 2012).

Multimedia Journalist (MMJ): A person who gathers information, writes stories, broadcasts them through television, uses social media to inform the public of current events locally and around the world (Perez & Cremedas, 2014).

New Media: Content that is available on-demand through the Internet and accessible on any digital device, including interactive user feedback and participation. Websites, such as online newspapers, blogs, and social media are considered new media (Adornato, 2014).

News Package: A self-contained, pre-taped news report incorporating interviews, natural sound, visual images, and reporter audio (Halbrooks, n.d.; Thorpe, 2004).

Photojournalist: Also known as a photographer, a person who is a visual storyteller, capturing still photos for newspapers and magazines, or video for television (Bock, 2011).

Social Media: A form of electronic communication that consists of web sites for social networking and microblogging in which users create online communities where they can share information, ideas, personal content, and other content (such as videos or photos) (Mussell, 2012).

Social networking sites: Websites and applications, such as Facebook and Twitter, used to interact with other users or to find people with similar interests (Lysak, Cremedas, & Wolf, 2012).

Television Journalist: Also known as a reporter, a person who writes and prepares news for a television news station (Weiss, 2015).

Summary of Appropriate Methodology

Answering the research questions in this study involved assessing a level of adoption of social media and understanding the perceptions and experiences of television journalists and photojournalists. A mixed methodology research design was appropriate for this study.

According to Creswell (2012), combining quantitative and qualitative research methods helps the researcher understand the problem and question when one method is not enough. Some of the ways a researcher knows when it is best to use a mixed methods study are when quantitative and qualitative data must be collected when an in-depth understanding is needed to address the

research problem and answer the research question and when the researcher wants another perspective of the study (p. 535).

Ten television journalists and photojournalists from a television market in the southwestern United States participated in this study. Each participant completed a survey modeled after an instrument developed by Drs. Gary C. Moore and Izak Benbasat (1991). Attached, as Appendix A, is a copy of permission to use the instrument granted by the primary author, Dr. Izak Benbasat.

By using the Diffusion of Innovations theory as the foundation of this study and the instrument developed by Moore and Benbasat (1991), the researcher was able to measure the extent to which participants have adopted social media in newsgathering and disseminating. The instrument, which Moore and Benbasat (1991) developed to study how an individual first adopts innovation and diffuses the innovation to others, was designed for use “in the context of the adoption of Personal Work Stations (PWS) by individuals” (p. 194). The Moore and Benbasat (1991) Diffusion of Innovations instrument contains five categories of measurement questions broken down into the following areas: relative advantage, compatibility, complexity/simplicity, trialability, and observability. Later, Moore and Benbasat (1991) added voluntariness and results demonstrability to the instrument. To meet the framework of this study, permission was granted to modify the instrument by substituting the term *social media* place of PWS. Data collected from the instrument was statistically analyzed and utilized to demonstrate the extent to which the study participants had adopted social media as an innovation in the collection and reporting of television news. Once the quantitative survey was completed, participants were engaged in the qualitative segment of the data collection, which consisted of semi-structured, face-to-face

interviews. VanMaanen (as cited in Merriam, 2009, p. 13) defines qualitative research methodology as:

...an umbrella term covering an array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not the frequency, of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomena in the social world.

In Merriam's (2009) *Qualitative Research: A Guide to Design and Implementation*, a qualitative researcher is the key instrument, and is interested in learning "how people make sense of their world and the experiences they have in their world" (p. 13). Qualitative research fit this portion of the study because the researcher needed to find how social media has changed television news, the roles of television journalists, and the quality of journalism, from the perspective of the television journalists and photojournalists. Responses to questions offered "an in-depth exploration of a central phenomenon" (Creswell, 2012, p. 206).

Theoretical Framework

This study's theoretical framework focused on the Diffusion of Innovations theory founded by Everett M. Rogers (1995). The theory explains how "new innovations and ideas become diffused and adopted within a wider social network" (Murray, 2009, p. 108). Diffusion of Innovations theory fit appropriately with this study because the theory addresses the adoption of innovative technologies.

Diffusion of Innovations theory is built upon a framework of four main elements related to the communication of ideas over time. Rogers (1995) defined Diffusion of Innovations theory as "the process by which an *innovation* is *communicated* through certain *channels* over *time* among the members of a *social system*" (p.10). Therefore, the four main elements that make up the theory are innovation, communication channels, time, and the social system (p. 10).

The first main element is innovation, which is “an idea, practice, or object that is perceived as new by an individual” (Rogers, 1995, p. 11). An individual, who perceives an idea to be new, then forms a like or dislike towards the new idea and will determine adoption of that innovation. There are five characteristics that fall under innovation explaining the rate of adoption. Rogers (1995) details those characteristics as the following:

- Relative advantage—how an individual perceives an innovation to be better than another idea
- Compatibility—if the innovation is “consistent with the existing values, past experiences, and needs of potential adopters” (p. 15)
- Complexity—how an individual perceives the ease or difficulty of using or understanding the innovation
- Trialability—experimenting with an innovation on a trial basis can speed up the adoption and
- Observability—the more visible the results of an innovation, the more likely individuals will adopt it.

Moore and Benbasat (1991) added image because they believed that individuals perceived certain innovations could elevate their social status and enhance their image (p. 195). Then, voluntariness was added because they understood that when people are given the freedom to choose, they determine the adoption or rejection of an innovation. Finally, the addition of results demonstrability would measure an individual’s influence in discussing the innovation.

Communication channels also play role in how the innovation is diffused (Rogers, 1995). The second main element, a communication channel, is defined as “the means by which messages get from one individual to another” (p. 18). Rogers (1995) says that diffusion is the

communication of new information exchanged between individuals. The information can be passed through mass media (radio, television, or newspaper) or by individuals. The message content about a new idea may result in rejecting or adopting that innovation.

Time shows how quickly or slowly individuals adopt an innovation. This third main element of the Diffusion of Innovations Theory includes five characteristics of adopters (Rogers, 1995). These characteristics are the following (Murray, 2009, p. 114):

- Innovators—individuals who accept technology regardless of the risks
- Early adopters—not official leaders, but are the opinion leaders of an innovation because they usually have “higher levels of innovativeness” and have “higher socioeconomic statuses” (Murray, 2009, p. 112)
- Early majority—individuals likely to adopt new ideas before most of the public
- Late majority—individuals who adopt new ideas because of peer pressure and
- Laggard—individuals generally suspicious of and may be resistant to innovation.

Rogers (1995) names the innovation-decision process as one of the ways an individual decides on a new idea (p. 22). The innovation-decision process begins with the individual gaining knowledge of the innovation, becoming persuaded by it, adopting, and finally putting the innovation into use.

The rate of adoption is another item that falls under the element of time. Rogers (1995) says that the rate of adoption measures the speed of innovation adoption by individuals. It is “measured by the length of time required for a certain percentage of the members of a system to adopt an innovaton” (p. 23). As mentioned earlier, if an individual perceives an innovation to have a greater relative advantage, compatibility, less complexity, more trialability, and observability, then the more likely the innovation will be adopted (p. 23).

Together with the information from Rogers (as cited by Murray, 2009, p. 114) and the five characteristics mentioned earlier, the illustration created as Figure 1 shows the rate at which an idea is adopted. The five types of adopters begin with innovators as the most likely to adopt a new idea, followed by early adopters, early majority, late majority, and finally laggards, the most resistant to innovation.

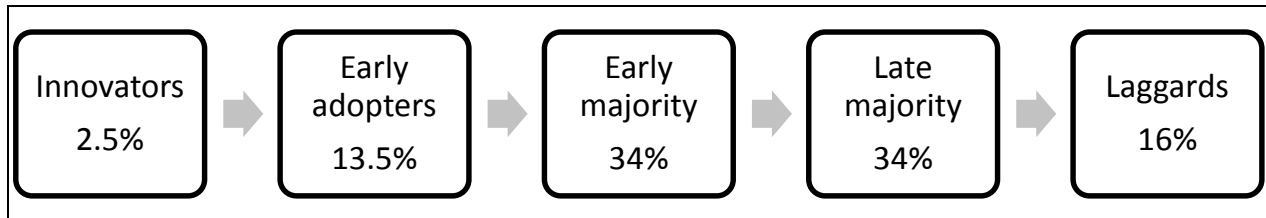


Figure 1. Rate of adoption among the five types of adopters (adapted using information from Murray, 2009)

The social system is the fourth main element (Rogers, 1995). This element determines what influences the diffusion of an innovation. Rogers (1995) defines a social system as “a set of interrelated units that are engaged in joint problem-solving to accomplish a common goal” (p. 23). The social system may consist of a group of individuals, informal groups, or an organization. Members of a social system collaborate in finding solutions, and their collaboration is the glue that keeps them together. In the context of innovation, information shared between individuals in a social system will determine if a member rejects or accepts a new idea (Rogers, 1995).

Diffusion of Innovations theory can uncover the behaviors of television journalists who accept new media in their daily workflow. Weiss (2013) stated that more than half of smartphone owners use their phones for receiving news. Digital devices have become such a big part of the daily lives of smartphone owners, that news organizations have developed news apps for consumers who want news at their fingertips (Weiss, 2013). In reference to the Diffusion of

Innovations theory, Weiss (2013) says, “the smartphone and mobile news applications are defined as the innovations” (p. 437).

Maxwell (2013) explained that applying a theory to a study assists in refining the goals of the researcher. It was appropriate to consider Diffusion of Innovations theory in this study because technology drives how television journalists gather and deliver news. The advancements of digital devices offer news consumers an opportunity to watch news when they want and how they want. Diffusion of Innovations theory presents motivational factors used to explain the attitudes and concerns of television journalists who use digital devices and incorporate the application of social media in their daily newsgathering and delivery.

Contribution to the Field of Business

The study of how television journalists and photojournalists feel about social media’s impact on television news provides useful information for practitioners, policy makers, and future researchers. Television journalists and photojournalists are the practitioners who use social media routinely to post upcoming stories, segments, and breaking news. The study results are important in learning how and why social media can be used efficiently in delivering information. This study offers television journalists and photojournalists’ insight on the need for quality and accuracy when posting developing news stories, and the need for improving social connections with followers and fans.

News managers are the policy makers who have set the ground rules and guidelines for using social media in the newsroom. Managers believe social media not only highlights their television journalists, but also enhances the station’s image. They have embraced how social media provides more exposure for a news station, and that in turn means more branding of a television news product. This study gives managers a better understanding of how and why

viewers respond to a television station's social media posts, especially when stations compete for ratings. The study results contribute to managers understanding that they must provide future journalists the right training and to be mindful of accurate information before they post, tweet, share, or like what is on social media.

Future researchers also benefit, because this study includes literature that is still new to media research. Much of the literature on social media dates back to the early 2000s. Future researchers can extend this study to explore explanations for how social media influences the production and reporting of television news, even if limited to Facebook and Twitter. Because journalism is traveling at a faster pace than before, future researchers can advance the findings of this study to explore why television journalists and photojournalists cannot afford to turn their backs on social media and why managers must understand that the costs of being first on social media may be at the risk of accuracy.

Limitations of the Study

Technology moves at a rapid pace, as does the flow of information. A limitation of this study was the development of new social media applications. Just like technology, social media apps are being created and produced at an incredible pace. Developers are looking for new ways for users to connect. Other limitations included the changing roles and the fact that television journalists and photojournalists may be losing jobs. News organizations cutting costs may make personnel changes by turning more of its television journalists into multimedia journalists.

This study took place in the southwestern section of the United States in a medium-sized television market where the area's largest city has a population of 1,327,407 people and a high concentration of people who identify as Hispanic or Latino (63%) compared to Whites (72%), Blacks (6.9%), and Asian (2.4%) (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016). A total of ten television

journalists and photojournalists were asked to participate in this study. Because of the majority Hispanic population, race and cultural beliefs may have influenced how television journalists and photojournalists have adopted social media in the workplace and how they feel about it affecting their workload.

Chapter Two—Literature Review

Introduction

The available literature spans the years 2000 to 2015 due to limited availability of research on the subject of the use of social media in news reporting prior to the 21st century. The available previous research shows how social media changes the way viewers receive television news, and how reporters gather and disseminate it. Understanding social media's impact on the news industry requires a thorough study of (a) the history of broadcast journalism, (b) the role of television journalists, (c) social media in television news, (d) breaking news, social media and the television journalist, (e) an analysis of supporting theories, and (d) an examination of related research.

The History of Broadcast Journalism

The year 1948 marked the birth of television news (DiConsiglio, 2011), when newscasts were more like bulletins, running for a total time of 10 minutes. Later the newscast changed to a 30-minute format (DiConsiglio, 2011). From 1955 to 1975, nearly every American owned a television (p. 170), with at least one set in each home. That was nearly 42 million households (DiConsiglio, 2011). Only the three major networks—ABC, CBS, and NBC—existed (DiConsiglio, 2011). Each network captured at least a third of the viewing audience, giving viewers few programming choices.

One of the most trusted reporters in the history of television news was the late CBS News Anchor Walter Cronkite (Carlson & Berkowitz, 2011). The legendary anchor was known for his signature signoff, "And that's the way it is" (Alter, 1999, p. 24). Throughout the 1960s and 1970s, Cronkite captured the attention of American viewers who wanted to see the world through his eyes (Carlson & Berkowitz, 2011, p. 414). The anchor's command of the news guided a nation through some of history's biggest events—the Vietnam War, the assassination of President John F. Kennedy, and the landing of the first man on the moon. By Cronkite's

retirement in 1981, there were 50.1 million television viewers (Carlson & Berkowitz, 2011). Those numbers slipped to 22.3 million by the time of Cronkite's death in 2009 (p. 414).

In 1980, a dramatic shift in the way the public watches news changed forever with the introduction of CNN by media mogul Ted Turner (also known as Cable News Network). The cable network giant shook the industry by breaking up the dominance of the three major networks (Seib, 2001, p. 70). CNN's 24-hour news concept captivated audiences by broadcasting the world's biggest stories throughout the day, not just during a 30-minute newscast.

In 1986, CNN carried live coverage of the Space Shuttle Challenge, which killed seven crewmembers on board. Viewers saw wall-to-wall coverage of the rescue of Baby Jessica in 1987. In addition, in 1991, the first images of the Gulf War were broadcast live (Seib, 2001). CNN was first available to less than two million American households during its early years, but grew to 89 million American households and hundreds of millions of homes internationally (www.history.com).

Despite CNN's financial struggles during its first few years of operation, Turner built bureaus around the country and around the world. CNN became the network often beating the competition to breaking news. Its popularity launched the introduction of more cable news stations, turning round-the-clock news coverage into a broadcasting mainstay (Seib, 2001). In his book, *Going Live: Getting the News Right in a Real-Time, Online World*, Seib writes that by 1997 fewer Americans were regularly watching the nightly network news. Viewers were glued to the 24-hour news cycle. Viewership with the three major networks reportedly dropped from 60 percent in 1993 to 41percent in 1997 (Seib, 2001, p. 70).

Cable networks provide more choices, but so does the Internet. In 1995, five million Americans were using the Internet, which later jumped to 50 million users by 1999 (Stempel,

Hargrove, & Bernt, 2000, p. 71). Both television and newspapers experienced a decline in numbers. Newspaper circulation dropped from 58 million to 56 million readers, while Nielsen ratings (the leader in audience measurement) also recorded a drop in viewers for network newscasts (p. 71). The use of online sources surpassed the use of traditional media (Stempel et al., 2000). People who accessed the Internet for news while watching television, listening to the radio, or reading the newspaper were looking for additional information, and going online provided users another valued source (Stempel et al., 2000).

Figure 2 shows the rise in Internet use and the decline in traditional media consumption in the United States from 1995 to 1999.

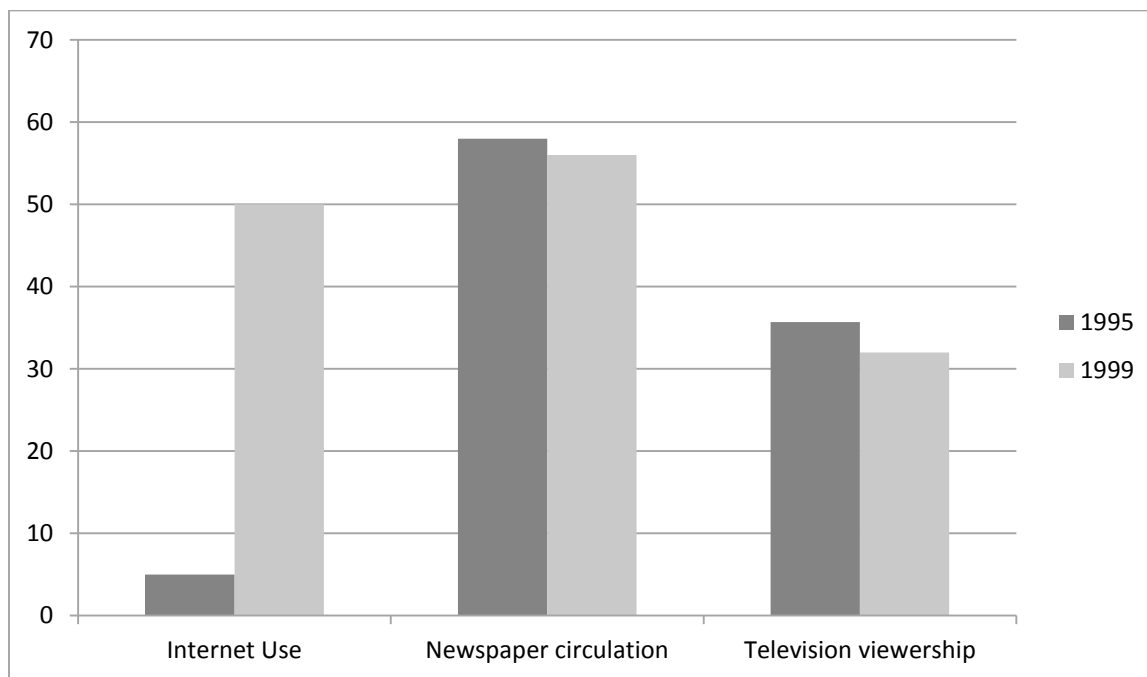


Figure 2. Comparison of internet use and traditional media consumption in the United States. Adapted from information provided by Pew Research Center (n.d.) and Stempel, Hargrove and Bernt (2000).

The beginning of the 21st century saw more shifts in viewership, but this time in a particular audience who grew up during the launch of cable television. This age group became the focus of a Business Insider report. Edwards (2013) reported about a Morgan Stanley study that explained the

sharp decline in television viewership. Edwards (2013) noted that the tech-savvy generation known as Millennials (born between the years 1981 and 1996) were cutting the cord because of high cable bills. This age group was likely dissatisfied by cable and satellite services. Millennials reportedly did not want the service and preferred wireless internet, because the Internet allowed them to watch videos on their digital devices (Edwards, 2013).

Though *Nielsen Media Research* still regards television as a favorite American past time (Luckerson, 2014), many households are letting go of television and opting for online video on their computers. The *Pew Research Center* supports findings from Luckerson (2014) and Edwards (2013). The non-partisan fact tank on social issues, *Pew Research Center* explains that Millennials are the generation more likely to turn to social media for news than any other news source (Matsa & Mitchell, 2014). Unlike Generation X (born 1965 to 1980) and the Baby Boomer Generation (born 1946 to 1964), Millennials may have grown up with cable but had access to the Internet at home and at school, and feel comfortable dumping cable.

In an online article for the *Radio Television Digital News Association* website, the General Manager from Birmingham, Alabama's WVTM-TV Hank Price (2015) wrote that the industry "is in the middle of a massive change" (para. 1). Price reported that television stations can no longer influence when viewers watch the news, instead "choice and connectivity put the viewer in control" (Price, 2015, para. 6). Consumers are willing to invest in their preferred news organizations as long as they trust and believe in the brand. Loyalty to a news organization also derives from having "a seat at the table" according to Price (para. 10), concluding that consumers want to be part of the news experience.

The Roles of Television Journalists and Photojournalists

Television journalists are professionally trained people who collect, gather, and broadcast information. Television journalists work closely with photojournalists who are professionally trained at visual storytelling. Once given an assignment, television journalists go through a process that consists of researching information, collecting and gathering facts, conducting interviews, recording supporting video, and later writing and editing the news story into a package. That package airs during a designated newscast and is delivered to a large audience.

Television news offers an immediacy that newspapers cannot emulate. Microwave and satellite trucks allow sound and video transmission from a variety of locations. Cellular-based video uplink technology has increased chances for reporters and photographers going live with less equipment from anywhere with cellular service. Advanced technology in news provides the element of live coverage, bringing news to viewers as it is happening and developing (Tuggle & Huffman, 1999, p. 492). Whether it is reporting from the field or from the anchor desk, the live presence of a television journalist gives viewers a chance to experience the story through the television journalist's eyes.

During the 1970s and 1980s, television news gained more popularity than newspapers. Technology allowed viewers to see and hear the people who were in the stories and those who were telling these stories. It also created a divide between print and television reporters. While television brought life to words, reporters were seen more as performers (Bock, 2011, p. 604) with the ability to engage an audience.

Aside from handling reporting duties, a television journalist must connect with viewers (Bradshaw, Foust, & Bernt, 2005). Viewers have told past researchers that they wanted journalists, especially anchors, to be attractive, poised, and professional. As television

personalities, these journalists should be able to deliver the news with a calm and comforting voice. Managers who hire journalists with these qualities believe they contribute to higher ratings and reflect on the station's identity (Bradshaw et al., 2005, p. 169).

Representing the station is another journalist role, which includes making community appearances. Though public appearances are not connected to journalism or newsgathering, they are important in promoting a news station (Bradshaw et al., 2005, p. 171). Anchors and reporters understand these appearances help promote their careers, while managers see these appearances as a way to promote the station (p. 166). A television journalist who makes appearances outside of work is seen as approachable and someone who cares about the community (Bradshaw et al., 2005).

A majority of the profits for local news stations come from newscasts (Bradshaw et al., 2005, p. 169). A team of producers, assignment desk managers, video editors, photojournalists, and a production staff all help produce a compelling, informative, and engaging newscast. Reaching a larger audience than the competition means higher ratings for the station. Higher ratings equal more advertising dollars, which leads up to more revenue. LaPoe and Reynolds (2013) found that news managers, who pay more attention to advertisers, put more emphasis on ratings than journalistic integrity. A high-rated newscast reflects positively on the station and attracts advertisers willing to pay a premium for commercial time.

Breaking news is news that is happening at that particular moment and is being reported or revealed. It is undoubtedly the essence of live television. Stations take pride in being first at the scene, or first with exclusive, new information. However, technology drives this type of journalism (Tuggle & Huffman, 1999), and news managers invest hundreds of thousands of

dollars in the latest technology to make sure their journalists are on the air before the competition when news breaks.

Tuggle and Huffman (1999) stated that live coverage is “an increasingly dominant value in television news operations today” (p. 492). That is still the belief for station managers who continue to invest in more advanced video technology, such as high-definition video cameras and cellular-based video uplink backpacks for video transmission from the field. Other technology includes the use of smartphones and tablets used by journalists or multimedia journalists. Using these devices not only provides better access to information, but also to more content (stories or segments) than the competition leading to being the first with new information.

However, the idea of being first comes at a cost. Tuggle and Huffman (1999) stated that stations tend to overdo live coverage and miss the point about good content. Because news organizations run like businesses, often business values get in the way of news values (p. 493), so a journalist may be stuck on a breaking news event until the last person leaves. Sometimes the coverage means a journalist will stay on a story that has no further updates to provide. Because of the technology, stations can offer wall-to-wall coverage, helping to keep viewers locked into that particular news channel longer than the competition.

Some situations also prioritize technology use over a television journalist’s news integrity. In some cases, a station may report on a burning building in the morning, but the fire crews were able to control the flames before the 10pm newscast. At this point, a live shot from the scene is useless because the viewer cannot see the images behind the television journalist. News managers who demand a live shot from the scene are allowing technology to drive the news story (p. 493).

Tuggle and Huffman (1999) stressed that when television journalists rush to be live first, audiences have complained that rushing affects the accuracy of their stories. Even television journalists have agreed their storytelling is often compromised because of the pressure to be first at the scene. When accuracy and storytelling are impacted, so too is audience trust. From there, a television journalist's credibility is likely to suffer. A news audience will no longer trust the news organization, and that audience will turn to other sources of media, especially the Internet (Tsfati, 2010).

Additionally, the role of a television journalist goes beyond the collection and dissemination of news. A television journalist develops sources, and distinguishes what story ideas are interesting and newsworthy. Trained to present a clear and accurate story, a television journalist's goal is to objectively deliver a balanced story with interviews from reliable sources (Brennen, 2009).

An extensive database search tells very little about the role of the photojournalist. Most of the research focuses on the television journalist, and only assumptions can be made of the photojournalist's role. Based on those assumptions, photojournalists are the core of television news, because without video and audio, there is no story. Professionally trained photojournalists generally team up with television journalists for general assignment, investigative stories, or feature segments. The goal of this collaboration is to produce news stories and add content to a newscast.

Advancements in broadcast technology have many questioning the future of the photojournalist. In one large-sized television market, television journalists are handed video cameras to do their job, and have been asked to return with a story or stories for the evening newscast (Perez & Cremedass, 2014). Some television journalists criticize this new movement of

turning them into photojournalists and editors, by saying it is clearly about management saving more money, not producing more content (Perez & Cremedas, 2014).

Though traditional journalism involves professionally trained television journalists and photojournalists who have to follow guidelines of fact-checking information (Barnes, 2012), there has been a need for individuals to explore other options for receiving and releasing information. The Internet has opened up a world of bloggers and citizen journalists who have digital devices and a voice to be heard. Technology is turning every day citizens into journalists and blurring the lines between an amateur and professional.

In recent years, *citizen journalism* has emerged as a channel for individuals to experience the newsgathering process. Citizen journalism consists of “people without professional or formal training” (Barnes, 2012, p. 16). Citizen journalism became popular in the late 1990s as more people around the world connected to the Internet (Barnes, 2012). Some scholars call citizen journalism “grassroots journalism” or “citizen media” (Barnes, 2012, p. 18). Others refer to citizen journalism as “alternative journalism” or “community journalism” (Meadows, 2013, p. 49). Citizen journalism consists of original and unfiltered content (Barnes, 2012, p. 18) from people who use mobile phones to capture photos and videos and the Internet to disseminate information through blogs and forums. Some citizen journalists contribute to mainstream media or social networking sites like Facebook or Twitter (Meadows, 2013).

Barnes (2012) said the roots of citizen journalism date back to pamphlets printed by political activist and philosopher Thomas Paine during the eighteenth century. One of the founding fathers of the United States, Paine’s publications inspired the start of the American Revolution. Later the postal system, telegraph, and telephone “helped people to distribute news more quickly” (p. 17).

The Internet increased the dissemination of information more quickly and gave citizen journalism a platform to grow its audience.

Some of the concerns surrounding citizen journalism include the importance of recognizing confidential information, the ability to credit a source, and the understanding of “balance, fairness, and objectivity” (Barnes, 2012, p. 19). The driving force in citizen journalism is the idea of delivering the news as it happens. During the September 11 attacks, citizens help paint a picture of the destruction from their view for mainstream media. In some cases, news crews could not arrive on the scene or be at all places at all times to capture video. Instead, major networks asked individuals to share images (Barnes, 2012), and from there citizens contributed to the newsgathering experience.

In 2004, a devastating earthquake and tsunami hit Southeast Asia, killing thousands of people. News crews could not report from the scene because of limited access. Networks relied on photos and videos taken by survivors with mobile phones in hand (Barnes, 2012). Some images included photos of individuals wanting to inform loved ones back home of their safety. Other images included photos of the massive destruction in the wake of the aftermath (Lowe, 2015).

When Hurricane Katrina hit the Louisiana coast in 2005, social media provided photos of the devastation and grabbed “the attention of the world before mainstream media” (Barnes, 2012, p. 22) arrived on the scene. The year 2009 would prove to be a tumultuous time in Iran during the country’s presidential elections. When journalists could not enter or report about the events, they referred to Twitter which became a news source for traditional media.

In 2010, Twitter once again provided information and images for the world when “a magnitude 7.0 earthquake devastated Haiti” (Barnes, 2012, p. 23). Unrest in parts of the Middle East and North Africa in 2011 drove citizen journalists to Facebook. Citizens captured images on

their mobile phones and released those using social media. That same year, social media provided a platform for citizens to report about the destructive earthquake and tsunami off the coast of Japan, collaborating with traditional media. When mainstream media could not arrive at the scene in a timely matter, citizen journalism were the source of information and updates.

Social Media in Television News

In early 2015, researchers from the *Pew Research Center* published a study conducted from July 8 to August 18, 2014 on the influences of digital technology and the news habits of news consumers in three different television markets across the United States. Those three markets included Denver, Colorado; Sioux City, Iowa; and Macon, Georgia. All three cities differed in population size, television market rankings according to Nielsen, demographics, and broadband accessibility.

Compared to residents in Sioux City and Macon, those who lived in Denver were more likely to use the Internet for local news, retrieve news from a digital device, and share it within their social network. Researchers found disparities between minorities and whites in following news organizations. More Hispanics (60%) were likely to follow news sources than whites (43%) were. It was the same for minorities in Macon, where more blacks (70%) were likely to follow the news versus whites (43%) (*Pew Research Center*, 2015).

Another *Pew Research Center* (2015) study analyzed five social media platforms and demographic characteristics of social media users. Those five social media platforms were Facebook, Pinterest, Instagram, LinkedIn, and Twitter. Created by Mark Zuckerberg, the free, online networking service, Facebook, allows users to post and share photos and make connections. *Pew Research* states that although both men and women use Facebook, the site's users are generally women between the ages of 18 and 29.

Weeks and Holbert (2013) described social media as “one rapidly emerging news media outlet” (p. 212). With this digital platform, users share media content retrieved “from friends, family and news organizations” with their social network (p. 212). Weeks and Holbert (2013) indicated that use of social media will continue to increase, especially with a growing membership of 850 million people worldwide (p. 213). Facebook provides an avenue for users to engage in the distribution of news.

A study by Lysak, Cremadas, and Wolf (2012) showed the impact of social media in local television newsrooms, and the reasons news managers support the trend. Managers see the medium as a way to boost their newsroom image and the profiles of their anchors and reporters. The newsroom staff use social media, especially Twitter, as a newsgathering tool (Lysak, et al., 2012, 187). The researchers in this study find journalists value the power of this medium especially during breaking news. Reporters could deliver breaking news in 140 words or less while arriving first at the scene (p. 188). Journalists preferred Twitter’s efficiency during the urgency of relaying a message to followers.

At a time when television news changes with the progression of technology, one study discussed how veteran reporters at one station reacted to innovation (Adornato, 2014). Broadcast journalists saw a need “to stay relevant” (p. 3). After interviewing reporters and observing them in medium-sized markets, Adornato (2014) discovered his participants see using Facebook and Twitter to build relationships with their audience. Social media provided that necessary connection to stay relevant in a changing news environment.

Gearhart and Kang (2014) found Twitter comments played a role in “affecting audiences’ evaluation of the news” (p. 243). Comments also added value to a newscast. When journalists ask audiences for a reaction on an issue or story, viewers share comments and opinion, seeing

them populate on social media. This interaction created content for broadcasters and the chance to participate in the news process for viewers. News professionals see this as a valuable opportunity to engage the public in the news experience.

The Internet gave social media users a wide variety of information and opportunities to voice concerns (Tsfati, 2010). The difference between traditional media and social media lies in connection and interaction. According to Weeks and Holbert (2013), traditional media is a “one-way, top-down, sender-driven, time specific activity” (p. 214).

Breaking News, Social Media, and the Television Journalist

Breaking news is the core of live television and its dissemination is driven by technology (Tuggle & Huffman, 1999). The more advanced the technology, the more news managers want to use that technology to be first on the scene and first to report. A database search of articles related to breaking news, social media, and the television journalist provided a scope of technology’s role in delivering content, making connections, and addressing concerns for quality and accuracy in journalism.

Television is a visual medium, and its critics have judged television news as being more about “dramatic imagery and deployment of attractive reporters” (Bock, 2011, p. 601). In 1996, Lorie Hearn reviewed the book, *Breaking the News: How the Media Undermine American Democracy*, by author and journalist James Fallows (1996). Hearn said that Fallows (1996) bashed fellow journalists, especially television journalists in his book, claiming that they should not be considered journalists but rather television personalities. Fallows (1996) called out television reporters Cokie Roberts, John McLaughlin, and Mike Wallace as being over paid reporters who were “out of touch and in love with themselves” (Hearn, 1996, p. 1), and that television news was more about hiring big names than good journalism. This statement by

Fallows (1996) implied television news was less about fact gathering and credibility and more about the visuals and personalities.

Stempel, Hargrove, and Bernt (2000) confirmed technology drove how news was gathered, disseminated, and consumed. The authors reported that in a *Pew Research Center* poll, more news consumers said they received their news from the Internet than traditional sources such as newspapers, radio, and television (Stempel, Hargrove, & Bernt, 2000). Tuggle & Huffman (2001) saw the use of technology influenced news management to emphasize live reporting even if a story did not warrant a live element.

Reporting live from the scene builds an audience (Tuggle & Huffman, 2001), and adds value to a story by bringing the news closer to viewers. A live shot paints a picture of a news event, and breaking news paints that picture of news as it is happening. Technology provides immediacy and presence (p. 335). Microwave and satellite trucks operate in the newsgathering process, by transmitting images to the station and sending them to viewers' televisions. Tuggle and Huffman (2001) stressed that even though technology gives reporters the opportunity to go live, sometimes news management overuses that ability to provide live coverage.

Tuggle and Huffman (2001) studied 24 stations that deployed journalists to go live from the scene, newsroom, or studio. They found that often news crews were sent back to the scene where the story previously happened and found nothing in the background that could add value to the story. Tuggle and Huffman (2001) said that some critics believed live coverage meddled with the work of police or firefighters and that going live from the scene was an "overuse of technology" affecting news judgement (p. 343).

During the 1960s, television brought stories from around the world to the homes of American viewers, specifically, their living room, where the family gathered to watch the

evening news (McGill & Silvia, 2003). By the early 2000s, the Internet brought global conflicts to the desktop, and the television journalist provided up-to-the-minute breaking news stories via the user's computer. The same appetite for news coverage occurred after the attacks of September 11, 2001.

Television journalists reported updates from the scene minutes after the attacks. Wall-to-wall coverage was seen for nearly a week after the attacks. Journalists from the scene often had to play multiple roles. Some acted as experts adding commentaries, using unknown sources, and even including their own personal experiences (Reynolds & Barnett, 2003). The technology provided journalists and to report from the scene, but some had no way of verifying information because they did not have the time to confirm sources. The urgency of breaking news put journalists in positions that took them out of their routine reporting comfort zone. Because they could not confirm their information, television journalists were thrown into situations that required adding their own "personal values, attitudes, and beliefs" (Reynolds & Barnett, 2003, p. 690) into stories.

Blogs became another channel of disseminating information. It became a platform for people to express opinions, and an online source of information for people seeking the truth in their communities. Eventually, the blog became a reference for media and public relations professionals (Sweetser, Porter, Chung, & Kim, 2008). Professionals in the communication industry saw the use of blogs as supplemental information. In turn, some professionals learned to become bloggers themselves and used it as another avenue for interacting with their audience.

By the mid-2000s, television journalists communicated digitally and found a way to reach the audience and beyond. Social media sites like Facebook and Twitter were best known for networking and connecting, but in Bozeman, Montana, they became the perfect tool for

breaking news (Lowery, 2009). With a 140-character limitation, Twitter became relevant after a natural gas explosion happened in that town. Journalists reporting for an online news source, *NewWest.Net*, used Twitter and Facebook to post photos, stories, and news updates. At the time, the staff was just becoming acquainted with social media. Some embraced it, while others dismissed it (Lowery, 2009).

After proving Twitter could become a viable channel to reach its audience, the staff at *NewWest.Net* saw the microblogging site useful in court cases. One of the most popular court cases in Bozeman was a “bankruptcy trial of the ritzy Yellowstone Club resort” (Lowery, 2009, p. 33). Journalists posted updated details about the case. News management realized their posts were getting attention when they found out that “witnesses and counsel” were following the news organization’s Twitter feed (p. 33). As a result, these findings confirmed Twitter’s relevance in news gathering and receiving. The staff at *NewWest.Net* found a way to communicate to its followers, use Twitter to inform users about news as it happened, and give residents what they needed immediately.

Television news managers face limited budgets, downsized newsrooms, and decreased viewership, but social media has become that extra tool in news delivery and reaching viewers (Picard, 2009). Though the technology may be available and beneficial for one journalist, Picard (2009) warns that it may not be beneficial and useful for the entire organization (p. 10). Picard (2009) looked at the use of technology in the newsroom and reminded management to consider a station’s goal and which social media app worked best for that goal. Picard said news organizations must determine “if interactions are the goal, the reason for each interaction needs to be delineated” (p. 10). In fact, the result of the goal does not have to result in revenue, but at least the use of social media builds the station’s brand. In an industry that is losing its younger

viewers to the Internet, social media offers personal interaction, connection, and a chance for viewers to participate in a discussion.

Quinn (2009) confirmed that as technology advances, the more likely television's young audience will turn to the Internet. Online sources provide information that is convenient and accessible, but it also gives the user a chance to be more selective, which Quinn (2009) said may hurt the user's knowledge of daily news. Instead of waiting for the 10 o'clock nightly news and sitting through a half hour or hour newscast, online users click and select their own news stories from their digital devices. Quinn (2009) warned that the Internet would influence young people to rely more on online sources versus multiple news outlets. Because the younger audience looks at news with cynicism (Quinn, 2009), some educators have discussed teaching news literacy in middle and high school. Quinn (2009) emphasized this push to educate students could result in their ability to determine a story's reliability, objectivity, and factuality.

Some of the concerns about stories being fact or fiction come from eyewitness accounts and photographs of the citizen journalist (Pantti & Bakker, 2009). With shrinking resources and viewers, news managers see this form of participatory journalism as a low-cost, content-adding business model to help beat the competition. Journalists use amateur photographs and videos in their storytelling. Asking viewers to upload video and photographs to the station website maintains audience connection and keeps them involved in the news process. However, accepting amateur images puts the organization's credibility at risk. This means the staff must work harder to guarantee an image's authenticity. The journalist plays a bigger role as the gatekeeper when given amateur images.

Unfortunately, professional journalists around the world are imprisoned or murdered for reporting stories (Giles, 2010). Because the free press in some foreign countries is not as revered

as it is in the United States, its importance is a reminder for American journalists “how precious are the freedoms of expression guaranteed under the U.S. constitution” (Giles, 2010, p. 38).

When foreign journalists cannot inform through traditional channels, then technology enables them to reach the masses. Giles (2010) said that technology motivates innovation and “the rise of the independent journalist” (p. 40).

In Australia, network main anchors are called *newsreaders*. Known for being trustworthy, consistent, and reliable, news readers give audiences a “familiar face” in the middle of “ever-changing flows of new information” (Bainbridge & Bestwick, 2010, p. 205). The emphasis on how to attract more viewers, particularly the young crowd, has turned the attention to personalities and professionalism of newsreaders. Management in Australia’s news stations sees the significance of marketing a newsreader’s personality. It is to increase the station’s audience and maintain relevance (Bainbridge & Bestwick, 2010).

In terms of breaking news on social media channels, some journalists debate how and when to break news. Goldstein and Stiegman (2011) presented conflicting beliefs to readers in *PRweek*. An innovations editor for *slate.com*, Goldstein (2011) says there is a small window of opportunity for journalists to break news with social media. The editor reminded readers of the more than 200 million users on Twitter and the potential reach a news story could have once it breaks. Goldstein (2011) said news organizations should accept and welcome Twitter’s ability to spread news faster than traditional outlets.

A 20-plus year journalism veteran, Stiegman (2011) stressed the importance of accuracy, and that a mistake was not worth the risk to one’s credibility. Stiegman (2011) emphasized that tweets are endorsements regardless of what a journalist’s Twitter profile indicated. To maintain journalism integrity, journalists must think about the consequences of pronouncing someone

dead when reports have not been confirmed (Stiegman, 2011). He says that professionals can get the information correct and first, as long as they pay attention to details.

Social media transformed the news and its audience, by connecting news consumers to the world at their convenience. CNN created its own citizen journalism site called *iReport* to invite users from around the world to post and share news through “text, images and video” (Chua, Razikin, & Goh, 2011, p. 4). To find these stories, contributors assigned *tags*. Defined as “an uncontrolled keyword” (Chua et al., 2011, p. 4), a tag described the post for users to find easily, but Chua et al. (2011) indicated that with hundreds of thousands of *iReport* postings, there were more than a million tags.

Searching for documents presents a daunting task for both producers and users. Chua, Razikin, and Goh (2011) investigated how tags in *iReport* performed in breaking news and whether content was seen in a timely matter. Four major findings were highlighted in this study. First, authors found that users found news events on *iReport* with the appropriate tags, some gaining attention a few days after the news broke. Second, there was a lag time between stories that broke on mainstream media and to when they appeared on *iReport*. Chua et al. (2011) suggested that citizen journalists likely “took the cues from professional journalists” (p. 16), especially after a natural disaster, like the 7.9 earthquake in the Sichuan province of China in 2009, or during conflict, like the Russia-Georgia War in 2008. Some images maintained user interest for more than a week.

The third finding was that news events considered important to journalists were not always equally interesting to contributors (Chua, Razikin, & Goh, 2011). Professional journalists acted as gatekeepers, deciding on which news stories to post. Citizen journalists expressed their “personal observations and experiences” (p. 16) and were more likely to view posts that deeply

affected them. Finally, though citizen journalists are worldwide, most *iReport* stories were posted by contributors in the United States (Chua et al., 2011) and leaned towards local news stories. From the financial crisis to declining car sales to the presidential election (Chua et al., 2011), posts from the United States generated the most contributors, with a variety of tags, unlike international stories which came with single tags.

In 2010, protest organizers at the G20 summit in Toronto, Canada saw social media as a platform to engage in public discourse and to spread information. The *Toronto Community Mobilization Network* encouraged protestors and demonstrators to report breaking news using “Twitter, YouTube, or Flickr” (Poell & Borra, 2011, p. 696). Protests covered various social, political, and environmental issues. Using social media, activists established an alternative channel from mainstream media to spread their message, and because they felt their point of view was not being accurately reported. Through social media, activists spoke freely to the public.

Poell and Borra (2011) analyzed a set of 11,556 tweets, 222 videos, and 3,338 photos tagged *#g20report* to assess what they called social media reporting (p. 697). Within 12 days of the G20 summit, Poell and Borra (2011) combed through trending topics with the *#g20report* tag and found that violence, arrests, and police presence dominated all three platforms (p. 708), inciting anger. Few stories talked about issues. It mainly focused around the violence. What Poell and Borra (2011) found was that these images and stories stemmed from the observations of a small group of users, and Twitter was the main source with the most contributors. Though protestors complained that mainstream media focused mostly on the violence in their reports, Poell and Borra (2011) saw this same type of reporting repeated through social media by

activists. The question remains whether social media is the right platform for reporting violence by protestors or if that should be left to mainstream media.

Just as television news managers have accepted digital media to be a way to reach viewers, newspaper operations have had to do the same to maintain readers. Timothy Franklin (2012) was managing editor in the Washington bureau of *Bloomberg News* and wrote in *Nieman Reports* how the old newspaper model was becoming a dying operation (p. 11). Franklin said digital media needed to be incorporated with print media. He recognized that with this transformation, the focus for print should be a digital platform with “a print component” (p. 11), not the other way around. Following in the footsteps of television personalities, Franklin said print should also brand the newspaper writers as personalities, providing a connection between readers and the newspaper.

In the wake of tornado destruction throughout Tuscaloosa, Alabama, the local paper relied on social media to inform residents and squash rumors that could potentially ignite panic (Lee, 2012). A tornado ripped through the city on April 27, 2011 causing major destruction and killing 53 people. At the time, the city editor of *The Tuscaloosa News*, Katherine Lee (2012), wrote that after the tornado, rumors about the dead were spreading throughout the city. Some believed because there were so many confirmed dead, city officials were hiding bodies. Others thought bodies were found in a lake or on top of a mall. Lee (2012) said she and her fellow journalists saw the value in social media, that they could use Facebook and Twitter to remedy the rumors.

What Lee (2012) and her staff discovered was social media’s readiness for disaster events. Because photos and stories could be posted instantly, they realized social media’s immediacy was key in reporting breaking news. If residents could not get to a television or radio

and needed information, they could turn to the newspaper's social media sites. It took a short sentence of information to deliver the message quickly, especially on Twitter. Residents relied on the site's tweets, as did the National Guard. Officials told editors at *The Tuscaloosa News* that their Twitter feeds showed the Guard which area had the greatest need and where they could send first responders.

The use of social media may help newspaper publication instantly deliver messages, but editors realize there is still the work of verifying information. This was especially true in 2011 when city editor of the *Wisconsin State Journal* Phil Brinkman (2012) and his news team reported 27 days of continuous coverage on protests at the state capitol. The governor's decision to "effectively wipe out collective bargaining for public employees" (p. 30) caused a firestorm of angry protests. Brinkman described the Internet as a "printing press" for citizens to voice their concerns, and Twitter was like a "talk radio show" where people voiced "loud and highly charged interpretations" (p. 31).

Journalists were forced to sift through the noise and make sense of the influx of information. The staff at the *Wisconsin State Journal* could not risk the newspaper's credibility by including unverified tweets. They learned a valuable lesson during the 27 days of protest. They could not let technology take-over the paper's goal of traditional journalism—gathering, checking and analyzing the facts, and making sure public officials were held responsible for their words and actions (Brinkman, 2012).

Defined as "unscripted, frequently awkward" (Monheit, 2013, p. 89) events captured on video, "gotcha" moments usually involve public officials or political candidates. Monheit (2013) named some examples of these uncomfortable moments. They included former presidential

candidates Rick Perry forgetting during a debate which three federal agencies he would close and Michelle Bachman's statement about the HPV vaccine leading to mental disabilities.

Fellow presidential candidate Mitt Romney also made a comment during the election season that he was not worried "about the poor because 47 percent of Americans relied on the government and did not pay income taxes" (Monheit, 2013, p. 89). During a campaign stop in Roanoke, Virginia, President Barack Obama addressed a crowd, talking about prosperity and success and told them, "you didn't build this" (p. 90). Monheit (2013) says these "gotcha" moments tend to go viral, and seem to have more of an impact than the issues themselves. Giving these moments more attention could hurt the integrity of journalism (Monheit, 2013). Society may care more about the mundane and less about important issues, and lose the ability to have discussions about real needs. Monheit (2013) mentioned that society has depended on these "gotcha" moments to move mountains and enact policies.

Vivo (2013) looked into the trends of Spanish journalists using Twitter and how the social media site was used in their line of work. Twenty-five journalists whose job titles were editors, former editors, media bloggers, and correspondents were selected for this study (Vivo, 2013). The journalists used Twitter to release information, but acted as gatekeepers when deciding which content was worthy of a tweet, retweet, or favorite.

They understood Twitter's process of information moving from the "bottom up" (Vivo, 2013, p. 96). Information came from many sources, and journalists grabbed what they believed to be content and shared it with their followers. Similar to television journalists, these participants connected with their followers through Twitter. They gained their followers' trust and built credibility just by building relationships. Twitter's ability to strengthen these relationships came when fans gave journalists feedback, comments, and access to sources.

After analyzing thousands of tweets, Vivo (2013) found that Spanish journalists were tweeting about news stories, but also using it to promote themselves. Vivo (2013) discovered the journalists used Twitter to manage their own personal branding. Stories by these journalists were being retweeted and discussed more than the stories of their news organizations.

Because social media is about real-time news, exclusive stories are decreasing according to De la Gándara (2013). Technology has brought journalism “new voices, more sources, better engagement” (p. 31), but De la Gándara (2013) says that news organizations are losing professional journalists who could sift through the tweets and make sure information is accurate and reliable. A deputy managing editor for *El País* in Madrid, Spain, De la Gándara (2013) recognized traditional journalism’s challenges in keeping young readers and viewers engaged. He added that journalists need to work harder to earn the respect and loyalty of their audience because those audiences now influence how stories are delivered.

Lin, Keegan, Margolin, and Lazer (2014) looked at eight major events during the 2012 U.S. presidential election and examined patterns of social media use during this time. They wanted to find what events affected behavior changes on social media. Their results showed that behaviors in communication change during major media events when sharing information. Lin et al. (2014) discovered people were more likely to listen to experts and engage in group conversations by retweeting and using hashtags. These conversations happened more frequently than interpersonal conversations between users, like personally replying to a tweet.

Lin et al. (2014) realized that social media developed big group discussions during major media events. The fear was that somewhere in this group misinformation emerged and rumors spread. This should be a warning to all users and media organizations who gather information

from social media feeds and in turn disseminate information thought to be credible (Lin et al., 2014).

Regaining the trust and loyalty of a young audience will continue to be a challenge as long as technology improves the accessibility of information. Tandoc (2014) conducted a study examining how news consumption influenced a student's idea of journalistic roles. Those roles included the disseminator (neutral and passive), the interpretative (analyzing the news for readers), and the adversarial (critical of business and political officials) (Tandoc, 2014, p. 257). Based on a survey of 364 undergraduate journalism students in a Midwestern school, Tandoc (2014) found that students became familiar with journalism through their own personal experiences. Many of them embraced digital devices and social media as a reliable source of information. With this in mind, Tandoc (2014) stated that traditional journalists have to perform a balancing act maintaining the guidelines of credible journalism in one hand and a new digital business model in the other in order to meet the demands of the young audience.

Tandoc (2014) added that news organizations may follow the audience, but that may lead the audience on a narrow path of receiving only online information and away from traditional media. This could influence how young journalism students view where the news comes from, that it only comes from the Internet. Tandoc (2014) concluded that educators must train the next generation of journalists to see the complete picture of what their roles as journalists should be. Students should be introduced to other roles. For instance, a journalist is more than a "disseminator, an interpreter, or an adversarial" role (pg. 257). A journalist is also a mobilizer, a role that provides "a voice to ordinary people" (p. 266).

Sources, news story ideas, and interviews are what the television journalists have been able to gain from social media, especially Twitter, but how do they get through the tweets and

find the stories that matter most? Fitts (2015) studied how journalists found their stories on social media. He found that journalists were using other apps to sift through content without losing the big stories.

A tool that scans Twitter for newsworthy and important tweets, Dataminr has helped journalists find stories and corresponding video. Another tool for finding breaking news stories is NowThis. A popular and effective app used by CNN, Associated Press, and the *New York Post*, NowThis is a “social listening” (Fitts, 2015, p. 20) app that allows journalists to find breaking news stories fast. These apps have become more than tools in a journalism world in which breaking news stories go digital before hitting traditional media. Fitts (2015) indicated that they are now part of the business model for news organizations. The apps comb through thousands of trending posts and choose those that are most newsworthy.

OSullivan (2015) addressed the dangers of breaking news stories on social media. He wrote that journalists run the risk of posting, tweeting, and sharing information too quickly, turning their work into what he calls sloppy journalism (OSullivan, 2015). The author recalled the Boston Marathon bombing and the search for a suspect before the arrest. OSullivan (2015) discussed it from the standpoint of tipping off criminals on the run. He added that police asked that journalists refrain from posting officers’ every step for fear that the suspect was keeping track online. OSullivan (2015) concluded that while journalists have an obligation to break the news on social media, they should be mindful of their posts, whether they are tweeting from work or from home.

Analysis of Supporting Theories

This study’s theoretical framework involves the application of Diffusion of Innovations theory by Everett M. Rogers (1995). Based on previous research, the theory explains the process of

the adoption of innovations by individuals and organizations. Rogers (1995) notes that there are four elements in the diffusion of a new idea, and within those elements are another set of characteristics that show how the idea becomes adopted.

Rogers first introduced the Diffusion of Innovations theory in 1962, but published several updates afterwards. During that process, Moore and Benbasat (1991) saw a need to measure the perceptions of adopting an innovation and developed an instrument. Moore and Benbasat (1991) developed the instrument as a tool to unveil the beginning stages of an innovation, measuring “the perceived characteristics of using an innovation” (p. 194). The authors believed their instrument could uncover why the innovation was being used, not what individuals thought of the innovation. They could help answer why some innovations are better received than others.

According to Rogers, innovation is a new idea, practice, or service, and has five characteristics that determine its spread and adoption by an individual (Atkinson, 2007). The five characteristics that influence the adoption of innovation are relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, trialability, and observability.

Relative advantage answers how “an innovation is perceived as being better than the idea it supersedes” (Atkinson, 2007, p. 613). For instance, the individual may look at an innovation as an improvement to an economic or social status (Atkinson, 2007) and find the use of that innovation is beneficial compared to other available methods – past or present. The more beneficial the innovation to the individual, then the more likely it is to be adopted.

The second characteristic is compatibility, which demonstrates how an innovation is “consistent with existing values, needs, and past experiences of potential adopters” (Moore & Benbasat, 1991, p. 195). An individual is more likely to adopt this innovation if it is consistent

with the potential adopter's needs and expectations (Atkinson, 2007). Some may find an innovation to be difficult or easy to use and understand.

Determining whether an innovation is difficult or easy to use and understand is the third characteristic of complexity or simplicity. If an innovation is perceived to be difficult, then it is less likely to be adopted. The simpler the innovation, the more likely it will be accepted by adopters. The key to the success of an innovation is that the individual does not have to learn new skills in order to understand the innovation (Rogers, 1995; Atkinson, 2007).

The fourth characteristic that influences the adoption of an innovation is trialability. Defined as the ability to try out the innovation on a limited basis (Atkinson, 2007), trialability allows the user to experiment before adoption. This characteristic prevents any uncertainty towards the new idea. Trying out an innovation also speeds up the rate of adoption.

Lastly, observability is the use of an innovation observed by others, and resulting in adoption (Moore & Benbasat, 1991). Others who see early adopters using the innovation are more likely to ask questions about the new idea. Friends who see other friends using an innovation will discuss its function and benefits, and eventually adopt the new idea.

In order to measure the perceptions of an individual's use of an innovation, Moore and Benbasat (1991) used Rogers' (1995) theory to develop an instrument that could be applicable to any innovation. They believed prior to developing their instrument, most designs "lacked reliability and validity" (Moore & Benbasat, 1991, p. 194). Moore and Benbasat (1991) designed their instrument to be general enough that it could be modified to fit most diffusion studies (p. 194). They saw a need to develop this instrument and demonstrate why some innovations are more likely to be adopted compared to others.

Moore and Benbasat (1991) first created their instrument based on Rogers' (1983) five characteristics of innovation—relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, observability, and trialability (p. 193-194). Each time the authors tested their instrument, they added the characteristics of image, voluntariness, and results demonstrability to reflect an individual's perception of an innovation. Moore and Benbasat (1991) added image because they believed that individuals perceived certain innovations could elevate their social status and enhance their image (p. 195). Then, voluntariness was added because they understood that when people are given the freedom to choose, they determine the adoption or rejection of an innovation. Finally, the addition of results demonstrability would measure an individual's influence in discussing the innovation.

Murray's (2009) research breaks down the Diffusion of Innovations theory in her article on the context of bridging the counseling gap. Murray (2009) concluded that researchers and practitioners may never truly come together as one, but that researchers carry most of the responsibility in closing the gap. Using this theory, researchers must understand the topic of innovation, effectively communicate when sharing results with practitioners, understand the risks in using innovation, allow practitioners to be flexible with innovation, determine how practitioners adopt an innovation, and finally "respect and seek out the knowledge of practitioners" (Murray, 2009, p. 115).

Murray (2009) defined Rogers' theory as "the process through which new innovations and ideas become diffused and adopted within wider social networks" (Murray, 2009, p. 108). Diffusion of Innovations theory identifies the spread of innovative ideas to the masses. Murray (2009) stated that people and groups generally accept innovation, then put it into practice by "incorporating it into typical practice routines" (p. 110). The purpose of applying Diffusion of Innovations theory to her

study was to find how innovation could help bridge the gap between research and practice in the counseling field. This same perspective could be applied to the current study and the gap between the traditional television journalist/photojournalist team and the emerging and popular citizen journalist.

Weiss (2013) used the Diffusion of Innovations theory to identify the adoption of innovation by individuals and organizations. Weiss's (2013) study noted that the multiple uses of smartphones are not limited to making phone calls, but rather also to provide information, entertainment, connection, and that young adults are more likely to accept new technology. Most importantly, news organizations find that the smartphone helps users retrieve news stories from a station's Facebook and Twitter pages, encouraging the station's digital media department to develop its own social media app. Television stations can better track users and the types of stories they find interesting by providing news consumers a social media application. News managers see the use of social media as a potential for keeping its young viewers tuned in.

Weiss (2013) defined "the smartphone and mobile news applications" as the innovations (p. 437), and the individuals most likely to adopt them as young adults. Because of this adoption, young adults are known to use their smartphones "to seek out local news and information" (p. 438). Citing the theory's founder, Everett Rogers, Weiss (2013) said Diffusion of Innovations theory explains why users of innovation are more likely to adopt devices that meet their needs of convenience and accessibility.

Both individuals and organizations "...undergo a slightly different adoption process" (Weiss, 2013, p. 438). An organization such as a television station will find out how the innovation can be used into its daily activities. Weiss (2013) cited Rogers and said that innovation goes through its first set of phases before it is adopted into the organization. This "implementation"

phase consists of “redefining, clarifying, and routinizing” (p. 438). This phase explains how an organization will define, clarify, and specify the use of the innovation in its daily routines.

Another application of the Diffusion of Innovations theory showed how new media influences the workflow and responsibilities of television reporters in a medium-sized market in the northeast section of the United States (Adornato, 2014). The author defined *new media* as a process of interacting and information sharing through “websites, blogs, podcasts, online video, mobile text messaging and social networking sites, such as Facebook and Twitter” (p. 5). The use of the Diffusion of Innovations theory by Adornato (2014) helped make the connection of how innovation influenced the daily responsibilities of local television journalists.

Through Diffusion of Innovations theory, Adornato (2014) discovered that reporters are either pro- or anti-innovation because technology affects a journalist’s workload. Some claim innovation creates a heavier workload because aside from reporting, journalists contribute to the station website, and their Facebook and Twitter pages. On the other hand, some journalists see new media as a useful tool in connecting with the station audience, fans, and followers. Television journalists also use technology (smartphones, laptops, and tablets) for gathering news from online sources. Connection through social media allows them to reach out to viewers who could provide interviews or leads on news stories.

An Examination of Related Research

In television, keeping an eye on ratings helps journalists validate their work (p. 755), but journalism scholars and professionals fear that constantly measuring audiences may dictate content and jeopardize journalism quality (Meijer, 2012). Though Meijer (2012) understood the reluctance of relying on audience ratings, the researcher argued news organizations should rather

focus on what users consider quality journalism, what viewers experience when watching a news story, and if the news story has “entertainment value” (p. 757).

Meijer’s (2012) study noted that there were three points to recognize—“participation, representation, and presentation” (p. 757). Results showed that news users wanted to participate in the news process and have their concerns and viewpoints be counted. News users also wanted equal representation. Meijer (2012) found this especially true for minorities who were more likely to trust news stories in which stories were told from all perspectives and not just one angle. Meijer (2012) also believed that news users saw quality journalism as including a “captivating presentation” (p. 757), with a strong narrative and compelling video.

Multimedia journalists, or MMJs, are journalists who “fill the roles of reporter, videographer, and video editor” (Perez & Cremedas, 2014). This is a new business model for many television stations that want to provide more content at a lower cost (Perez & Cremedas, 2014). Sending one person out for a story means freeing up two or more people who could work on other stories. In the early days of a television journalist’s career, a journalist would start at a smaller market ranked at 100 or higher (Perez & Cremedas, 2014) and take on various roles of reporting, shooting, and editing. That journalist would eventually move up in markets and “assume fewer roles” (p. 160). Papper (as cited in Perez & Cremedas, 2014, p. 160) said television managers in large markets today are seeing value in MMJs and are relying on them even more.

Smith (as cited in Perez & Cremedas, 2014, p. 161) stated that the MMJ position goes back to the mid-1990s. By the early 2000s, station managers in larger markets began to rely on them “pushing for more content, present on more platforms, with less staff” (Perez & Cremedas, 2014, p. 162). The MMJ presence provided the newsroom more stories on the air and online, especially during a time of natural disasters (Perez & Cremedas, 2014).

While managers focused on costs, MMJs began to see their work suffering. Combining traditional journalism with online reporting meant dealing with an increased workload within time constraints. Some MMJs saw benefits in working alone saying they liked that the story was their own. They were generally MMJs who started out in that position. Television journalists who had to transition into the MMJ role reportedly were more tired (Perez & Cremedas, 2014) and dissatisfied with their work. Multimedia journalists were driving themselves to stories, making phone calls, scheduling interviews, and posting stories on social media. MMJs were also concerned about their safety because they no longer had that extra person to feel secure (Perez & Cremedas, 2014).

Aside from the addition of MMJs, scholars saw a shift in the newsroom in the form of media convergence. Technology is the basic element of media convergence, which combines the Internet as a source of information and the traditional media in one newsroom. Huang and Heider (2007) called media convergence an “integration of production for old and new media” (p. 105).

Media convergence shook up the way local television stations conduct the news, but in Huang and Heider’s (2007) study, there were signs of division between the news and digital departments. Station managers saw benefits to having the presence of MMJs in converged newsrooms, but Huang and Heider (2007) saw that there was a division, particularly between management and journalists, and the news and web departments.

The problems between management and journalists stemmed from managers wanting extra work without the extra pay and less time to perform all news duties. Huang and Heider (2007) suggested managers give journalists some financial incentives to do the extra work regardless of how costly it may be at first. They saw this as a way to prevent the station’s news product from going stale while increasing content. The division between the news and web departments derived from the lack of interaction and coordination. Huang and Heider (2007) concluded that in order for

newsroom convergence to survive the changes, members of the web department should sit in during meetings to feel included in the news process.

When Verweij (2009) studied newspaper companies, the author saw print newsrooms just beginning to converge with digital technology. The author's observations included converged newsrooms as being "more open to the public than relatively closed traditional newsrooms" (Verweij, 2009, p. 77), because they were accepting more public input in the form of photographs, comments, and feedback. Verweij (2009) saw print newsrooms handling breaking news similarly to television newsrooms by relying on individuals to upload photos and provide eyewitness information while news developed.

Technology is the key component in newsgathering and dissemination. A news crew is able to broadcast live in the event of breaking news because of technology. Since the 1970s and 1980s, microwave and satellite trucks brought the immediacy of a live event to viewers at home (Tuggle & Huffman, 1999; Tuggle & Huffman, 2001). By the late 1990s and early 2000s, the Internet gave viewers an eyewitness account from their desktop (Stempel, Hargrove, & Bernt, 2000).

Fast forward to the period 2010 to 2015, and the most recent research indicates the emergence of social media. This trend allows the news consumer to be a viewer from anywhere at any time, without waiting for (or missing) the 6pm newscast. Technology is the driving force for how news is gathered, delivered, and shared.

Summary

Research indicates that the evolution of television news has been on a rapid pace since its birth in 1948, and the more advanced the technology, the more it plays a role in this evolution. Technology has changed the way television journalists research, gather, and report the news. The news process has entered the digital age, involving the use of handheld devices such as the

smartphone and tablet. These devices have replaced the video camera and the desktop computer. With a downloaded app, the device provides a convenience for the television journalist. The latest news can be posted on the station's social media site as soon as details are available. In addition, apps provide editing capabilities, allowing the television journalist to shoot, edit, and write content without the collaboration of a photojournalist. News managers see this technology as a convenience, and may feel it necessary to separate the traditional news team for more coverage. As a result, news consumers do not have to wait for the evening news. The current technology allows them to watch from anywhere at any time, and social media is the innovation that gives consumers this convenience. They rely on these sites for news content, and to keep the cycle going, news managers require television journalists and photojournalists to remain active on social media to promote upcoming stories or for breaking news.

Technology has opened the doors for citizen journalists who want to participate in the news process. With a smartphone capable of capturing video, a citizen journalist can take the place of the traditional news team. Citizen journalists can create blogs, feed video, post photos, and provide eyewitness accounts of a natural disaster or civil war, especially in hard-to-reach foreign countries. Technology feeds into the station's urgency to be first when news breaks, but there are risks when citizen journalists participate. News producers and writers may need to do more fact checking and researching, unlike a trained television journalist and photojournalist who have checked their sources before a story is broadcast.

Together with social media and the ease of video equipment, technology has given way to the multimedia journalist. MMJs work independently, shooting, editing, writing, and reporting their own stories. Research indicates that they have also contributed to the breakup of the television journalist and photojournalist partnership, allowing for more news coverage.

Technology feeds into a station's urgency to be first with information, but the innovation has left many television journalists and photojournalists wondering about their future and the concern for content, quality, and accuracy.

Chapter Three—Methodology

Overall Approach and Rationale

The purpose of this study was to explore how television journalists and photojournalists handle the impact of social media on television news. From the perspective of the interviewees, this study explored how social media has transformed television news; its impact on the workload of television journalists, and whether the use of social media triggers concerns for the quality and accuracy of content.

This mixed methods study combined quantitative and qualitative methods to help statistically analyze results and uncover the phenomenon of how television journalists and photojournalists handle the impact of social media on television news. The mixed methodology was necessary in this study because both quantitative and qualitative research methods helped defined the research problem and answer the research questions (Creswell, 2012).

News is available through both traditional and social media. Television journalists and photojournalists who have worked in the industry prior to the age of social media are turning to Facebook and Twitter, posting their stories, and competing with other news outlets to be first with information before their competitors. Quantitative data collected from the instrument provided the researcher results on frequencies and trends (Creswell, 2012) in regards to social media use, while qualitative data gave another perspective of the results and explained the phenomenon (Merriam, 2009) of how journalists make sense of their evolving industry. Creswell (2012) states the mixed methods designs give studies a “more in-depth understanding” (p. 535).

Setting

Maxwell (2013) wrote that selecting a location to conduct research is “an essential part” (p, 96) of the research because the setting may provide information needed to answer questions.

In this study, a neutral setting helped eliminate potential bias. Therefore, interviews were held in a location that is most comfortable for the participants.

Participants were given the opportunity to respond freely to specific questions, and were not interviewed at a place of employment because sensitive questions regarding their age, level of income and education, and their feelings about work were asked. The interview location was the University of the Incarnate Word International Conference Center (ICC). Interviews were held in a closed conference room for privacy, located inside the ICC.

A video camera was set up in the room next to the interviewer, facing the participant to capture visual and audio cues during the interview. A voice recorder was placed on a table close to the participant to document a clear recording of the participant's interview. Careful and detailed notes were taken, especially observations of non-verbal cues.

Research Strategy

In this mixed methodology research study, steps were taken to establish meaning in the information from the participants and not generalize the results and responses (Creswell, 2012). A mixed methodology combining a quantitative survey instrument and qualitative semi-structured interviews formed the basis for data collection. The quantitative research portion of the strategy was appropriate because a survey of questions regarding the use of social media in the daily work routine of television journalists and photojournalists helped identify the extent to which participants have adopted social media as an innovation of their work practices. Quantitative data collection helps “produce results to assess the frequency and magnitude of trends” (Creswell, 2012, p. 535). Qualitative research was also appropriate for this study because there was a need to explore a *central phenomenon*, which is “the key concept, idea, or process studied in the prior literature

(Creswell, 2012, p. 16). It was noted by Creswell (2012) that qualitative research's intention is not to "generalize to a population, but to develop an in-depth exploration" (p. 206).

Participants. To achieve representation, participants were chosen by the researcher in a purposeful sampling (Creswell, 2012). This means participants were selected for their work experience, location, and job title. Six television journalists and four photojournalists from the southwestern United States metropolitan were "intentionally" (Creswell, 2012, p. 206) selected for the interview process. Selection criteria included years in the industry, network affiliation, employment role (for example, television journalist or photojournalist), and certain demographic characteristics (age, gender, ethnicity, level of education, income range, and employment status). The research term for this type of selection is called purposeful sampling, which allowed the researcher "to learn or understand the central phenomenon" (Creswell, 2012, p. 206).

Photojournalists were included in this study because they have been traditionally part of the reporter-photographer team that writes, shoots, edits, and reports live news. Based on previous research, social media has affected the role of the photojournalist by breaking up this traditional partnership and including the MMJ (multimedia journalist) in the newsroom (Perez & Cremadas, 2014). Participants chosen in this study had from six to more than twenty years of broadcast television experience in the areas of reporting, shooting, and editing. In addition to the typical news duties, each professional demonstrated the use of social media in their daily newsgathering and reporting activities.

Due to varied schedules, not all participants worked together regularly as a team, but may have worked on joint assignments in the past. Questioning both television journalists and photojournalists provided an understanding of how they handle social media's impact on journalism and if it triggered concerns for quality and accuracy of journalism.

Because the current industry's model includes multimedia journalists in the newsroom, the researcher maintained focus and approached the selection through purposeful sampling (Creswell, 2012) of only television journalists and photojournalists. The addition of MMJs would have steered the researcher outside the scope of study, and were not included.

Instrumentation. The instruments in this study were the Moore and Benbasat (1991) Diffusion of Innovations survey for the quantitative portion and the researcher for the qualitative portion. The survey responses provided quantitative information useful for establishing a baseline of social media adoption. According to Adornato (2014), Diffusion of Innovations theory serves as an explanation of how innovation can drive the evolution of journalism. Participants were asked to answer questions based on an instrument developed by Moore and Benbasat (1991), and modified with permission of the authors (Appendix A), that measures eight constructs related to adopting an innovation: voluntariness, relative advantage, compatibility, image, ease of use, result demonstrability, visibility, and trialability (Moore & Benbasat, 1991, p. 216). Additionally, questions about race, gender, level of income, and education were asked as background information to “assess the personal characteristics of individuals” in the study's sample (Creswell, 2012, p. 385).

Semi-structured, open-ended, one-on-one interviews were also conducted in this study. Maxwell (2013) suggested that a less structured interview helps the researcher concentrate on the “phenomenon being studied” (p. 88). This approach allowed the researcher to understand and discover “specific outcomes” (p. 88), while reducing the stress of too much data. Merriam (2009) explained the semi-structured interview as one that assumes the “individual respondents define the world in unique ways” (p. 90). A less structured interview helped the researcher explore the possibilities of new ideas (Merriam, 2009). In-depth answers from qualitative semi-structured

interviews (Creswell, 2012, p. 217) focused on the attitudes and concerns of television journalists and photojournalists in this study. Creswell (2012) stated that open-ended questions fit the qualitative research design portion because “participants can best voice their experiences” (p. 218) without any pressure from the researcher. It was important for participants to respond freely to questions in order for them to provide detailed information, while the researcher asked specific questions. Qualitative questions in this study focused on how television journalists handle changes in this industry, plus what attitudes and concerns they may have regarding technology and how technology assists in performing their duties at work.

To promote scheduling efficiency, a structured schedule was developed for the participants. They chose between two Saturdays to fit their schedule. An approximately one-hour session took place for each participant beginning at 9 o’clock in the morning on both Saturdays. Participants arrived on campus, completed a 15-minute survey, and then proceeded with the face-to-face 45-minute interview. Fifteen minutes between each session allowed for the researcher to monitor the audio and video recorder, escort the participant out of the conference room, take any needed breaks, and adjust for latecomers or early arrivals. Each timeslot allowed the participant ample time to complete the survey and the researcher to conduct a one-on-one interview. Five participants were scheduled for day one (Saturday) and five more for day two (Saturday). Interviews ended at 3pm on both Saturdays. A copy of a detailed schedule is included in Table 1.

Table 1

Data Collection Timetable

Day 1—SATURDAY	
TIME	PARTICIPANT
9:00 A.M.	Participant 1
10:15 A.M.	Participant 2
11:30 A.M.	Participant 3
12:45 P.M.	Participant 4
2:00 P.M.	Participant 5
Day 2—SATURDAY	
TIME	PARTICIPANT
9:00 A.M.	Participant 6
10:15 A.M.	Participant 7
11:30 A.M.	Participant 8
12:45 P.M.	Participant 9
2:00 P.M.	Participant 10

Audiovisual equipment was in place to record the interviews while careful, detailed notes were taken. Observational data contributed to the research (Creswell, 2012), and is considered “open-ended, firsthand information” (p. 213). Observations included notes about non-verbal cues. In addition, taped recordings of the interviews were collected, transcribed, and analyzed to help understand the phenomenon of social media’s impact on television news.

Data collection. To collect thick rich data for this research, Creswell’s (2012) five steps to qualitative data collection indicated in Chapter 7 were performed (p. 205).

Step one: For the purposes of this study, participants were identified by intentionally selecting six television journalists and four photojournalists using purposeful sampling (Creswell, 2012). Participants in this study were selected based on the following criteria: at least five to 10 years of broadcast television experience in the areas of reporting, shooting, and editing. Each professional demonstrated the use of social media in their daily newsgathering and reporting.

Step two: Gain access to individuals. The individuals selected for inclusion in the study were invited to participate via email and telephone. Once participants accepted the invitation to participate, the researcher provided alternative dates and times for data collection, which took place in a university conference room setting to provide confidentiality and comfort for the participants.

Step three: Data collection consisted of two phases. After the signing the informed consent, the participants were asked to complete the quantitative survey, which took no more than 15 minutes. Upon completion of the survey, a 45-minute semi-structured interview was conducted (audio and video-recorded). Although the questions followed a predetermined script, participants had the opportunity to respond without restrictions.

Step four: The quantitative portion of this mixed method study involved the use of an instrument which combined a series of demographic questions with Moore and Benbasat's (1991) Diffusion of Innovations theory instrument modified to address the use of social media rather than personal work stations (PWS). Permission was obtained from the authors to use and modify the survey (Appendix A). The demographic portion of the survey included questions about age, gender, ethnicity, level of education, income range, employment status, employment role, years in the industry, and network affiliation. The Diffusion of Innovations instrument contained 44 questions, divided into eight sections, representing each construct. Each section contained a series of statements to which participants responded using a Likert-type scale, ranging from strongly disagrees to strongly agree. A copy of the modified survey is attached as Appendix C.

The semi-structured, one-on-one interview with open-ended questions included a video and audio recording of all participants. Careful notes were taken during each interview, as

recommended by Creswell (2012). Audiovisual equipment was used to record the interviews. Careful and detailed notes of the participants were also taken through observations, which included verbal and non-verbal cues.

Dragon Naturally Speaking was used to convert interviews into text and as a backup transcription during the interview process. Participants were asked the following questions that pertain to how they handle the impact of social media on television news:

1. How do you think social media has changed the way you gather and disseminate news and information?
2. How has social media affected your daily workload?
3. How has social media influenced news management to be first on the scene?
4. How has social media affected the content of your work?
5. What are your concerns about the use of social media and the pressure for accuracy and quality in your work?

Step five: Protecting the identities of the participants and ensuring anonymity of responses was given the highest priority in this study due to the highly public profile of both television journalists and photojournalists. No names are included in the research results, and upon successful completion of the doctoral degree, all audio and video recordings will be destroyed. No quantitative data collection contained any identifying information, and steps were taken to password protect all electronic information.

Protection of Human Subjects: Ethical Considerations

Prior to the research study being implemented, approval was obtained from the University of the Incarnate Word Institutional Review Board. This researcher is certified through CITI Training, and carefully followed the guidelines of 45 CFR 46 from the US Department of

Health and Human Services. Confidentiality was protected throughout the research. An informed consent stating participation was strictly voluntary was included in data collection. Participants were not identified by name or by demographic data collected.

Participation in this study was strictly voluntary and each participant was asked to sign a consent form prior to participation. The form included an explanation of the purpose and benefits of the study and the role and time commitment of the participants. Individuals had the opportunity to ask questions to assure their understanding of the information. Participants were assured that their decision to participate or not in this study would not affect their professional status. Complete anonymity was maintained. Names do not appear in any data collected, and participants cannot be identified from what demographic data was collected. The interview was conducted with audiovisual equipment present. Only the researcher analyzed all taped information from the interviews. The researcher was the only one who had access to the tapes and after the completion of the study all tapes will be destroyed. If this study is published, only group data will be used. There were no physical risks or expense related to participating in this study. Completing the survey or interview was not stressful to the participants, and the participants were free to stop taking part in the study at any time.

Data Analysis

Once data were collected from the survey and interview, analysis and interpretation of the data began. Creswell (2012) suggested the researcher take specific steps for both quantitative and qualitative data analysis to make “sense of the information supplied by the individuals” (p. 10). Data analysis for both research methods helped the researcher draw conclusions, summarize the findings, explain the research problem, and answer the research questions (Creswell, 2012).

According to Creswell (2012), data analysis in quantitative research involves using statistics. For every question answered by participants, the results were broken down into parts that answer the research question. Statistical analysis compares groups, addresses the research problem, and explains whether the results “support or refute the expected predictions of the study” (p. 15). Quantitative data gave numerical support to qualitative data.

In quantitative research, the first step to data analysis is preparing the data by assigning a numeric score to each response (Creswell, 2012, p. 201). A software package known as SPSS, or Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Vogt, 2005), was used for statistical analysis and was conducted in this study to assign scores and organize the data in a codebook. Next, the researcher conducted “analysis using statistics that report both descriptive and inferential results” (p. 201). Creswell (2012) suggested reporting the results through tables and figures, plus including a discussion that details the results in reference to the statistical findings, which can be found in Chapter Four.

The final step in quantitative data analysis was the interpretation of the results. This was where the study included summarized explanations of the perception of using social media in television news. This portion of analysis provided insight to predictions and supported the Diffusion of Innovations theory (Creswell, 2012).

In qualitative research, Creswell (2012) named the steps used for this particular part of analysis as follows: prepare and organize data; explore and code data; code to build description and themes; represent and report qualitative findings; interpret the findings; and validate the accuracy of the findings. Microsoft Word was helpful in storing, organizing, and enabling data, then assigning labels or codes (Creswell, 2012). Codes built descriptions and themes necessary for the researcher to group findings (Merriam, 2009).

Creswell (2012) described coding as a way to understand and divide the data while labeling with codes. Coding allows the researcher to find overlapping themes and redundancy and develop a way to reduce the collected data into themes.

Just as participants were asked about concerns regarding accuracy in television journalism, it was paramount for accuracy and credibility to be taken seriously throughout this research. Merriam (2009) listed strategies that assisted in promoting validity and reliability. Among those strategies, triangulation, peer review/examination, and rich, thick descriptions (p. 229) were used to ensure trustworthiness in this study.

Triangulation is the strategy that uses “multiple investigators, sources of data, or data collection methods” (Merriam, 2009, p. 229). Creswell (2012) says triangulation is a process of confirming evidence from different individuals, types of data, and methods of collection, influencing the researcher to produce an accurate and credible report (p. 259).

Peer review and examination involves discussing the raw data with a colleague and help in evaluating the findings (Merriam, 2009). In this study, advice from the committee chair and members was sought. Another strategy was providing rich, thick descriptions. Merriam (2009) suggested qualitative researchers give “enough description to contextualize the study” (p. 229). This strategy helped promote validity and reliability because it painted a vivid picture for readers to imagine themselves in the described situation. Participants in this study were asked to review and verify the transcribed interviews prior to thematic coding by the researcher.

Chapter Four—Results

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore (a) the extent to which television journalists and photojournalists have adopted the innovation of social media into their activities collecting and reporting television news, and (b) how television journalists and photojournalists feel about the use of social media in collecting and reporting television news.

A mixed methodology of quantitative and qualitative approaches produced data from a survey (quantitative method) and one-on-one interviews (qualitative method). Results from both methods and a summary of those results are presented in this chapter, followed by an interpretation of the results in Chapter Five for discussion, conclusions, recommendations, and final reflections.

From the perspective of the interviewees, this study was to explore the extent to which social media has been adopted, how social media has transformed television news, its impact on the workload of television journalists, and if the use of social media triggered concerns for the quality and accuracy of content. A purposeful sampling was conducted to choose participants according to their work experience, location, and current job title.

The initial plan was to choose five television journalists and five photojournalists from a medium-sized television market in the southwestern United States. Instead, work schedules and availability prompted a selection of six television journalists and four photojournalists. A 100% response rate was achieved. Participants were selected intentionally for their years of broadcast television experience in the areas of reporting, shooting, and editing. In addition to their typical news duties, each professional demonstrated the use of social media in their daily newsgathering and disseminating.

Quantitative Method

Television journalists and photojournalists who participated in this study completed a survey modeled after an instrument developed by Moore and Benbasat (1991). The goal was to analyze how participants handled social media's integration and its impact on television news, by referring to the following quantitative research question:

- To what extent have television journalists and photojournalists adopted social media into their work practices?

The Likert-type scale survey measured levels of agreement---strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, and strongly disagree. A 100% response rate was accomplished. Participants answered every question regarding the following categories: voluntariness, relative advantage, compatibility, image, ease of use, results demonstrability, visibility, and trialability. An analysis of the results uncovered the demographics of the sample and revealed findings regarding the ancillary quantitative research questions posed in Chapter One.

Demographic characteristics of the study participants. Participants were asked about demographic characteristics that include age, gender, ethnicity, level of education, income range, employment status, employment role, years in the industry, and network affiliation. In this study, participants consist of six (6) television journalists and four (4) photojournalists. Seven (7) were male and three (3) were female. Figure 3 shows the age range of participants as 31 to 55 years old.

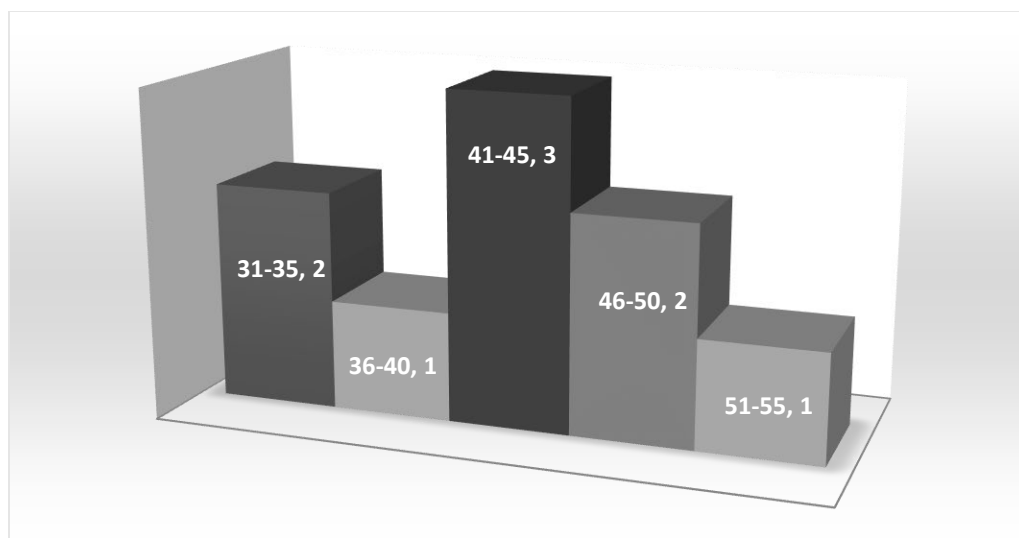


Figure 3. Age of participants.

Figure 4 illustrates the diversity of the participants. Three (3) identified as White/Non-Hispanic, another three (3) were Black/Non-Hispanic, and two (2) claimed Asian/Pacific Islander. One (1) identified as Hispanic/Latino, and another participant indicated mixed race or other.

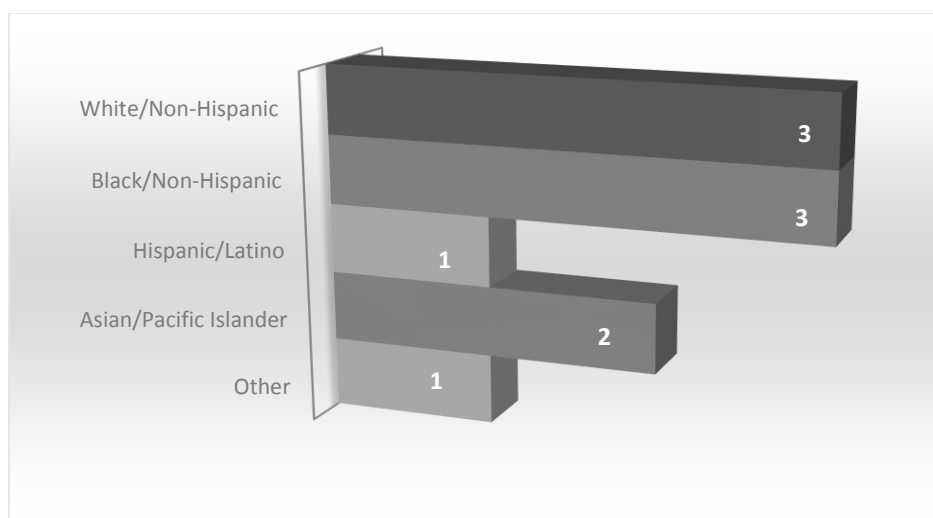


Figure 4. Ethnicity of participants.

The participants were college-educated. With the exception of one missing response, six (6) received their bachelor's degree and two (2) received their associates degree. Six (6) participants indicated a salary between \$50,001 and \$75,000. Two (2) indicated they made up to

\$50,000, and one (1) participant stated earning an income of \$75,000. One did not respond to this item. These findings are demonstrated in Figures 5 and 6.

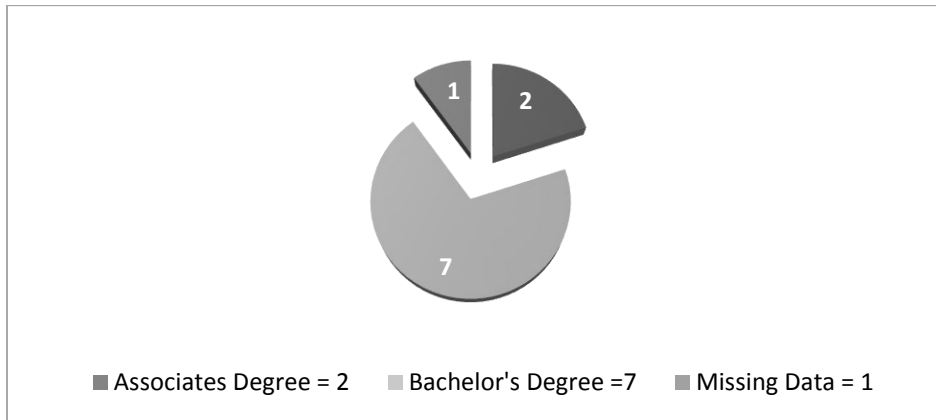


Figure 5. Participants' level of education.

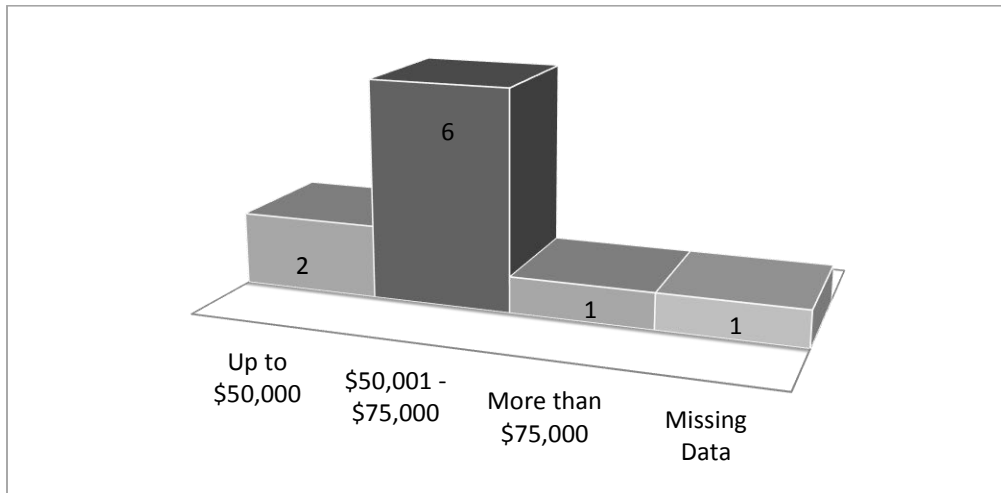


Figure 6. Participants' income range.

All of the study participants were full-time employees. They came with a range of years of experience in the industry (Figure 7). Four (4) participants worked in the industry for more than 20 years, one (1) participant for 16-20 years, two (2) for 11-15 years, and two (2) for 6-10 years. One participant did not respond to this question.

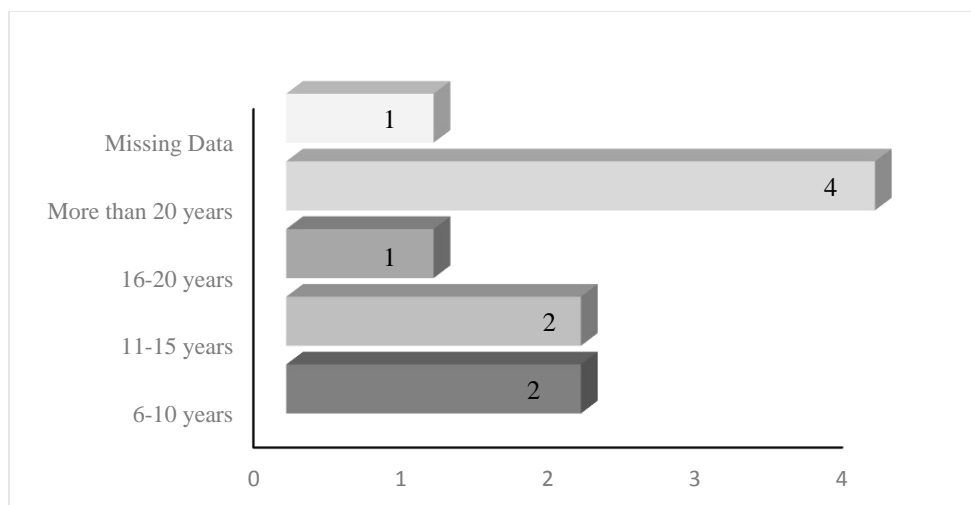


Figure 7. Participants' years in the industry.

Eight (8) of the participants were employed at a CBS affiliate. Two (2) individuals came from unique situations. One (1) worked at a duo affiliate (Fox and NBC) and could be seen reporting for both stations, and the other individual worked for the Spanish-language television affiliate, Univision. Figure 8 breaks down the network affiliations of the participants.

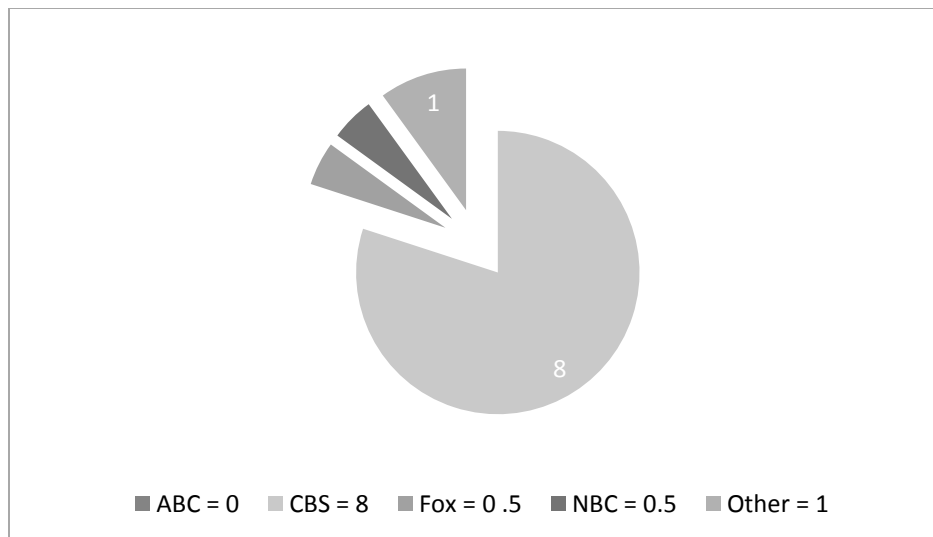


Figure 8. Participants' network affiliation.

To what extent do participants agree their use of social media is voluntary? The Moore and Benbasat (1991) instrument included four measurement questions related to voluntariness. The questions and percentage of responses are indicated in Table 2.

Table 2

Voluntariness

	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Agree or</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree or</u> <u>Strongly</u> <u>Disagree</u>
My superiors expect me to use social media.	100%	
My use of social media is voluntary.		80%
My boss does not require me to use social media.		90%
Although it might be helpful, using social media is certainly not compulsory in my job.		70%

When asked about the use of social media as voluntary, not required by their bosses, or that social media is not compulsory in their jobs, a strong majority of participants disagreed. All participants agreed management expected them to use social media at work.

To what extent do participants agree social media creates a relative advantage? The Moore and Benbasat (1991) instrument included four measurement questions related to relative advantage. The questions and percentage of responses are indicated in Table 3.

Table 3

Relative Advantage

	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Agree or</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u> <u>or</u> <u>Strongly</u> <u>Disagree</u>	<u>Neither</u> <u>Agree</u> <u>nor</u> <u>Disagree</u>
Using social media enables me to accomplish tasks more quickly.	40%	40%	
Using social media improves the quality of work I do.	50%		
Using social media makes it easier to do my job.		40%	
The <i>disadvantages</i> of my using social media far outweigh the advantages.		90%	
Using social media improves my job performance.	40%		
Overall, I find using social media to be advantageous in my job.	70%		
Using social media enhances my effectiveness on the job.	70%		
Using social media gives me greater control over my work.			60%
Using social media increases my productivity.	70%		

Participants agreed the use of social media improved the quality of the work performed, improved their job performance to be advantageous in their job enhanced their effectiveness on the job, and increased their productivity. Some disagreed that social media made their job easier. They also disagreed that the disadvantages outweighed the advantages. Participants were split when asked if the use of social media enabled them to accomplish tasks more quickly, and they indicated neither agree nor disagree if social media gave them control over their work.

To what extent do participants agree social media is compatible with their work?

The Moore and Benbasat (1991) instrument included four measurement questions related to compatibility. The questions and percentage of responses are indicated in Table 4.

Table 4

Compatibility

	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Agree or</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u> <u>or</u> <u>Strongly</u> <u>Disagree</u>
Using social media is compatible with all aspects of my work.	40%	40%
Using social media is completely compatible with my current situation.	80%	
I think that using social media fits well with the way I like to work.	70%	
Using social media fits into my work style.	70%	

When asked if using social media was compatible with all aspects of their work, participants were split between agree and disagree. The majority of television journalists and photojournalists agreed using social media was completely compatible with their current situation. It fit well with the way they like to work and their work style.

To what extent do participants agree social media improves their image? The Moore and Benbasat (1991) instrument included four measurement questions related to image. The questions and percentage of responses are indicated in Table 5.

Table 5

Image

	<u>Strong Agree</u> <u>or Agree</u>
Using social media improves my image within the organization.	90%
Because of my use of social media, others in my organization see me as a more valuable employee.	80%
People in my organization who use social media have more prestige than those who don't.	50%
People in my organization who use social media have a high profile.	70%
Having social media is a status symbol in my organization.	50%

The majority of participants all agreed social media improved their image within the organization. The majority also agreed using social media added value to their image, increased their levels of prestige, profile, and status at work.

To what extent do participants agree social media is easy to use? The Moore and Benbasat (1991) instrument included four measurement questions related to ease of use. The questions and percentage of responses are indicated in Table 6.

Table 6

Ease of use

	<u>Strong</u> <u>Agree or</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u> <u>or</u> <u>Strongly</u> <u>Disagree</u>
I believe that social media is cumbersome to use.		50%
It is easy for me to remember how to perform tasks using social media.	60%	
My using social media requires a lot of mental effort.		50%
Using social media is often frustrating.		60%
My interaction with social media is clear and understandable.	90%	
I believe that it is easy to get social media to do what I want it to do.	50%	
Overall, I believe that social media is easy to use.	100%	
Learning to operate social media is easy for me.	90%	

Results showed social media was not cumbersome to use, nor did it require a lot of mental effort for the participants. Participants disagreed social media was frustrating to use. A majority of them agreed they could remember how to perform tasks, its use was clear and understandable, they could get it to do what they wanted it to do, and it was easy to learn how to operate. Overall, participants believed that social media was easy to use.

To what extent do participants agree they can demonstrate results using social media? The Moore and Benbasat (1991) instrument included four measurement questions related to results demonstrability. The questions and percentage of responses are indicated in Table 7.

Table 7

Results Demonstrability

	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>
I would have no difficulty telling others about the results of using social media.	80%	
I believe I could communicate to others the consequences of using social media	80%	
The results of using social media are apparent to me.	100%	
I would have difficulty explaining why using social media may or may not be beneficial.		60%

Participants agreed they would have no difficulty telling others about the results of using social media, and they could communicate to others the consequences of using social media. All agreed the results of using social media were apparent to them; however they disagreed that they would have difficulty explaining why social media may or may not be beneficial.

To what extent do participants agree social media is visible in their industry? The Moore and Benbasat (1991) instrument included four measurement questions related to visibility. The questions and percentage of responses are indicated in Table 8.

Table 8

Visibility

	<u>Strong Agree or Agree</u>	<u>Disagree or Strongly Disagree</u>
I have seen what others do using social media.	100%	
In my organization, one sees social media on many desks.	90%	
I have seen social media in use outside my firm.	100%	
Social media are not very visible in my organization.		80%
It is easy for me to observe others using social media in my firm.	100%	

When asked if they have seen what others do using social media, if it was visible inside or outside of work, and if they have seen others at work use social media, participants all agreed on the innovation's high visibility. Participants disagreed when asked if social media was not very visible at work.

To what extent do participants agree they have opportunities to try various forms of social media in their work? The Moore and Benbasat (1991) instrument included four measurement questions related to trialability. The questions and percentage of responses are indicated in Table 9.

Table 9

Trialability

	<u>Agree</u>
I have had a great deal of opportunity to try various social media applications.	90%
I know where I can go to satisfactorily try out various uses of social media.	90%
Social media was available to me to adequately test run various applications.	60%
Before deciding whether to use any social media applications, I was able to properly try them out.	40%
I was permitted to use social media on a trial basis long enough to see what it could do.	40%

Participants agreed they were given a great deal of opportunity to try various social media applications. They agreed they knew where to go to try various uses. Participants also agreed social media was available for them to experiment with different applications for a test run. They agreed they had the ability to experiment with social media applications long enough to see what it could do and if they could use it.

Qualitative Results

As stated previously, participants were video and audio recorded during the interview sessions, and many of the participants asked about personal appearance (clothing for the interview). Because of the nature of the industry, news professionals understand the importance of their on-camera presence. Female television journalists were relieved when informed they did not need to worry about makeup. Of the two photojournalists who inquired about appropriate attire, one of them proudly wore a tie.

None of the participants displayed any signs of discomfort during the interviews. Throughout their careers, they have been both in front of and behind a video camera. All participants appeared relaxed, comfortably answering the semi-structured qualitative questions. No one in this study displayed any uneasiness or asked to leave during the interview.

How do television journalists and photojournalists feel about the use of social media in collecting and reporting television news? The interviews were conducted on the campus of the University of the Incarnate Word inside the International Conference Center on two Saturdays, February 21 and February 28, 2016. During both days, the interviews started at 9:00 a.m. and ended at 3:00 p.m. The six television journalists and four photojournalists were asked a total of five research questions to address how they perceived social media's transformation of television news, how social media has affected their workload, and what their concerns were about content, quality, and accuracy when using social media to deliver news.

The five interview questions were asked in the following order.

1. How do you think social media has changed the way you gather and disseminate news and information?
2. How has social media affected your daily workload?
3. How has social media influenced news management to be first on the scene?
4. How has social media affected the content of your work?
5. What are your concerns about the use of social media and the pressure for accuracy and quality in your work?

Follow-up questions were asked, but only for clarification. Questions such as *what do you mean?* *Alternatively, can you expand on that?* were asked. Initially, the one-on-one interviews were expected to run 45 minutes. Instead, the interviews ranged from seven to 30

minutes. To maintain confidential information, each participant was assigned an abbreviated title and a number. For example, television journalists were labeled TVJ and a number, and photojournalists were labeled PJ and a number.

Participants gave thoughtful and descriptive responses on how they felt about the use of social media in their daily work routine. They addressed issues of balancing time, meeting expectations, and the stress of an increased workload.

Trustworthiness, dependability, and credibility. A researcher's trust must be established and maintained throughout a study. Participants were reminded that any personal information mentioned in the survey and one-on-one interview would not identify them and would remain confidential. Before, during, and after the study was conducted, they were guaranteed neither their image nor employment information would not be released. Participants were reassured that information captured on video camera, voice recorder, and transcription software during one-on-one interviews would not reveal their identities and that data collected would be kept in a safe place.

In order to demonstrate dependability, a process of triangulation was established. Mathison (1988) stated that triangulation improves research practices and aids in eliminating bias (p. 13). A researcher may triangulate by using the following methods: data triangulation, investigator triangulation, and methodological triangulation (Mathison, 1988). In this study, data triangulation was used by referring to "several data sources" (p. 14). Ten participants were interviewed and an exhaustive literature review conducted to collect as many sources of data as possible. Mathison (1988) added that a researcher must take into consideration "time and space" (p. 14) to test the phenomenon in different conditions. Though interviews were conducted in the same room, participants were asked to choose between two Saturdays, between the hours 9:00

a.m. to 3:00 p.m., and the interviews were both audio and video recorded. There was a mix of television journalists and photojournalists for both days, and 15 minutes between each session to avoid any uncomfortable run-ins.

Credibility was established through the triangulation strategies which Mathison (1988) refers to as convergence, inconsistency, and contradictory (1988). Convergence is the outcome “when data from different sources or collected from different methods agree” (p. 15). This strategy was achieved by analyzing collected data from both quantitative and qualitative methods. Most of the responses from the survey agreed with responses from the one-on-one interviews.

Inconsistency is when “data obtained through triangulation may be inconsistent” (p. 16), and contradictory is when “data are not simply inconsistent but are actually contradictory” (p. 16) and lacks a basis of comparison. Steps to avoid inconsistency and contradiction involved asking participants to read transcripts of their interviews, include comments or feedback, and verify and confirm their responses represented them accurately. These steps eliminated researcher biases and assumptions. A verification of participants’ statements would assist in validating data collected. All of the participants confirmed the accuracy of the transcriptions.

The following ancillary research questions mentioned in Chapter One guided the qualitative portion, along with a summary of the interviews. Comments were edited for grammar and clarity.

How do television journalists and photojournalists perceive social media has transformed television news? Themes explaining the perception of social media in television news emerged in the areas of resource and convenience, speed of information, audience connection and engagement, branding and promoting, and urgency to be first.

Resource and convenience. Television journalists were the most responsive regarding the resource and convenience of social media in transforming television news. TVJ1 agreed that “it is easier to find someone, to find photos because we have Facebook” (2016). Social media was applauded for its vast reach. This helped explain why most participants agreed in the quantitative survey that social media had a relative advantage to their work.

Story ideas have developed through social media. It has been a resource for interviews and references, according to one television journalist. TVJ3 said, “I’ve gotten many good stories, not from email, not from phone calls, not from snail mail, not from conversations, from social media from direct message, from a Facebook message” (2016).

The convenience of finding photos or information about subjects on social media was an indication that the innovation provided instantaneous online sources right at their fingertips. One participant gave the following response when asked how social media has changed the gathering and disseminating of news and information:

I think it has changed the way I gather a lot because it is a source of story ideas which was not necessarily the case before it became really big. I pick up stories off of tweets. I pick them off of Facebook. Maybe they will Facebook instead of emailing us; we are starting to get messages from viewers and tips. Disseminating... it has changed our workflow a lot, the sense of... we are supposed to head straight to social media to get new information out. (TVJ4)

Sharing stories with their audience and having hundreds of followers respond added knowledge to a story according to another television journalist who gave this response:

As far as gathering news, it helps sometimes in that, the people who respond may have some knowledge about the story. There may be some people who give you tips across social media because it is easier. It is easier for them to send that to you and sometimes people feel more relaxed in doing so. (TVJ5)

Speed of information. Reaching out to their audience meant reaching out through social media. TVJ4 stated that “tens of thousands of people following us on Twitter will be the first to

know because we did get it out there first” (2016). Additionally, the speed of information delivered to viewers made an impression on participants, especially TVJ2 who said, “it has sped up 10-fold over” (2016). One photojournalist stated that “it is sort of a double-edged sword, but overall a good thing because it allows us in the news to get the word out faster than it used to be” (PJ4).

Information from the field to the newsroom no longer required any lag time. One television journalist gave this response about how social media cut down the process of sending information back to the newsroom:

So I do not think it has made the job easier. I think it has streamlined it in some regards. There is not this long process to get footage back to the station, on to an editor, and then export it, and then online. You can do that through your phone. (TVJ2)

Participants also indicated the pace of information goes both ways. Not only does news get to viewers faster, but PJ2 revealed that comments from viewers are just as quick, making feedback “instantaneous” (2016). When television journalists go live from Facebook, they have an unlimited amount of time to report. This puts information right in front of viewers. TVJ 5 indicated that the immediacy opened up channels for people to respond and “feel like they are there” (2016). TVJ continued, “You can give them access” (2016). Both television journalists and photojournalists agreed the innovation allowed them to be more immediate.

Audience connection and engagement. Participants responded positively about social media’s connection to their audience. When asked how social media has affected gathering and disseminating news and information, one television journalist admitted to being born a Millennial and responded with the following:

It has broken down the barrier of being disconnected if that makes any sense. I think it makes me more connected to the audience and vice versa. I guess you could say that I am a stereotypical Millennial and I always have to check my Facebook, always have to check Twitter. (TVJ3)

Journalists have also found a way to use the digital platform to connect with their followers by engaging them and involving them in the news process. One television journalist felt comfortable interacting with followers regardless of the nature of the comments and encouraged audience engagement.

I was always taught to engage people on Facebook. If you reach out to me, I will message you back. Twitter same thing. If you send me a notification, or mention me in a tweet, I will respond... because that is what social media is... you are interacting with people both positive and negative. Not everybody is going to like the story that you are doing or the way you tell the story. (TVJ2)

The use of social media allowed PJ1 to “reconnect with family, friends, folks, work, co-workers” (2016). The photojournalist said immediate feedback from people outside the viewing market was a favorite because the connection was not just local, but “it is people nationwide, so you’re feeling more connected to them” (2016).

Social media highlighted the personal side of these professionals who gave followers more of their thoughts and feelings about the stories they covered. One participant confirmed that the use of Facebook created the opportunity to reach out, share their personal views with their audience.

I may talk about... there is a story that really bothered me. I may talk about it with my viewers on Facebook, telling them that this story really bothered me. You know you really did not hear that from a journalist before. We still have to be as objective as possible, but you are hearing more about that I thought when I was there. (TVJ1)

Viewers want to feel connected to their favorite personalities by knowing more about their personal lives. A spike in viewer likes and comments were noticeable when one television journalist posted a personal picture versus a news story on Facebook.

It is funny though because social media, I think, especially people on TV, is a way for people to look at you as a human and you get to show your personal side a little more. So, content-wise you do notice that, okay I posted something about a news story, and I got three likes! Or I post a video, or at the desk, or I do something personal with my family

coming to town and people eat that up because all of a sudden it is like, oh my god, she is just like us. She is not that far away. She has a sister. She has parents. She is celebrating Thanksgiving. So it is a way to maybe be a little bit lighter than usual in that sense. (TVJ4).

Branding and promoting. When asked how social media changed the way they gathered and disseminated news and information, responses were overwhelmingly positive because the dissemination of news was associated to branding and promoting one's on-air product.

I can get that feedback immediately from viewers who want to know if there's traffic-related or fire in their neighborhood. How does it affect me getting around? And I have these constant interactions with people, then I can update immediately even before the story airs in the evening (TVJ6).

The immediacy of posting information, then driving followers to the station website and television newscasts was expressed as being beneficial in a currently competitive market. One photojournalist gave this response:

You can direct people to your website through social media. I think it is overall a good thing, which is not what you would expect for somebody in my generation and my age, experience, and all that. But I think it is a good thing because it pushes traffic to our website, and it pushes traffic to... Tune in later at four, or five, or six, or whenever. (PJ4)

One television journalist recalled the benefits of properly promoting a story on social media resulted in a ratings boost.

We are reaching a lot more people on social media, and we are reaching them ahead of our newscasts. And I have seen time, and time again, data that shows you promo your stories the right away and you boost your numbers on TV because you pushed it on Facebook. (TVJ4)

Facebook and Twitter provided platforms for participants who could not only promote their stories and the station's brand, but also themselves. Participants agreed that social media increased their image, their status, and their value as an employee.

I am a video photographer by trade and social media... I have become, not more of a still photographer, but I take still photos and tweet them... and that is kind of cool because it all started years and years ago when I got out of school. (PJ4)

Urgency to be first. When asked how social media has influenced news management to be first on the scene, journalists stressed there is a different mindset to breaking news. For TVJ4, being first with information meant “breaking it online” (2016). Before social media, news crews provided a live cut-in from the scene, or taped a news update to promote their story. TVJ5 mentioned that management implemented a formula to follow, “you go to Twitter, website, Facebook, and then television” (2016).

Because breaking news is the essence of television news, the urgency to be first on the scene and report information came down to revenue for a television journalist who responded from a business perspective.

It does go down to money, dollars. So it is important to them, to make sure, that you get it first. And, so they want you to jump out... ready to go... putting up a picture... or tweeting this is what it looks like right now, where we are... so I think it's uber important in the news industry to get it first (TVJ6).

Participants agreed that social media is compatible with their work especially in the reporting of breaking news. Once accurate information is collected, journalists can report breaking news online first via social media then on television. News consumers do not have to wait to be in front of a television, the news is readily available and can be shared within their network. Social media intensified the urgency to be first. The days of saving a story for a newscast are gone.

I can remember the day that you did not reveal what your story was. You hid your story until that promo came out in the afternoon to promote your story, and then you're still holding on to your story, until you got a chance to break it on the 5pm news. That is not the case anymore. Management pushes you to... as soon as you know... as soon as it is verified, as soon as it is accurate, you put it out there. (TVJ5).

How has the use of social media affected television journalists and photojournalists' workload? The three themes, which evolved from this area, included multiple roles, balancing time, and meeting deadlines, and credibility concerns.

Multiple roles. Participants confirmed that it is common for television journalists to take on multiple roles. When asked how social media has affected their workload, TVJ4 mentioned “we’re no longer just reporters... we’re no longer just photographers. We’re doing it all” (2016). An example of multiple roles by one television journalist describes a typical day.

If we are at a press conference now they want us to use our verified accounts to do Facebook mentions so you can do live video. Basically, a live shot through your phone. So that is difficult to do sometimes you know... I shoot a lot of my own stuff now except in confrontational situations, so I am now controlling the camera, listening to the audio through headsets, and I am also supposed to broadcast it live through Facebook and tweeting about it. (TVJ2)

Because social media enabled television journalists to execute stories digitally, the innovation leaves photojournalists out of the traditional partnership. A new business model has emerged from social media. It is the MMJ, or multimedia journalist, who shoots, edits, reports, and posts stories on the web and social media. This new business model left one photojournalist concerned.

And the disadvantage to that is there are two people out there that is a shooter and a reporter, the amount of time it takes them to write, edit, and feed, takes a certain amount of time. If you take that crew and cut it down to one, the time does not compress. It doubles. So if you would take two people an hour and half to do something, it is now going to take one person three hours. Social media wants you to do something else which is in a sense, like a freebie, you are giving basically work to the Internet or dot.com in this case. However, you do not get to charge them for it. (PJ1)

Some photojournalists in this study handled multiple roles. Duties were not limited to shooting video for broadcast. Photojournalists were gathering images for digital media.

There is pressure to provide the content... hey you have to be tweeting. I mean, I heard that a hundred times. Make sure you post that stuff to Facebook when you get out there. I am like... really? I thought I was just supposed to go and report this; get the story and shoot the pictures. No, no, no. We need some stuff for the web. We have to post that to the web. You guys make sure before you leave. Get your stuff posted to the web. So there’s pressure added to us just because of the way that the market and the world is changing. (PJ3)

Balancing time and meeting deadlines. Participants revealed that social media apps included in the workload continue to add up. TVJ3 explained, “in the beginning it was just Facebook and Twitter. Now it is Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, Snapchat, and Periscope. So it adds to the workload, but it can be stressful” (2016). The stress of having to meet deadlines comes with some consequences. After being asked about concerns for the use of social media and the pressure for accuracy and quality, it was revealed that sometimes one task was let go to fulfill another one. That was the case for TVJ1 who responded, “I’ll wait until afterwards. I’ll start sending out the pictures, the video, but I will stick to the television part of it first” (2016).

It has been a balancing act for news professionals who handle both social media and television news. Participants have to do extra work while given the same amount of time and compensation. Though they agreed that social media is compatible with the work, they neither agreed nor disagreed it gave them greater control over their work.

It increases the workload because not only do you have to worry about gathering the details of a story accurately, and paying attention such as if you are covering city government, which I do a lot... City Council... you have to pay attention to what everyone has to say. But at the same time you need to post immediately that this is a hot button issue. (TVJ6)

TVJ3 described the work as “overwhelming” (2016), often taking a toll on one’s daily routine.

So we are kind of at that point where we have all these capabilities through social media to live tweet something, send pictures from the scene, and do a light press conference on Twitter, Periscope on Facebook, with the mentions app. You just physically cannot do all of it. (TVJ3)

Credibility concerns. Credibility in a source or a story idea worried one photojournalist who said assigned stories found on social media are commonly unconfirmed. PJ2 was concerned about “the temptation to get carried away by that instantaneous feedback has outweighed

whether or not we need to go cover it” (2016). Unconfirmed information found on social media influenced some decisions in the newsroom.

It has influenced a decision on whether or not priorities of a story should be priorities taken. Should that story be covered because we got a tweet of it and it did not look like anything but it sounded like something else on paper? It has influenced how we prioritize what we cover. (PJ2)

Online sources like tweets or blogs by amateur or citizen journalists concerned a photojournalist who gave this response:

It makes us jump to conclusions about things that we do not really know. I mean because someone will tweet about something, the world’s coming to an end, because this person says the world’s coming to an end... and everyone reacts to that without the correct information. (PJ3)

In order to maintain one’s credibility, there was the overall belief among participants that “it’s better to be second and right, than first and wrong” (PJ4). Another response supported that belief with “as soon as we’re comfortable with the information we’ve received enough to put it in a story, we put it out there” (TVJ2).

While participants agreed social media enhanced effectiveness on the job, it has also forced them to do extensive fact checking with information received from online sources. Participants understood the risks of relying on tweets and Facebook posts without confirmation, but blogs by non-professional journalists and video received from viewers meant more work for journalists. A participant who has worked in the business for more than 20 years remembered what it meant to verify information before social media.

When I first started in this business, it was you better check and recheck. You had better have three sources to everything. If she said it, then you had better accurately tell his side of the story. You have to accurately represent both of those. (PJ3)

When asked about social media regarding the category results demonstrability, participants agreed they could communicate the consequences and explain that the use of social

media may or may not be beneficial. This was related to how unverified online sources can hurt one's credibility.

What are television journalists and photojournalists' concerns about the content, quality, and accuracy of television news when social media is the source of said news? The three themes that surfaced from this section included the need to be accurate, concerns for quality storytelling, and the future of television news.

The need to be accurate. When asked about the use of social media and their concerns about the pressure for accuracy and quality in their work, there was a collective concern for accuracy among the participants. They have heard many times about fellow journalists making on-air mistakes. One participant gave this explanation:

My fear has always been putting my foot in my mouth and saying something that is going to get me in trouble. You see it play out at stations all the time. You read about this reporter was suspended after doing this or that on Twitter, or Facebook post from an anchor goes viral, questions the validity of what they're saying. So because of that I am always very careful. (TVJ2)

Issues related to capturing images from online sources also emerged from one photojournalist who lost trust in video found on the Internet:

Have I ever gone to Facebook and taken a picture and said, "We're putting this on the news?" No, I have never done that because you do not know what the picture is. I do not believe anything I see. (PJ1)

Maintaining credibility means understanding the need for accuracy. Television journalists stressed the need for a feeling of comfort before releasing information, "it's usually as soon as we're comfortable with information we've received enough to put it in a story, we put it out there (TVJ2). Turning to online sources, bloggers, and tweets forced participants to pause for accuracy.

...and that kind of thing because now we find ourselves reporting hearsay. And that is not why we got in this business to do. You know, we got in this business to tell people what

happened accurately... because you got it from a tweet, a blog or whatever or whomever because anybody can be a journalist nowadays. If I have a blog, I can say whatever I want to say without attributing to anyone. (PJ3)

Concerns for quality storytelling. Participants confirmed that they have less time to cultivate sources and formulate good storytelling when asked to include social media into their duties. PJ2 believed that social media clouded management's judgement on quality storytelling, "resources are spent on stories that will generate the biggest splash" (2016). PJ2 continued, "our content has become almost disposable" (2016). One television journalist explained that social media has meant more time for fact-checking and less time producing quality content in this response.

So I have to verify what is going on, just because somebody wrote it, does not mean that it is true. And, that concerns me because it is not an issue for myself. I am not that person that buries himself in social media all day. I am the reporter who is still looking for the story the old-fashioned way. (TVJ5)

In the survey, participants agreed they have had a chance to experiment with social media applications to assist in their duties. One participant said social media has not affected content, but has created the ability to do more visually in storytelling.

I am sure that it is a bad thing for the content because I am a visual person anyway which is why I like television. And, so to me the immediacy is one thing... but we do not have to do old school phoners now. We can right away take a picture and show people or the little video clip on the phone and show people what is going on... right now. (TVJ6)

Participants are still trying to balance their time while producing quality stories, but experimenting with new social media apps forces them to tell stories differently online.

You have to break out of this cycle of every story told the same way. You are always live for 10 seconds, package, and then a live tag back to the newsroom. There are different ways to tell a story, especially online. It has almost never told the same way. (TVJ2)

Future of television news. One journalist looked ahead into the future and expressed concern for how social media will change the way the next batch of journalists will gather and

disseminate news. TVJ5 emphasized, “my concern is that there’s a generation of journalists who are coming in, who will grab anything off of social media and run with it” (2016).

Another photojournalist feared social media might dictate how content is selected for a newscast. PJ2 mentioned, “I’m concerned by the fact that maybe stories that are very important will get swept away under the rug... will be ignored” (2016). Social media has made confirming findings much easier, but there is concern that the next generation of journalists will rely on unconfirmed video sources because it is available.

We even rely on viewers at home who have shot stuff and that became our line of defense. Rather than depend on us, we are now at the mercy to our viewers who are using social media, shooting videos, and what not. (PJ2).

The reliance on social media for information bothered this photojournalist because of the fear of losing touch of the initial reason young journalists enter the business – to give a voice to the voiceless.

It has been clear throughout this study that social media revolutionized television news. Participants agreed that its use is highly visible throughout news organizations and in their personal lives. The possibilities of transforming social media into an online channel are not far off. One television journalist confirmed that management at one station has pushed its focus on the millennial crowd.

I was hired to help, create, and launch, and cohost a strictly online lifestyle news show. It is a... long story; corporate is really making a push for the millennial crowd. Those who are glued to their digital devices, laptops, and what not. So they are launching a brand new web only show. And, they want me to cultivate packages and sources and just go nuts. Anything and everything online. No broadcast whatsoever. (TVJ3)

This is a concern for traditional broadcast journalists who fear the next generation could rely solely on social media for information and lose touch of why they entered the business. That is to give people a voice and a chance for their story is heard.

Summary

The quantitative portion (survey) of this study communicated the background characteristics of the participants involved and unveiled to what extent television journalists and photojournalists adopted social media into their work practices.

In the qualitative portion of the this study, responses to semi-structured, open-ended questions during one-on-one interviews explained in detail the behaviors and feelings participants had for social media in television news. Most of the results from the quantitative portion are consistent with the qualitative portion. Chapter Five contains an interpretation of the findings.

Chapter Five—Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

From the perspective of the interviewees, the purpose of this study was to explore the extent to which social media has been adopted and how social media transformed television news. This chapter restates the research questions for both quantitative and qualitative research methods with an interpretation of the findings.

The mixed methodology approach was designed to discover from 10 television journalists and photojournalists how they adopted social media into their work practices and how they felt about it being used in newsgathering and disseminating. The two research questions guiding this study were:

1. To what extent have television journalists and photojournalists adopted social media into their work practices?
2. How do television journalists and photojournalists feel about the use of social media in collecting and reporting television news?

Interpretation of the findings

To what extent have television journalists and photojournalists adopted social media into their work practices? Television journalists and photojournalists have adopted social media into their work practices by agreeing that management expects them to use social media in all aspects of their job. It is understood that social media is required and not voluntary. The use of social media is compulsory to their jobs.

In terms of relative advantage, social media has allowed participants to accomplish their tasks more quickly. If television journalists have to perform a live shot through their digital devices, social media enables that function. If photojournalists have to capture images and send

them to newsroom editors and the digital media department, social media gives them that capability. Social media has been overall advantageous and enhanced their effectiveness on the job. It is not determined if social media gives participants greater control over their work, but they do agree that the innovation has increased their productivity.

The use of social media has been compatible with all aspects of their work. Because participants are asked to produce live shots from their mobile phones, using social media is compatible with their current situation. If participants are asked to send photos instantly to the station's website, post to Facebook, or tweet it, social media has become compatible with their duties. Rogers (1995) said that compatibility happens when the innovation is "consistent with existing values, past experiences, and needs of potential adopters" (p. 15). The participants agreed that it fits well with the way they work and their work style.

Moore and Benbasat (1991) added the category of image in their instrument to demonstrate that individuals believe innovation improves their image. According to the survey, the topic of image generated an overwhelming positive response. It uncovered that social media influenced participants in terms of their image. They agreed that using social media improved their image within the organization and made them more valuable employees. Social media has given them more prestige than those who do not use the innovation. It has given them a high profile compared to non-users. The result of having a social media presence made them relevant to the community and gave them status within their organization.

Participants said that the use of social media is not cumbersome and does not take a lot of mental effort to perform tasks. The use of social media does not cause frustration because it is clear and understandable to the participants. They believed that it is easy to get social media to

perform the tasks needed, especially when operating applications. Overall, participants agreed that social media is easy to use.

When telling others about the results of social media, participants agreed they would have no difficulty doing so. They believed that they could communicate to others the consequences of using social media. Participants revealed that the results demonstrated are apparent and that there would be no difficulty explaining why using social media may or may not be beneficial.

It is clear that using social media is visible within news organizations, especially in this study. Participants confirmed that they find social media being used by others at their desks and outside of the firm. According to Rogers (1995), visibility of an innovation means that it is most likely an individual will adopt it. Because social media is visible throughout the participants' news organizations, it is likely that they are accepting and adopting the innovation.

Both television journalists and photojournalists have had a chance to experiment with social media applications. They agree that they have had an opportunity to try out apps before using them at work. Participants also agreed they can satisfactorily try out various uses of social media. Facebook and Twitter have been available to them to try, and so have other mentioned applications in this study – Instagram, Persicope, Snapchat, and Videolicious. These are social media applications that assist in capturing and sending images to followers.

How do television journalists and photojournalists feel about the use of social media in collecting and reporting television news? Television journalists and photojournalists feel that there are many advantages to using social media in collecting and reporting television news. It has been beneficial when locating sources and experts for interviews, or finding visual images to support stories.

The speed of information goes both ways for both journalists and photojournalists. They agreed that social media sped up the process of gathering and delivering information. Viewers are able to get their news right at their fingertips. Journalists are able to disseminate news as soon as they gather from the field. Participants said they no longer have to drive to the station to drop off video and have it edited. Some social media applications mentioned in the one-on-one interviews, such as Instagram and Videolicious, create the ability to capture and edit video on the spot on a smartphone. Other apps are available to assist in performing live shots during breaking news. Television journalists said they can go live through Facebook mentions. That means they do not have to wait for a photojournalist or a truck operator to establish a signal for live shots. In the past, microwave vans and satellite trucks provided live shot capabilities (Tuggle & Huffman, 1999). Social media changed that.

The use of the innovation has provided a channel to connect with viewers, family, and friends. Social media has offered journalists more chances to interact with viewers, and vice versa. Journalists felt more connected than ever before. They can let viewers know they are working on a story, and viewers can provide knowledge or a tip to a story. Interacting with viewers has helped enhance a story by providing feedback and comments. Using social media has given viewers a digital platform to sound off on hot topics mentioned Facebook. Journalists have seen social media create thoughtful and sometimes heated discussions among viewers, giving them a chance to become a part of the news experience. Some of the participants confirmed that the innovation creates on-going conversations about issues that affect the community the most.

Both television journalists and photojournalists agreed that they can promote their personal and professional brands. Social media is equipped and designed for promotion. Whether

it is through Facebook posts or tweets on Twitter, social media can elevate a journalist's status.

In previous research, Adornato (2014) said broadcasters used Facebook and Twitter to build relationships with their audience and maintain their relevance in the industry. This means the more interaction on social media, the more television journalists appeared relatable and personable. Participants expressed that they can promote their stories, share their personal lives with viewers, and connect with followers who become loyal to the station brand.

Social media highlighted the consequences of the urgency to be first, resulting in concerns for credibility, accuracy, and quality storytelling. Some of the risks of breaking news on social media include posting, tweeting, and sharing information too quickly without taking another look at the facts (OSullivan, 2015). Participants agreed there is a certain level of comfort they must establish before releasing information. During the interviews, some feared giving incorrect names and locations, announcing the name of the deceased before officials contacted next of kin, and releasing unconfirmed information. Stiegman (2011) said in order to maintain journalism integrity, journalists must think about the consequences of pronouncing someone dead when reports have not been confirmed. Though breaking news is the essence of live television, it also takes journalists out of the routine reporting comfort zone. After the attacks of September 11, Reynolds and Barnett (2003) observed and analyzed how television journalists were thrown into situations that demanded content and often without access to verifying information. Some journalists referred to personal experiences and beliefs when informing their audience on live television (Reynolds & Barnett, 2003) because they lose objectivity.

Participants revealed that sometimes they are assigned stories seen in Facebook posts and tweets from Twitter. Others have said that blogs become sources of information. This is another concern for journalists who expressed the need to fact-check their sources. Barnes (2012)

mentioned that many times blogs are opinion-driven, contain unfiltered content, and without verification. Unfortunately, because the Internet has no gatekeeper of information, journalists have to maintain that role. There is an understanding that credibility suffers when accepting social media stories at face value. Some of the participants described it as the newsroom jumping to conclusions when bloggers post opinions, or viewers tweet suspicious activity and capture it on video. Others added they lost trust in most stories found on the Internet.

Social media has forced the participants to tell stories differently. They agreed that applications have changed the way they inform viewers who no longer wait for the evening newscast to give information. This innovation pushed journalists to learn how to effectively promote online because they have seen positive results. Quality storytelling now involves digital tools, but at the expense of a heavier workload. Journalists said there is added stress when social media pressures them to balance time while meeting deadlines.

Throughout this study, it was apparent participants were worried about the next generation of journalists and this new way of newsgathering. Some felt that future journalists will take information and “run with it” (TVJ5) without confirmation. Another television journalist said that the manipulation of video or photos is a concern because it is “vastly abundant” (TVJ3).

Conclusions

In summary, the following observations were made, and three key conclusions drawn from this research: (a) A Changing Business Model, (b) News Gone Wrong, and (c) The Rise of the MMJ.

A changing business model. The news industry was no longer limited to newspaper, radio, or broadcast television. Social media has made a huge impact in storytelling and has

dramatically changed the business model. Participants in this study emphasized that their managers push to release news updates via Twitter first, the station website, Facebook, then television. It was surprising to find that participants work in television news, but their digital presence was more of a priority. This new business model was the best way to reach their audience and that the reach goes beyond television. The steps of approaching digital first, then television gives viewers more content quickly and efficiently. The use of social media is involuntary and compulsory to their jobs. News management has been onboard with social media, encouraging the innovation is another valuable tool in storytelling.

Aside from news delivery, social media enabled participants to engage their viewers and brand their product. In relation to previous research, Vivo (2013) discovered that journalists in Spanish-speaking countries were using social media to promote themselves, their stories, and manage their own personal branding. Adornato (2014) said broadcasters used Facebook and Twitter to build relationships with their audience. It was also a way for journalists to maintain their relevance in the industry. The more interaction on social media, the more television journalists appeared relatable and personable. When used wisely, social media can be the tool to improving one's on-air presence and their image. Followers feel a personal connection and sometimes become part of the news experience when they provide comments and feedback.

News gone wrong. In this study, participants worried about accuracy, quality, and the degree to which their credibility could be impacted by mistakes. OSullivan (2015) emphasized the dangers of breaking news stories on social media. Journalists run the risk of posting, tweeting, and sharing information too quickly when put in breaking news situations. That was a concern for participants in this study, who worried about rushing to tweet and post on social media. Many of them admitted to waiting for more details before hastily sending tweets or

posting on Facebook, saying that they believe being second with right information was better than being first with wrong information. Some confessed to pushing social media to the side to perfect their live shots and formulate their stories for air.

Because social media enabled participants to work independently, the collaboration of working in the traditional reporter-photographer teams were less frequent. Television journalists had to use digital devices to capture selfie videos of them from the scene, plus concentrate on shooting, editing and reporting for both the digital and television sides of news. Balancing time and meeting deadlines became issues in presenting quality stories. The use of social media became a burden on their workload when management asked they focus on digital first, then television.

The rise of the MMJ. From this research, social media's presence in television news gave way to the rise of the MMJ or multimedia journalist. This is a business model widely accepted in most television newsrooms today. Designed to put more television journalists on the streets for more content and presence, some critics say it is more about news managers saving money and demanding more work from journalists.

The MMJ covers both the broadcast and digital sides of media, often operating as a solo reporter who shoots, edits, and reports (Perez & Cremadas, 2014). Throughout the one-on-one interviews, responses related to the topic of the MMJ. Some television journalists expressed concerns of having to do more work with less time, without extra compensation. They drive themselves to assignments while thinking about what to share on social media and how to produce their stories. For photojournalists who normally handled the video portion of storytelling, some wondered where the future lies for their position, and if MMJs were the answer (Perez & Cremadas, 2014).

Limitations of the Study

This study was no exception to limitations. The first challenge was scheduling participants. Because news runs on a 24-hour cycle, schedules were limited. Some came after work, others in between family obligations. An attempt to make the study more robust occurred when four more journalists were asked to participate. Three of them came from an ABC affiliate. One came from a duopoly (Fox and NBC). Individuals had work and family obligations and could not participate.

The sample size of the quantitative portion was only 10 participants. The small sample was not enough to make the statistics significantly confident. A frequencies run on SPSS was the solution. A larger sample would have been ideal. In the qualitative portion, participants were selected for their television news experience and knowledge of social media, but the challenge was to find individuals who represented all local affiliates. A majority of the participants came from a CBS affiliate, while two came from a duopoly and a Spanish-language television station. No one from an ABC affiliate was represented. It would have been ideal to have individuals from all affiliates to participate and have representation.

The sample size consisted of mostly men, which seemed unavoidable. Most men take on photojournalist positions and more women are likely television journalists. Because the focus was to find television journalists and photojournalists appropriate for this study, more men were inadvertently selected and available for the study.

It was clear participants were required to be active on social media at work, but unclear about an actual number of times they had to be active. Some questions came to mind during the interviews that could have been asked either in the survey or one-on-one interviews---*which of the following social media apps do you use at work?(Facebook, Twitter, or Both) and how many*

times a day do you engage or required to engage in social media at work? These questions could have added another layer of information to the study.

Steps were taken to reassure the privacy and confidentiality of all television journalists and photojournalists. Data collected did not include names or personal information that would reveal their identities. Results were analyzed by the principal investigator and kept in a safe place to maintain participants' confidentiality. Participants were told about the use of video cameras, digital voice recorders, and transcription software, *Dragon Naturally Speaking* to record data and serve as backup, and promised that video of their interviews would not be published or used for broadcast. However, although participants were assured they would not be identified, it is possible that some were not as forthcoming in their responses fearing job security or criticism from supervisors, peers, and viewers. The presence of a video camera and digital voice recorder could have contributed to this hesitation of releasing information. Because recording devices capture sound and images for broadcast, television journalists and photojournalists understand the consequences of revealing personal information. Some participants may have had concerns about where the data would be viewed, analyzed, and stored.

Recommendations

This study's key conclusions of (a) A Changing Business Model, (b) News Gone Wrong, and (c) The Rise of the MMJ support the following recommendations for practitioners, policy makers, educators, and future researchers.

Practitioners. The results of this study can be used as a learning tool for television journalists and photojournalists for many aspects of social media and broadcast journalism. Social media is part of the industry's changing business model. As practitioners, they will use social media routinely to post upcoming stories, segments, and breaking news. This study can

offer suggestions on how to better promote stories, and maintain quality with limited time. Because social media allows practitioners to find and deliver information quickly, the changing business model has the potential for news to go wrong. Practitioners are concerned about accuracy and credibility, therefore a lesson in media literacy could help future journalists to distinguish between fact and fiction in online sources, and understand why the basic journalistic rules of fact checking are even more important than ever.

Social media created bloggers, citizen journalists, and YouTubers, contributing to the news process. Fans and followers on Facebook and Twitter add content by comments and feedback. The flow of information is no longer traveling from the top down in which professional journalists choose what news must be disseminated. Journalism includes participatory journalism, which shifted the flow of information. News is beginning to travel from the bottom up. As practitioners, professional journalists will need to be better editors and gatekeepers of information. They will have to learn how to sift through the noise and maintain the fundamentals of journalistic standards.

Though social media has been a resourceful tool of information for practitioners, it has added a tremendous amount to their workload. Time management was a major issue for participants who admitted to skipping social media in order to cultivate sources, write stories, and perfect live shots. For many television journalists, the belief is that they are television first, digital second, but management wants them to think about providing content for digital first, then television. Understanding these concerns could eliminate the potential of news gone wrong. Writing, listening, and video journalism skills are keys in quality storytelling. Workshops on visual storytelling should be a requirement even if television journalists are already established in their careers. These learning seminars should not be limited to only on-air talent or only

photojournalists. Anyone in the newsroom who is required to pick-up a camera and report should be given access to free workshops to enhance skills in shooting, writing, editing, and reporting.

For television personalities, appearance and image are important, adding longevity to their careers. Social media elevated the images of the participants in this study, but the innovation can also hurt one's image if not used properly. Now that social media is part of the changing business model, there is the potential of unfavorable images and posts spreading quickly to the masses, reaching an exponential number of users. This study can be a lesson on protecting one's image and the consequences of using social media because information released on the Internet has the potential to ruin one's established career. There is limited to zero control that a bad post will disappear.

Social media has not only changed the newsgathering process but it has changed the size of the newsroom. Most television stations across the country are employing more multimedia journalists than television journalists who only report. There is an emphasis on maintaining a social media presence and the ability to shoot and edit video in addition to reporting. The use of social media has decreased the number of photojournalists in most newsrooms and some wonder about their future. Television journalists and photojournalists will need to understand the changing job market and find ways to highlight their skills online.

Policy makers. News managers are the policy makers. They set the ground rules, guidelines, and the demands for using social media in the newsroom. Managers agree social media highlights and brands their news product. It is a digital platform, with a tremendous audience reach. A recommendation for policy makers would be to consider the consequences of social media.

Many of the complaints by practitioners were the need for more time and extra pay for the amount of work they do on the field. In order to avoid news going wrong, policy makers must recognize that quality suffers and credibility is at stake when journalists have to juggle both broadcast and digital media. The chances of giving out inaccurate information increases when one is asked to multitask. Participants admitted to feeling stressed, pressured, and overwhelmed. This should be a concern for management who has to oversee the output of work by journalists. Participants saw the use of social media as a way of handling more work without the extra pay. A sure sign of the changing business model is the rise of the multimedia journalist, or the MMJ. Practitioners who have had to become MMJs miss the collaboration they once had with photojournalists. Collaboration develops creativity, which adds to quality.

Some of the participants in this study worried about safety when investigating stories breaking at a crime scene and traveling without a photographer. Others were concerned about getting into car accidents while texting, Facebooking, and tweeting. If a television journalist is working alone as an MMJ, phone calls are often made while driving. Television journalists confessed that they have to make use of their time. Participants have heard stories of their colleagues confirming interviews, talking to potential sources, and communicating with producers and the assignment desk editors while driving a news vehicle. Phone use for texting and talking while driving is illegal in most cities unless operated hands-free. In this study, television journalists stressed about being asked to perform MMJ duties and the inability to concentrate on their stories. They wished for days they could work on television duties, while someone else handles the station website and social media posts. Others emphasized the luxury of days when they could sit as a passenger while a photojournalist drove. One television

journalist said, “I’ll tweet all day sitting in the passenger seat. I cannot do that if I am driving myself everywhere. So that safety becomes an issue” (TVJ 4).

News managers should recognize the need for safety and collaboration if a television journalist or photojournalist work and travel separately. An ideal situation is to maintain the traditional partnership of the reporter-photographer team. Policy makers should provide not just the digital tools for storytelling, but the advice and information on how to perform duties more efficiently. Compensation should be considered as duties are increased. Medium-sized television markets that were once areas where journalists had advanced skills are now turning into starter markets. If the workload continues and duties increase, management will see more quality and experienced journalists experience burnout. Journalists will feel the need to leave either their current situation or the news business altogether, leaving news management to spend thousands of dollars more on training new hires.

Educators in broadcast journalism will have to implement more convergence journalism courses in colleges and universities across the country. Courses in media literacy and ethics should be strongly considered. Universities should help journalism students understand that they will need to learn the skills of deciphering fact and fiction, learning skills in strengthening their writing, editing and videography, and the consequences of social media activity and reporting inaccurate information.

While future journalists accept these challenges and learn new tools, management should respect an employee’s online safety. Individuals are known to release too much personal information on social media, and reporters are no exception. Journalists are known to inform followers about their every move, names of their family members, and personal information that

give more access to stalkers or online trolls. Though connection is key to building one's online brand, there should be a limit on how much information is released to protect one's privacy.

Educators. With the rise of the MMJ, today's journalism degree plan should reflect the demands and needs of the multimedia journalist. The traditional journalism degree plan cannot focus only on broadcast journalism, but also include digital media, specifically social media. Educators must consider courses encompassing a scope of broadcast and digital media and communication theories to help future MMJs understand various communication models. This plan will also cover television as a business and the importance of media management. The following courses will develop the next generation of empowered, capable, and ethical MMJs.

The Multimedia Journalism plan should consist of the following courses – Introduction to Mass Communications, Writing, and Storytelling for Television News, Live News Reporting for Television, Video Production, Photojournalism, and Editing. The next set of courses continue with Social Media in Television News, Writing for Social Media, Introduction to Public Speaking, The Art of Persuasion, Media Literacy, Media Law and Ethics, Media Management, Communication Theories, and Diversity in the Media. Table 10 shows the courses and their brief descriptions.

Table 10

Multimedia Journalism degree plan and course descriptions

Introduction to Mass Communications	This course would provide a complete history of the evolution of media from traditional journalism, to digital media, to social media.
Writing and Storytelling for Television News	Every good reporter must learn the basics of writing quality stories. This course will offer an understanding of how to effectively use images and sound in storytelling for television news.
Live News Reporting for Television	The core of television news is live reporting. This course will teach future multimedia journalists how to deliver live reports and information in the event of breaking news, feature reporting, or general assignment.
Video Production	This course gives an MMJ an understanding of the various studio production roles. It should be designed to offer hands-on experience and teach how each component collaborates in producing a television newscast.
Photojournalism	A comprehensive study on the artistry of photojournalism, the purpose of this course is to give future MMJs the tools to know the main functions of the video camera, gain lighting, and composition skills, and create professional visual storytellers. There should be an advanced class taught as an additional learning component.
Editing	Taken after photojournalism, this course breaks down editing systems and different styles of editing that include the importance of pacing, use of natural sound, soundbites, and music.
Social Media: Research and Newsgathering	An explanation of how social media is used to research, gather, and disseminate news.
Writing for Social Media	Understanding the techniques of effective writing for social media, how to promote one's story, and grab the attention of viewers when given limitations.
Digital Media	Examine the history of digital media from websites to social media and learn how to write for this innovation.
Public Speaking	This course focuses on different types of speeches – campaigns, state of the unions, commencement, and eulogies. Future MMJs will study the art of public speaking and learn skills on audience engagement.
Persuasion	This course will include theories of persuasion, and an examination of attitude and behavior changes.
Media Literacy	An analysis of fact or fiction, this course focuses on looking into today's news headlines and news environment especially in using social media.
Media Law	This course should focus on law and policy in relation to media, analyzing regulations, privacy, censorship, and free speech.
Media Ethics	Designed to create ethical MMJs, this course should focus on the principles of ethical standards and practice in television and digital news.
Media Management	An important tool in understanding the functions of a television station as a business, this course should be designed to educate students on the importance of Nielsen ratings, revenue, sales, and their relationship with content.
Communication Theories	Theories explaining the processes of communication, this course can be taught from a social science background, focusing on communication models.
Interpersonal Communication	A discovery of one-on-one communication in social settings, in relationships, and in conflict.
Non-Verbal Communication	An examination of interaction through non-verbal communication channels.
Intercultural Communication	A study of cultural similarities and differences in verbal and non-verbal communication channels.
Organizational Communication	A look into organizational communication theories, examining effective communication strategies in group settings.
Diversity in the Media	How ethnic, gender, and age representation influence news content. This course should analyze how demographics in the newsroom and in the community affect a newscast, and why diversity matters in the media.

In addition to the above classes, students may include electives or concentrations that consist of Sports Reporting, Business and Finance Reporting, Investigative Journalism, Health and Science Reporting, and International Journalism. Because journalism involves interdisciplinary areas, the mentioned courses can help enhance the skills of the multimedia journalist.

Future researchers. Unfortunately, journalists cannot turn their backs on social media. As long as there is a use for it, there will be a need for social media. It is now part of the news experience and the study of social media is new to media research. Much of the literature on social media dates back to the early 2000s.

Future researchers could look closely into how social media affects production and the reporting of television news with other available apps aside from Facebook and Twitter. Participants in this study mentioned additional apps, which have not yet been studied. They are Instagram, Periscope, Snapchat, and Videolicious. Unlike, Facebook and Twitter, the mentioned apps are designed for the user to create videos, photos and livestream instantly from a smartphone and posted on either Facebook or Twitter. Future researchers could look into how television journalists have adopted these new applications.

The role of the photojournalist is quickly losing its presence in small and medium-sized markets. In this study, veteran photojournalists with 20-plus years in the industry recall working in newsrooms with more than 20 photojournalists employed in one station. Since the popularity of MMJs, the number of photojournalists has been cut in half and their duties are reduced to only capturing video and soundbites without the collaboration of a reporter. In smaller markets, some newsrooms have been reduced from five photojournalists to only one. While researching previous literature on the roles of broadcast journalists, articles on photojournalists were slim.

Much of the available research included print photojournalists and television journalists (or anchors). Since the industry is focusing more on the MMJ, perhaps a future study could include a look at the disappearing photojournalist in television news. There is an irony in losing photojournalists. Television is a visual medium, but the skills of the trained visual storyteller are being reduced or eliminated.

Future researchers can study the effects of social media on television ratings. One study could analyze if social media activity has an effect on ratings. Participants talked about promoting their stories on social media and seeing a boost in ratings the next day. A more comprehensive study can be conducted.

Participants believed that social media gave birth to the MMJ who has to shoot, edit, report, and post on Facebook or Twitter. Since they cover both broadcast and digital media, a future study may include a look into television markets where MMJs are employed and if they affect ratings during the months of February, May, July and November, the months generally known as *sweeps*. The study could see if there is a correlation between the number of MMJs and a station's ratings in viewership. Future research can include an analysis of the MMJ business model and if the cost-saving efforts contribute to increase in revenue.

This study could have been conducted differently. One option would be to interview 20 participants. One group of 10 could be videotaped, and the other group of 10 would not be videotaped. This technique could add to the data triangulation process mentioned in Mathison's (1988) article, and serve as a way to allow at least half of the participants to be more comfortable with answering the qualitative questions. This technique could support whether or not responses were consistent with or without a camera. The researcher suspected that some held back on their responses because a video camera was present in the room.

Another possibility is interviewing participants from different television markets in the United States, not limited to the southwestern section of the country. Responses to the questions from journalists located in different parts of the country could add more dimension to explaining social media's impact on television news. In fact, it could uncover if attitudes and behaviors towards social media are experienced similarly or differently throughout the country.

Some of the participants were well acquainted with the primary investigator in this study. Perhaps participants would respond differently with an unknown interviewer. Presenting the option of having an unknown interviewer could allow participants to be more relaxed and honest. Because participants knew the researcher, it is possible some did not want to disclose either personal feelings of their current workload and situation, or trade secrets from their employer.

Finally, an open-ended survey without the meta-data of personal information could have been completed anonymously and electronically. Participants may have been reluctant to disclose personal, financial, and work-related information. Surveys were handed out in person, but giving them an opportunity to answer anonymously and electronically could have provided more privacy. Participants would not have to worry about releasing too much information.

Because of the nature of the business, the fear of job security, and familiarity of the interviewer, there were concerns for the researcher that participants may be reluctant to express themselves freely. Participants did not appear to be uncomfortable, but they are experts in handling their emotions and behaviors under stress. The presence of a video camera is part of their norm and familiar to their routine. Though most of the participants responded with thoughtful and detailed information, the goal was to collect data that would reveal their feelings about social media. After data collection, it was suspected that perhaps some were not as honest one would hope. Future researchers should take the mentioned suggestions into consideration

when asking specific questions about one's feelings about social media being added to workload and the demands from management.

Final Reflections

Throughout the course of this study, it has been clear technology is a major influence on how consumers watch the news. It is no longer about waiting for the evening newscast. Viewers can watch from their laptop, smartphone, or tablet. As long as content is available, users will find a way to consume news and they will receive it instantly.

Social media has added to the workload of the television journalist and photojournalist, but the most common concern was the birth of the MMJ in today's newsrooms. Before the MMJ, solo reporters were once called a *one-man band* or *videojournalist* (VJ). Most television journalists started their careers in smaller markets working by themselves. They had to prove themselves as competent reporters before being assigned to a photographer. The skills they learned were added to their toolbox of knowledge, making them more valuable and marketable in the end, but these were smaller markets where there was less stress of living and working in a big city.

Participants believed social media developed this new breed of television journalists. Management has to save money, invest in new technology, and cut costs in personnel. News organizations are forced to deal with decreasing viewership and competing with Internet content. The MMJ is the solution to adding more content with fewer resources. They have changed how newsrooms operate and some believe the new model has created a jack-of-all-trades and a master of none.

The reporter and photographer positions are being watered down by only achieving the bare minimum of video and storytelling quality. The public is accustomed to grainy and shaky

video taken from smartphones that there will be a new standard of quality acceptable for broadcast. Research shows that the skills of the photojournalist who are trained visual storytellers will disappear and MMJs take over their spots in the newsroom. With so many more MMJs employed, only a few can do it well, but they will have to master both the writing and videography.

Today, the MMJ model has been adopted in television stations throughout the United States and is now the norm in newsrooms regardless of market size. This raises concerns for the future of television journalists and photojournalists. It is not enough to be a good writer or good videographer. Newsrooms are shrinking and competition is much more challenging. Though the future of television news looks dismal, the Internet's vast reach has a much better future. A social media presence may be what saves the role of the journalist. The platforms that generated the most complaints among the participants may be what saves their title – blogs, posting on Twitter and Facebook, developing a website, or building one's online resume on YouTube or Instagram. The use of social media could be the key to showing off reporting, writing, and video skills and grabbing the attention of employers.

The use of social media has sped up the flow of information and given stations another platform to elevate its image and highlight its news product. On-air talent and photojournalists can brand and promote themselves. Though some users are changing the way they watch the news by relying on their digital devices, there is a less fortunate group of news consumers who are being excluded in the conversation.

Social media is creating a digital divide between the consumer who owns digital devices and those who do not. The elderly and the low income may not have access to a smartphone or do not have the skills to maneuver through applications. Without technology, they are missing

important information that helps them navigate through traffic, take cover during severe weather, and avoid dangerous areas. Social media may be coverage some can count on, but television news organizations cannot forget that its goal is to inform, engage, and involve its audience from all platforms.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A—Instrumentation Permission

From: Benbasat, Izak [izak.benbasat@sauder.ubc.ca]
 Sent: Wednesday, January 27, 2016 3:48 PM
 To: Teves, Eileen C.
 Subject: RE: Request for Permission to use Instrument

Dear Ms. Teves:

You have my permission to use the instrument.

Best wishes.

-----Original Message-----

From: Teves, Eileen C. [<mailto:teves@student.uiwtx.edu>]
 Sent: Wednesday, January 27, 2016 12:33 PM
 To: Benbasat, Izak <izak.benbasat@sauder.ubc.ca>
 Subject: Request for Permission to use Instrument

Dr. Izak Benbasat
 The University of British Columbia
 Sauder School of Business
 2053 Main Mall
 Vancouver, BC Canada V6T 1Z2

Dr. Benbasat:

My name is Eileen Teves and I am a doctoral student at the University of the Incarnate Word. I have begun work on my dissertation, and I am using the Diffusion of Innovations Theory as the foundation of my theoretical framework. My advisor and dissertation committee chair is Dr. Annette E. Craven.

I am requesting permission to use the Instrument you developed in the article "Development of an Instrument to Measure the Perceptions of Adopting an Information Technology Innovation," *Information Systems Research*, 2:3 (1991) 193-222.

The focus of my study is on social media's impact on television news. To fit my study, I would like to modify the Instrument you and Dr. Moore developed, by replacing the term PWS (Personal Work Stations) with social media.

The use of your Instrument would be under the following conditions:

- I will use this Instrument only for my research study and will not sell or use it with any compensated or curriculum development activities.
- I will include the copyright statement on all copies of the instrument.

- I will send a copy of my research results, one copy of the reports, articles and any other source that may use the Instrument data, promptly to your attention.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate by sending me an email or letter signed with your permission to use the survey for my research

Please contact me via email (teves@student.uiwtx.edu), or by phone (xxx-xxx-xxxx). You can also contact my advisor and dissertation committee chair Dr. Annette E. Craven by email (craven@uiwtx.edu), or by phone (xx-xxx-xxxx).

Thank you for your time and for considering my request.

Sincerely,
Eileen Teves

This email and any files transmitted with it may be confidential or contain privileged information and are intended solely for the use of the individual or entity to which they are addressed. If you are not the intended recipient, please be advised that you have received this email in error and that any use, dissemination, forwarding, printing, or copying of this email and any attachments is strictly prohibited. If you have received this email in error, please immediately delete the email and any attachments from your system and notify the sender. Any other use of this e-mail is prohibited. Thank you for your compliance.

Appendix B—Informed Consent

Breaking Television News: Is Social Media Coverage You Can Count On? Consent to Participate in a Research Study University of the Incarnate Word

You are being asked to participate in a research study conducted by doctoral student Eileen Teves, under the supervision of Annette E. Craven, Ph.D. The purpose of this study is to explore (a) the extent to which television journalists and photojournalists have adopted the innovation of social media into their activities collecting and reporting television news, and (b) how television journalists and photojournalists handle the impact of social media on television news. From the perspective of the interviewees, this study will explore how social media has transformed television news; its impact on the workload of television journalists; and if the use of social media trigger concerns for the quality and accuracy of content.

If you agree to take part in this study, you will participate in a survey that will take approximately 15 minutes to complete and a video and audio-recorded interview, which will last no more than 45 minutes. If you feel uneasy or discomfort at any time about the study, do not participate in this study. By participating in this study, you may be instrumental in contributing not only to the body of knowledge about social media's impact on television news, but also to recommendations for station owners and managers, journalists, and photojournalists and others who are highly impacted by this transformation in the way news is reported.

Since your reactions to the conversation will be recorded, there is a chance you could be identified. This risk will be lessened by deleting video footage and audio tapes after the dissertation has been defended and approved by the dissertation committee, and the doctoral degree has been awarded. Until that time, all video, audio, and electronic recordings will be either password protected or maintained in locked facility, which is not part of any news broadcasting company or service. Your identity will be protected and any publication that follows this study will only display group data, and interview quotes will be recorded anonymously.

Participation is voluntary and you have the right to refuse participation without penalty of any kind. You have the right to stop participating at any time, including leaving during the 45-minute conversation, without penalty of any kind. You have the right, at the end of the study, to be informed of the findings of this study.

If you have questions, please ask them at any time. If you have additional questions later or you wish to report a problem that may be related to this study, contact:

Eileen C. Teves, MBA
(xxx) xxx-xxxx
teves@student.uiwtx.edu

Annette E. Craven, Ph.D.
(xxx) xxx-xxxx
craven@uiwtx.edu

To contact the University of the Incarnate Word committee that reviews and approves research with human subjects, the Institutional Review Board (IRB), and ask any questions about your

rights as a research participant, call the University of the Incarnate Word IRB at the Office of Research Development (210) 805-3036.

If you completely understand the expectations and rights of participants in this study, all of your questions have been answered to your satisfaction, and you are willing to participate in this study please sign and date this consent form in the space provided. To sign this consent form, you must be 18-years-old or older as of the date of the signature. A copy of the informed consent is provided for your records.

Printed Name

Participant Signature

Date Signed

Appendix C—Instrument

Instrument developed by Moore and Benbasat (1991)

List of Items by Construct

Voluntariness

1. My superiors expect me to use social media.
2. My use of social media is voluntary (as opposed to required by my superiors or job description).
3. My boss does not require me to use social media.
4. Although it might be helpful, using social media is certainly not compulsory in my job.

Relative Advantage

1. Using social media enables me to accomplish tasks more quickly.
2. Using social media improves the quality of work I do.
3. Using social media makes it easier to do my job.
4. The *disadvantages* of my using social media far outweigh the advantages.
5. Using social media improves my job performance.
6. Overall, I find using social media to be advantageous in my job.
7. Using social media enhances my effectiveness on the job.
8. Using social media gives me greater control over my work.
9. Using social media increases my productivity.

Compatibility

1. Using social media is compatible with all aspects of my work.
2. Using social media is completely compatible with my current situation.
3. I think that using social media fits well with the way I like to work.
4. Using social media fits into my work style.

Image

1. Using social media improves my image within the organization.
2. Because of my use of social media, others in my organization see me as a more valuable employee.
3. People in my organization who use social media have more prestige than those who do not.
4. People in my organization who use social media have a high profile.
5. Having social media is a status symbol in my organization.

Ease of use

1. I believe that social media is cumbersome to use.
2. It is easy for me to remember how to perform tasks using social media.
3. My using social media requires a lot of mental effort.
4. Using social media is often frustrating.
5. My interaction with social media is clear and understandable
6. I believe that is easy to get social media to do what I want it to do.
7. Overall, I believe that social media is easy to use.

8. Learning to operate social media is easy for me.

Result Demonstrability

1. I would have no difficulty telling others about the results of using social media.
2. I believe I could communicate to others the consequences of using social media.
3. The results of using social media are apparent to me.
4. I would have difficulty explaining why using social media may or may be beneficial.

Visibility

1. I have seen what others do using social media.
2. In my organization, one sees social media on many desks.
3. I have seen social media in use outside my firm.
4. Social media are not very visible in my organization.
5. It is easy for me to observe others using social media in my firm.

Trialability

1. I have had a great deal of opportunity to try various social media applications.
2. I know where I can go to satisfactorily try out various uses of social media.
3. Social media was available to me to adequately test run various applications.
4. Before deciding whether to use any social media applications, I was able to properly try them out.
5. I was permitted to use social media on a trial basis long enough to see what it could do.

Demographic Items

1. Gender (Male, Female)
2. Age (20-25; 26-30; 31-35; 36-40; 41-45; 46-50; 50-55; 56-60; Older than 60)
3. Ethnicity (White/Non-Hispanic, Black/Non-Hispanic, Hispanic/Latino, Asian/Pacific Islander, Other)
4. Level of Education (High School/GED, Some College, Associates Degree, Bachelor's Degree, Master's Degree, Professional Degree, Doctoral Degree)
5. Income Range (Up to \$50,000, \$50,001-\$75,000, More than \$75,000)
6. Employment Status (Full-time, Part-time, Retired, Unemployed)
7. Employment Role (Television Journalist, Photojournalist)
8. Years in the Industry (less than 5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years, more than 20 years)
9. Network Affiliation (ABC, NBC, CBS, Fox, Other)

Appendix D—IRB Approval



2/18/2016

Eileen Teves
[REDACTED]
[REDACTED]

Dear Eileen:

Your request to conduct the study Breaking Television News: Is Social Media Coverage You Can Count On? was approved by exempt review on 2/18/2016. Your IRB approval number is 16-02-004. Any written communication with potential or current subjects must be approved and include the IRB approval number. Electronic surveys or electronic consent forms, or other material delivered electronically to subjects must have the IRB approval number inserted into the survey or documents before they are used.

Please keep in mind these additional IRB requirements:

- This approval is for one year from the date of the IRB approval.
- Request for continuing review must be completed for projects extending past one year. Use the **IRB Continuation/Completion form**.
- Changes in protocol procedures must be approved by the IRB prior to implementation except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subjects. Use the **Protocol Revision and Amendment form**.
- Any unanticipated problems involving risks to subjects or others must be reported immediately.

Approved protocols are filed by their number. Please refer to this number when communicating about this protocol.

Approval may be suspended or terminated if there is evidence of a) noncompliance with federal regulations or university policy or b) any aberration from the current, approved protocol.

Congratulations and best wishes for successful completion of your research. If you need any assistance, please contact the UIW IRB representative for your college/school or the Office of Research Development.

Sincerely,

Ana Wandless-Hagendorf

Ana Wandless-Hagendorf, PhD, CPRA
Research Officer
University of the Incarnate Word IRB