

Building a better PR-journalist relationship- a social media segmentation of UK journalists

Introduction

Public relations (PR) at a strategic level looks after organisational communication to build relationships with stakeholders and manage corporate reputation and at a tactical level is part of marketing communication to promote a brand, product, cause or issue. At both levels, media relations form a critical part of their relationship. Research suggests that between 25% and 80% of news content is influenced by PR practitioners (Curtin and Rhodenbough, 2001; and Morton and Warren, 1992) and is likely to grow given the increasing pressure on the modern digital newsroom, the fragmentation of media channels and the explosion of social media, all requiring news and information to engage their target audience. PR practitioners therefore need to evaluate the most effective contact methods to foster good media relationships and to maximise the adoption of their message. The purpose of this research is to investigate and segment UK journalists to explore whether PR practitioners could be more effective in meeting journalists' needs and thereby improving the relationship with a key stakeholder group.

Segmentation in Business to Business Environments

The term market segmentation has received considerable attention since its conception by Smith (1956) who advocated dividing the market into distinctive groups, with homogeneous characteristics, and serving each according to their specific preferences and desires. This research focuses largely on customer segmentation and Foedermayr and Diamantopoulos (2008) found there are only a few examples of B2B segmentation and most are focused on industrial products. Segmentation of services is dominated by financial services (e.g. Meadows and Dibb, 1998), although the marketing technique has been applied to other services such as event management (Tkaczynski and Rundle-Thiele, 2011) health care (e.g. Haiyan et al. 2011), tourism (Tkaczynski, et al, 2009) and human resource management (e.g. Boudrea and Ramstad, 2005). In public relations, segmentation has focused on stakeholders (Jeong-Nam et al 2008, Hye Hyun et al, 2012 and Berkowitz and Turnmire, 1994) the value and impact of communication (especially Grunig's nested segmentation model, Grunig, 1992) and in journalism on readers and audiences (e.g. Lehnert and Perpich, 1982, Mody, 2012). Recently, Hedman and Djerf-Pierre (2013) surveyed Swedish journalists explored key characteristics and identified three groups called the 'skeptical shunners', the 'pragmatic conformists' and 'enthusiastic activists'. Given the growth of more sophisticated and detailed journalist databases e.g. Cisionpoint, Vocus, PR Newswire, there is an ideal opportunity to explore meaningful differences in journalists behaviours, use, attitude and knowledge of social media and consider how that would improve the effectiveness of PR communication.

The PR-journalist relationship

Years of research into agenda-setting theory offers evidence that media coverage influences public opinion (e.g. Sweetster et al. 2008, Wallsten, 2007) and therefore many organisations have invested in PR to facilitate this process. Comrie (1997) found a moderately strong positive correlation between proactive media relations and media coverage suggesting that whatever the communications channel used, efficient and effective PR activity is more likely to achieve corporate communication objectives. The PR-journalist relationship has been viewed as important and inter-dependent and therefore a source of interest and investigation (e.g. Sallot and Johnson 2006). They are "interdependent economically and must negotiate and compromise in order to exchange resources and accomplish their goals" (Delorme and Fedler, 2003, pp3-4). Traditionally these relationships were perceived as adversarial with differing goals resulting in conflict (Desiere and Sha, 2007, Anderson and Lowrey, 2007) but more recently these interactions have been viewed in terms of relationship management. Waters et al. (2010) stated that 'Journalists and public relations practitioners may have moved or are moving into a more cooperative, pragmatic agreement' p261, so

the long held view of an antagonistic relationship is beginning to be eroded (Neijens and Smit, 2006) and replaced by a more mutually beneficial relationship. Journalists have traditionally acted as the decision-making and gatekeeper to publishing information but with cutbacks in the newsrooms, journalists are increasingly reliant on PR professionals to help meet their production schedules (Lewis et al. 2008). According to Sallot and Johnson (2006) a third of journalists estimated that PR content made between 60-100% of content. These changes are beginning to blur the lines between journalism and PR as 'Journalists are being asked to do more with less resources . . . forcing them to rely more and more on information from public relations practitioners (Gower, 2007, p2-3). In addition, social media and the Internet in general, are having dramatic impacts on the role of journalists and the PR and journalist interface (Sarrica et al. 2010).

Changing environment for journalists

Not surprisingly the literature reports that new media forms have led to significant changes in the journalism profession particularly the explosion of social media use by journalists (Hermida 2011; Messner et al. 2011; Newman 2009). This wider impact of Web 2.0 technologies have changed "newsroom culture and the professionals involved" and they "challenge perceptions of the roles and functions of journalism as a whole" (Deuze and Paulussen 2002, p216). The research comments on how Web 2.0 technologies are redefining the relationship between journalists and their audience as, as User Generated Content (UGC) and interactivity now enable feedback from audiences (Larsson 2011) supporting a two-way symmetrical model of communication (van Ruler 2004). Despite the growth of UGC and the citizen journalist, journalists are still seen as the defining actors in the process of creating news and have retained control over the most important stages of news production (Hermida et al. 2011). With this changing media environment with increasing use of digital content there is a trend for journalists to carry out multiple tasks across different media platforms forcing an increasing reliance on ready made news sources to fill the channels. Having carefully crafted their communication, if a PR practitioner can then deliver the message via journalists' preferred contact method and platform then this has potential to improve coverage.

Communication methods used in the PR-journalist relationship

Verhoeven et al. (2011) found that although print media remains the most important communication channel for European PR professionals, digital communication and social media will become more important. Wright and Hinson (2010) found that social media use amongst PR practitioners in the US is widespread and most platforms were considered important for their communication. Curtis et al. (2010) in their survey of non-profit organisation found that social media was widely used by PR practitioners and found to be important particularly if they consider the tools credible. Researchers found that PR practitioners who use blogs, social networks and social media tools report greater influence (Sallot et al. 2004), structural, expert and prestige power (Diga and Kelleher, 2009) as 'traditional media relations is beginning to lose its dominance in public relations' (Waters et al. 2010 p242). Eyrich et al. (2008 p414) found that PR practitioners had adopted 'more established and institutional tools (e-mail, Intranet)...[but] are slower to integrate more technologically complicated tools that cater for a niche audience (e.g. text messaging, social networks, virtual worlds).' Eyrich et al (2008) research into PR practitioners' use of social media concluded that it 'provides an avenue to strengthen media relations' p412. Given practitioners acknowledge the declining prominence of traditional media relations strategies e.g. the media kit preparation, news release distribution and pitch (Bajkiewicz et al. 2011) there is considerable mileage in investigating the use of social media by journalists to help PR practitioners to meet their specific needs. Indeed, Verhoeven et al. (2012) acknowledge that for PR practitioners, 'working with journalists as gatekeepers of the news media is still the most important communication channel' p165 and therefore effectiveness in reaching this group is critical.

Methodology

An online quantitative study was conducted in summer 2012 consisting of 16 questions, including multi-item, multiple choice, rank ordering and ordinal scales. The questions covered use, behaviour and attitude towards social media and communication preferences with PR practitioners. As social media includes many different tools and platforms, the definitions vary (Poynter, 2010). This research adopted one of the leading typologies, (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010) who identified six main social media categories: collaborative projects, blogs and microblogs, content communities, social networking sites, virtual game worlds, and virtual social worlds. To relate the questions specifically to journalists this was then extended to include; blogs, content communities, crowdsourcing sites, microblogs, social reader and bookmarking tools, professional social networking, social networking and audio-visual sharing sites. A sample of over 55,335 unique contacts from the UK was drawn from CisionPoint¹, a commercial media and communication professionals database including broadcast, print and digital media both employed and freelancers. A pilot online survey was sent to a random sample of 1000 journalists and tested for both individual question response rates, exit points and response rates to different email headings. Following the test, amendments were made and the survey emailed through Cisionpoint to a random stratified sample of 25% (13,834) to reduce data handling costs. An incentive (an iPad) was used and a reminder sent after two weeks to improve response rates (Göriz, 2004). This resulted in 769 usable responses, representing a response rate of 5.6% not dissimilar to other online surveys in this discipline e.g. Verhoeven et al.2012. This sample was large enough for statistical analysis and representative of the total of population when compared to demographic, professional and personal criteria.

Data analysis

Cluster analysis is a way of sorting items into a small number of homogeneous groups where no prior knowledge exists about which elements belong to which clusters. (Romesburg, 2004) As this research is exploratory and inductive, the number and characteristics of the groups were not known therefore analysis cluster analysis was deemed a suitable method to examine whether the data set is characterised by certain structures. Following recommendations from Punj and Stewart (1983), a two-stage clustering approach was pursued. In the first stage, the whole data set was submitted to two hierarchical clustering methods: complete-linkage clustering (CLC) using the Ward method) and Squared Euclidean Distance (Punj & Stewart, 1983). The objective of this first step is to identify the number of clusters that represents the structure in the data in an optimal way. In the second stage an inspection of the dendrogram applied the use of the elbow-technique to look at the groups and identify any outliers. Collectively these clusters were named 'social journalists' as the focus of research was on journalists' use of social media.

Identification and characteristics of UK social journalist clusters

Following the analysis 5 clear clusters were identified with the following characteristics (summary statistics in Appendices A, B and C).

Architects (11.8%) They use social media the most. They have the highest self-rated knowledge about social media. They have positive views about social media, especially in relation to its impact on better communications, relationship with the audience as well as promotional opportunities. They use social media for different reasons, most notably for sourcing information, networking, monitoring what is going on as well as publishing and promoting own content. They are not only key content creators and contributors but often centre of networks.

Promoters (24.7%) They use social media a lot and have good self-rated knowledge about the tools. They have positive views about the impacts of social media, although they are unsure about whether they would not be able to carry out their work without social media. They use a variety of social media forms, but prefer blogs, microblogs and social networking sites. They use social media for different reasons, but publishing and promoting is a key function for them.

¹ This research gratefully acknowledges the collaboration with Cision Germany in allowing this research to be undertaken.

Hunters (34.9%) This group uses a variety of social media forms, but most frequently use social networking sites. They tend to have positive views about social media but don't agree they would be prevented from carrying out their work without social media. Sourcing is the most important reason why they use social media but networking is also a key reason why they use social media. They use social media to meet new people in their field of work and use a social networking to start following someone they met in person at least monthly. They are also keen users of microblogs but are not frequent content creators and contribute less than monthly to content communities or crowdsourcing sites and blogs.

Observers (18.8%) They keep a keen eye on what is happening in social media, as they visit sites at least weekly, but their social media contribution, such as posting or commenting, happens less often. They are not frequent content creators on social media, but occasionally contribute to content communities, crowdsourcing sites and write a blog. Their preferred social media platform is social networking. Their main reason for using social media for work is for sourcing information.

Sceptics (9.8%) This group represents the least active users. They rarely, if ever, create content on social media sites and are poor networkers. Their self-rated knowledge about social media is low and most of them use only one or two types of social media forms. Their use of social media for publishing and promoting, networking and verifying are relatively low. Their most frequent social media activity is watching videos which they do monthly. They tend to have negative views about the impacts of social media, and they disagree that social media is a necessary tool for their work. If they use social media it is most likely to be to sourcing information and they are most likely to do that using content communities and crowdsourcing sites.

Statistical confirmation of social journalist clusters

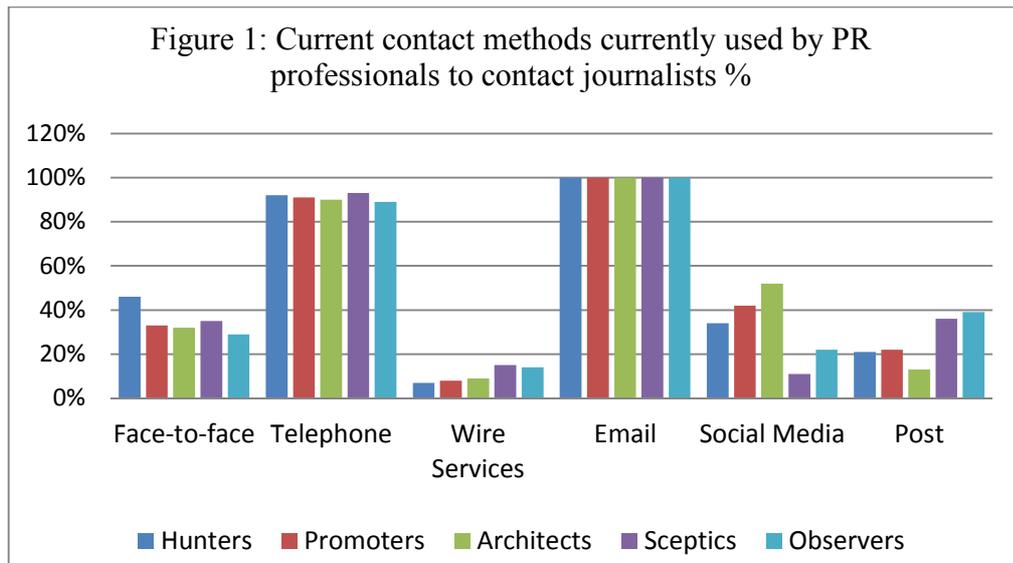
This analysis confirms the differences between the clusters in relation to the various Dependant Variables (DV's): number of hours spent using social media per day; self-rated knowledge levels; diversity of social media tasks used for work; diversity of professional tasks social media used at work; the ratio of time spent using social media for work rather than for personal use; number of followers; opinion of the use of social media for work; and frequency of social media use for work-related reasons. The findings are summarised in Table 1 below with more detailed analysis for each of the DV's presented in Appendices D-K.

Table 1: Summary of analyses with significant difference between the clusters in relation to the DVs.

Dependent Variables (DV's)	Difference Found Between the Clusters?
1. Number of Hours Spent Using Social Media Per Day	Yes
2. Level of Self-Rated Knowledge	Yes
3. Diversity of Social Media Used for Work	Yes
4. Diversity of Professional Tasks Social Media Used for at Work	Yes
5. Ratio of Social Media Use for Work in Comparison to Home	Yes
6. Number of Followers	Yes
7. Opinion of the Use of Social Media for Work	Yes
8. Frequency with which Social Media Used for Work	Yes

Communication with PR practitioners

As shown, the research indicated that there were five clear social journalist clusters and this also translated to differences in current and preferred contact methods. Current communication from PR practitioners is dominated by email, telephone and surprisingly face-to-face contact. Differences start to appear in the use of face to face where 46% of Hunters said they had face-to-face contact with PR professionals, and social media where Architects (52%) Promoters (42%) and Hunters (34%) were contacted through this channel. Surprisingly post was a method used by 39% of Observers and 36% Sceptics but was least used by Architects (13%).



Journalists were also asked to report on their preferred method (Appendix K) and it was evident that Hunters (14%), Architects (10%), Sceptics (10%), Promoters (8%) and Observers (3%) wanted more face-to-face contact than they are currently receiving. Email usage is about right for all groups but all groups would like less use of the telephone. The findings that traditional communication methods are preferred to social media communication is a warning to PR practitioners to continue to use traditional methods and not replace them with social media if they want to build good media relationships and maximise effectiveness. Given the research that social media use by journalists and PR practitioners is growing e.g. Wright and Hinson 2010, it would be easy for a PR practitioner to assume that this would be the preferred contact method, which clearly is not the case. However, all social journalist segments expressed a greater desire for communication from PR practitioners through social media than is currently used. Surprisingly the Hunters (11%) and Observers (8%) reported the greatest preference for communication through this channel although Promoters (5%), Architects (4%) and Sceptics (2%) also reported they would prefer more contact through this channel.

Conclusion

The inductive research identified the widespread and differing use of social media by UK journalists for a number of professional tasks, including their communication with PR practitioners. Through cluster analysis our research identified five social journalist segments that showed different patterns of use, knowledge attitude and behaviour of social media in their work. These new classifications have the potential to help PR practitioners meet the needs of journalists (beyond the pre-requisite newsworthy and relevant stories) and more able to consider delivering the message through a preferred channel using the developing commercial journalist databases. Research indicates a growing use of social media by PR practitioners (Wright and Hinson, 2010) journalists prefer more traditional methods and therefore some caution should be exercised before PR practitioners use this as their dominant contact methods. Cluster analysis has been widely used in marketing to understand consumer behaviour and is seen as the basis for building better relationships and has equal potential to improve the PR-journalist relationship by understanding their working preferences. Despite the growing use of social media by both parties, traditional contact methods – both email and face-to-face remain the most widely used contact methods and the most preferred. However, journalists indicated they wished for more phone and social media contact than PR practitioners currently use, suggesting PR practitioners need to continue using a mix of traditional and new communication tools, according to different segments. This finding is mirrored by Verhoeven et al. (2012) who stated ‘digital and social media are gaining importance in European organisations, but they are not the most important element of the organisational media mix’ p64.

Bibliography

- Anderson, W., & Lowrey, W. (2007) What factors influence control over work in the journalism/public relations dynamic? An application of theory from the sociology of occupations. *Mass Communication and Society*, 10, pp.385-402.
- Bajkiewicz, T.E., Kraus, J.J., Yeon Hong, S. (2011) The impact of newsroom changes and the rise of social media on the practice of media relations, *Public Relations Review*, 37, pp.329-331
<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0363811111000695>
- Berkowitz, D., and Turnmire, K. (1994) Community Relations and Issues Management: An Issue Orientation Approach to Segmenting Publics, *Journal of Public Relations Research*, April 1994. 6, (2) pp.105-123
- Curtin, P.A., Rhodenbough, E. (2001) Building the news media agenda on the environment: A comparison of public relations and journalistic sources, *Public Relations Review*, 27 (2001), pp.179–195. (Accessed: 12 April 2014)
- Curtis, L., Edwards, C., Fraser, K.L., Gudelsky, S., Holmquist, J., Thorton, K., Sweetser, K.D. (2010) Adoption of social media for public relations by non-profit organizations, *Public Relations Review*, Vol. 36, 1, pp90-92 <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0363811109001738>
- Delorme, D. E., and Fedler, F. (2003) Journalists' hostility toward public relations: An historical analysis. *Public Relations Review*, 29(2), pp.99–124.
- Desiere, S., & Sha, B. (2007). Exploring the development of an organizational approach to media relationships. *Public Relations Review*, 33, pp.96-98
<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0363811106001615> (Accessed: 12 December 2013)
- Diga, M., Kelleher, T., (2009) Social media use, perceptions of decision-making power, and public relations roles, *Public Relations Review*, 35 pp. 440-442
<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S036381110900126X> (Accessed: 12 December 2013)
- Eyrich, N., Padman, M.L., Sweetser, K.D., (2008) PR practitioners' use of social media tools and communication technology, *Public Relations Review* 34, pp.412-414
<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0363811108001264> (Accessed: 12 December 2013)
- Foedermayr, E, & Diamantopoulos, A. (2008) 'Market Segmentation in Practice: Review of Empirical Studies, Methodological Assessment and Agenda for Future Research', *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, 16 (3) pp. 223-265, E-Journals, EBSCOhost, (Accessed: 12 December 2013).
- Göritz, A.S (2004) Incentives in Web Studies: Methodological Issues and a Review, *International Journal of Internet Science* 1, pp58-70
- Hedman, U and Djerf-Pierre., M.(2013) The Social Journalist, *Digital Journalism*, 1:3, 368-385, DOI: 10.1080/21670811.2013.776804
- Hermida, A. (2012) Tweets and Truth: Journalism as a Discipline of Collaborative Verification. *Journalism Practice*, iFirst, DOI: 10.1080/17512786.2012.667269 (Accessed 27 March 2012)

Hyehyun, H., Hyojung, P., Youngah, L., and Jongmin, P. (2012) Public Segmentation and Government–Public Relationship Building: A Cluster Analysis of Publics in the United States and 19 European Countries. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 24(1) pp37-68

IAB Europe.eu Mediascope Europe, 2012
http://www.iabeurope.eu/files/6813/6852/2640/mediascope_2012_pan-european_summary20launch20presentation.pdf (Accessed: 12 December 2013).

Kaplan A. M., Heinlein M., (2010), ‘Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of social media, *Business Horizons*, 53, pp. 59-68.

Jeong-Nam, K., Lan,N., Bey-Ling, S. (2008) Breaking down the stakeholder environment: explicating approaches the segmentation of publics for public relations research, *Journalism and Mass Communication Quarterly*, 84 (4) pp751-768, Business Source Premier, EBSCOhost, (Accessed 24 January 2014).

Larsson, A. O. (2011) "Interactive To Me - Interactive To You? A Study of Use and Appreciation of Interactivity on Swedish Newspaper Sites." *New Media & Society* 13, pp.1180-1197.

Lehnert, E., and Perpich, M.J (1982) “An Attitude Segmentation Study of Supermarket Tabloid Readers,” *Journalism Quarterly*, 59, pp104-111

Lewis, J and Williams, A., Franklin, B., (2008) A compromised fourth estate? UK news journalism, public relations and news sources, *Journalism Studies*, 9, pp.1-20

Messner, M., Maureen, L., and Asriel, E., (2011) Shoveling Tweets: An Analysis of the Microblogging Engagement of Traditional News Organizations. Paper Presented at the 12th International Symposium on Online Journalism, University Of Texas, Austin, April 1-2.
<http://online.journalism.utexas.edu/papers.php?Year=2011> (Accessed: 12 December 2013).

Mody, B (2012) The marketization of foreign news, *Global Media and Communications*, 8 (2) pp 99-115

Morton, L., Warren, J. (1992) News elements and editors’ choices, *Public Relations Review*, 18 (1) pp. 47–52

Neijens, P., & Smit, E. (2006). Dutch public relations practitioners and journalists: Antagonists no more. *Public Relations Review*, 54, pp 232-240.
<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0363811106000725> (Accessed: 12 December 2013).

Newman, N. (2009) The Rise of Social Media and its Impact On Mainstream Journalism. Reuters Institute Fellowship Paper. Reuters Institute for the Study of Journalism. University of Oxford: Oxford. <http://reutersinstitute.politics.ox.ac.uk/about/news/item/article/tweet-first-verify-later-new-fell.html> (Accessed: 12 December 2013).

Poynter, R (2010) *The Handbook of Online and Social Media Research, Tool and Techniques for Market Researchers*, London: Wiley

Punj, G., and Stewart, D.W (1983) Cluster Analysis in Marketing Research, *Journal of Marketing Research*, 20, 134-148 <http://web.ebscohost.com/ehost/detail?sid=fb3169e9-317b-4890-84fe-344626cc2f65%40sessionmgr11&vid=1&hid=25&bdata=JnNpdGU9ZWhvc3QtbGl2ZQ%3d%3d#b=buh&AN=5003127> (Accessed: 12 December 2013).

- Romseburg, H.C., (2004) *Cluster analysis for Researchers*, Lulu Press, North Carolina.
- Sallot, L.M., and Johnson, E.A (2006) Investigating relationships between journalists and public relations practitioners: Working together to set, frame and build the public agenda, 1991-2004 *Public Relations Review*, 32, 151-159 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.pubrev.2006.02.008> (Accessed 16 December 2013)
- Saricca, M. Fortunati, L., O’Sullivan, J., Balcytiene, A., Macgregor, P., Nuust. V., Roussou, N., Meso, K., Pereira, X and de Luca, F (2010) The early stages of the integration of the Internet in EU newsrooms, *European Journal of Communication*, 25, 413-422. DOI:10.1177/0267323110380996 (Accessed 16th December 2013)
- Smith, W. (1956) Product differentiation and market segmentation as alternative marketing strategies, *Journal of Marketing*, 21, pp 3-8.
- Sweetser, K.D , Golan. G.J and Wanta, W (2008) Intermedia Agenda Setting in Television, Advertising and Blogs During the 2004 Election, *Mass Communication and Society*, 11 (2) DOI:10.1080/15205430701590267 (Accessed: 4th December 2013)
- van Ruler, B (2004) The communication grid: an introduction of a model of four communication strategies *Public Relations Review*, 30, 123–143 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.pubrev.2004.01.002> (Accessed: 16th December 2013)
- Verhoeven, P., Tench, R., Zerfass, R., Moreno, A., Vercic, D. (2012) How European PR practitioners handle digital and social media, *Public Relations Review*, 38, pp162-164. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.pubrev.2011.08.015> (Accessed 16 December 2013)
- Wright, D.K., Hinson, M.D., (2010) How new communications media are being used in public relations: a longitudinal analysis, *Public Relations Journal*, Vol.4, No.3 Summer 2010 <http://www.prsa.org/Intelligence/PRJournal/Documents/2010tWrightHinson.pdf> [accessed 20th April 2014]
- Wallsten, K. (2007). Agenda setting and the blogosphere: An analysis of the relationship between mainstream media and political blogs. *Review of Policy Research*, 24, pp 567–587.
- Waters, R.D, Tindall, N.T.J, Morton,, T.S, (2010) Media Catching and the Journalist – Public Relations Practitioner Relationship: How Social Media are Changing the Practice of Media Relations, *Journal of Public Relations Research* 22, pp 241-264 DOI:10.1080/10627261003799202 (Accessed 16 December 2013)

Appendix A – Cluster groups and demographic profile

	Sceptics	Observers	Hunters	Promoters	Architects
Gender	Male 68%	Male 53%	Female 51%	Male 60%	Male 63%
Age	46-64 (65%)	28-45 (49%)	28-45 (55%)	28-45 (58%)	28-45 (64%)
Where most of their professional content appears	Magazine 51%	Magazine 43%	Magazine 36%	Online 48%	Online 45%
Size of their organisation	Large 33%/Small 31%	Large 32%	Large 43%	Small 34%	Large 48%
Geographic Audience	International 51%	International 52%	National 40%	International 50%	International 43%

Appendix B – Clusters profile in relation to hours worked, knowledge, followers and work-home balance

	Sceptics	Observers	Hunters	Promoters	Architects
Typical No of Hours Using Social Media for Work per Day	1.5	2.3	3.3	3.3	8.7
How do you rate your knowledge in using social media for your work? [1=no knowledge, 5= complete knowledge]	1.9	2.9	3.5	3.6	3.9
No of followers on preferred social networking/microblogging site	Up to 100	101-500	101-500	More than 500	More than 500
Percentage of personal to work use for use of social media	50% Work	44% Work	54% Work	58% Work	60% Work

Appendix C – Cluster profile for Using Social Media for Professional Tasks

	Sceptics	Observers	Hunters	Promoters	Architects
Most common reason for using social media for work	Sourcing	Sourcing	Sourcing	Publishing and Promoting	Sourcing
Type of social media most commonly used	Professional Social Networking Sites	Social Networking Sites/Professional Social Networking Sites	Microblogs	Microblogs	Microblogs

Appendix D:

DV1: Hours Spent Per Day Using Social Media for Work

There is a significant difference in the amount of time each cluster spends using social media per day with Architects using it the most, Hunters and Promoters in joint 2nd place, Observers in 4th place and Sceptics using it the least. A one way ANOVA to look at the amount of time spent using social media per day found a significant difference between the clusters $F(4, 764) = 398, MS_E = 1.86, p < .001$. Post hoc tests (using Games-Howell due to Levene's statistic being $< .001$) revealed that although there was no significant difference between the amount of time Hunters and Promoters spend using social media per day, Architects spend significantly more time using social media per day than each of the other 4 clusters and Sceptics spend significantly less time per day using social media than each of the other 4 clusters. In addition, Observers spend significantly less time using social media than Hunters, Promoters and Architects.

Table 2: A comparison between the clusters in relation to time spent per day using social media for work

	Hunters (<i>M</i> = 3.29)	Promoters (<i>M</i> = 3.30)	Architects (<i>M</i> = 8.66)	Sceptics (<i>M</i> = 1.45)	Observers (<i>M</i> = 2.30)
Hunters (<i>M</i> = 3.29)	-				
Promoters (<i>M</i> = 3.30)	ns	-			
Architects (<i>M</i> = 8.66)	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	-		
Sceptics (<i>M</i> = 1.45)	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	-	
Observers (<i>M</i> = 2.30)	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	-

ns = no significant difference

Appendix E:

DV2: Self-Rated Knowledge of Social Media

There a significant difference between the clusters in how they rate their own level of knowledge of social media for work with Architects and Promoters reporting the highest levels of knowledge, followed by Hunters, then Observers, and lastly Sceptics. A one way ANOVA found that there was a significant difference between the clusters in how they rated their knowledge levels, $F(4, 764) = 84.61$, $MS_E = 0.64$, $p < .001$. Post hoc tests (using Games-Howell due to Levene's statistic being $< .001$) revealed that Sceptics reported significantly lower levels of knowledge than each of the 4 other clusters; Observers rated themselves as having significantly lower levels of knowledge than the Hunters, the Promoters, and the Architects; Architects reported a significantly higher level of knowledge than the Hunters, the Sceptics and the Observers (although not the Promoters); the Promoters rated themselves as having a significantly higher level of knowledge than the Sceptics and the Observers; and the Hunters rated themselves as having a significantly lower level of knowledge than the Architects and a significantly higher level of knowledge than the Sceptics and the Observers.

Table 3: A comparison between clusters in relation to how they rated their own levels of knowledge in the use of social media for work

	Hunters (<i>M</i> = 3.51)	Promoters (<i>M</i> = 3.60)	Architects (<i>M</i> = 3.85)	Sceptics (<i>M</i> = 1.93)	Observers (<i>M</i> = 2.93)
Hunters (<i>M</i> = 3.51)	-				
Promoters (<i>M</i> = 3.60)	ns	-			
Architects (<i>M</i> = 3.85)	$p = .002$	ns	-		
Sceptics (<i>M</i> = 1.93)	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	-	
Observers (<i>M</i> = 2.93)	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	-

ns = no significant difference

Appendix F:

DV3: Diversity of Social Media Used for Work

There is a difference between the clusters in relation to the number of different types of social media they use at work with Architects and Promoters using the most, followed by Hunters, then Observers, and Sceptics using the least. A one way ANOVA found a significant difference between the clusters $F(4, 764) = 85.06, MS_E = 2.19, p < .001$. Post hoc tests (using Games-Howell due to Levene's statistic being $< .001$) revealed that the Architects use significantly more types of social media for work than the Hunters, Sceptics, and the Observers (all $p < .001$); the Promoters use significantly more types of social media for work than the Hunters, Sceptics and Observers (all $p < .001$); the Hunters use significantly more types of social media for work than the Sceptics ($p < .001$) and the Observers ($p = .002$) and significantly less than the Promoters ($p < .001$) and the Architects ($p < .001$); the Sceptics use significantly less types of social media for work than all of the other clusters (all $p < .001$); the Observers use significantly less types of social media for work than the Hunters ($p = .002$), the Promoters ($p < .001$) and the Architects ($p < .001$) but significantly more than the Sceptics ($p < .001$).

Table 4: A comparison between the clusters in relation to the number of different types of social media they use at work

	Hunters ($M=4.56$)	Promoters ($M=5.39$)	Architects ($M=5.48$)	Sceptics ($M=2.03$)	Observers ($M=3.94$)
Hunters ($M=4.56$)	-				
Promoters ($M=5.39$)	$p < .001$	-			
Architects ($M=5.48$)	$p < .001$	<i>ns</i>	-		
Sceptics ($M=2.03$)	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	-	
Observers ($M=3.94$)	$p = .002$	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	-

ns = no significant difference

Appendix G:

DV4: Diversity of Different Professional Tasks Social Media is used for at Work

There a difference between the clusters in relation to the number of different professional tasks e.g. publishing, promoting, sourcing, networking etc. they use social media for at work with the Promoters, Architects, and Hunters using them for the most, followed by the Observers, and the Sceptics using the least. A one way ANOVA found a significant difference between the clusters $F(4, 764) = 66.41, MS_E = 1.52, p < .001$. Post hoc tests (using Games-Howell due to Levene's statistic being $< .001$) revealed that the Sceptics use social media for significantly smaller number of different types of professional tasks than all of the other clusters (all $p < .001$); and the Observers use social media for a significantly smaller number of different types of professional tasks than the Hunters, Architects and Promoters but a significantly larger number then the Sceptics (all $p < .001$).

Table 5: A comparison between the clusters in relation to the number of different types of task they use social media for at work

	Hunters (<i>M</i> =4.06)	Promoters (<i>M</i> =4.12)	Architects (<i>M</i> =4.00)	Sceptics (<i>M</i> =1.73)	Observers (<i>M</i> =3.19)
Hunters (<i>M</i> =4.06)	-				
Promoters (<i>M</i> =4.12)	<i>ns</i>	-			
Architects (<i>M</i> =4.00)	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	-		
Sceptics (<i>M</i> =1.73)	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	-	
Observers (<i>M</i> =3.19)	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	-

ns = no significant difference

Appendix H:

DV5: Ratio of Journalists' use of Social Media for work in comparison to home

There a difference between the clusters in relation to the percentage of journalists' overall time spent using social media time for work rather than personal use with the Architects, Promoters, and the Hunters using it more for work than for personal use and the Observers using social media less for work than they do for personal use. A one way ANOVA to look found a significant difference between the clusters $F(4, 764) = 7.37, MS_E = 681.25, p < .001$. Post hoc tests (using Games-Howell due to Levene's statistic being $< .001$) revealed that this was due to the Observers attributing significantly less of their total time spent using social media as being due to work (rather than personal) reasons in comparison to the Hunters ($p = .006$), the Promoters ($p < .001$) and the Architects ($p < .001$).

Table 6: A comparison between the clusters in relation to the percentage of time spent using social media is for work rather than for personal reasons

	Hunters ($M = 54\%$)	Promoters ($M = 58\%$)	Architects ($M = 60\%$)	Sceptics ($M = 50\%$)	Observers ($M = 44\%$)
Hunters ($M = 54\%$)	-				
Promoters ($M = 58\%$)	<i>ns</i>	-			
Architects ($M = 60\%$)	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	-		
Sceptics ($M = 50\%$)	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	-	
Observers ($M = 44\%$)	$p = .006$	$p < .001$	$p < .001$	<i>ns</i>	-

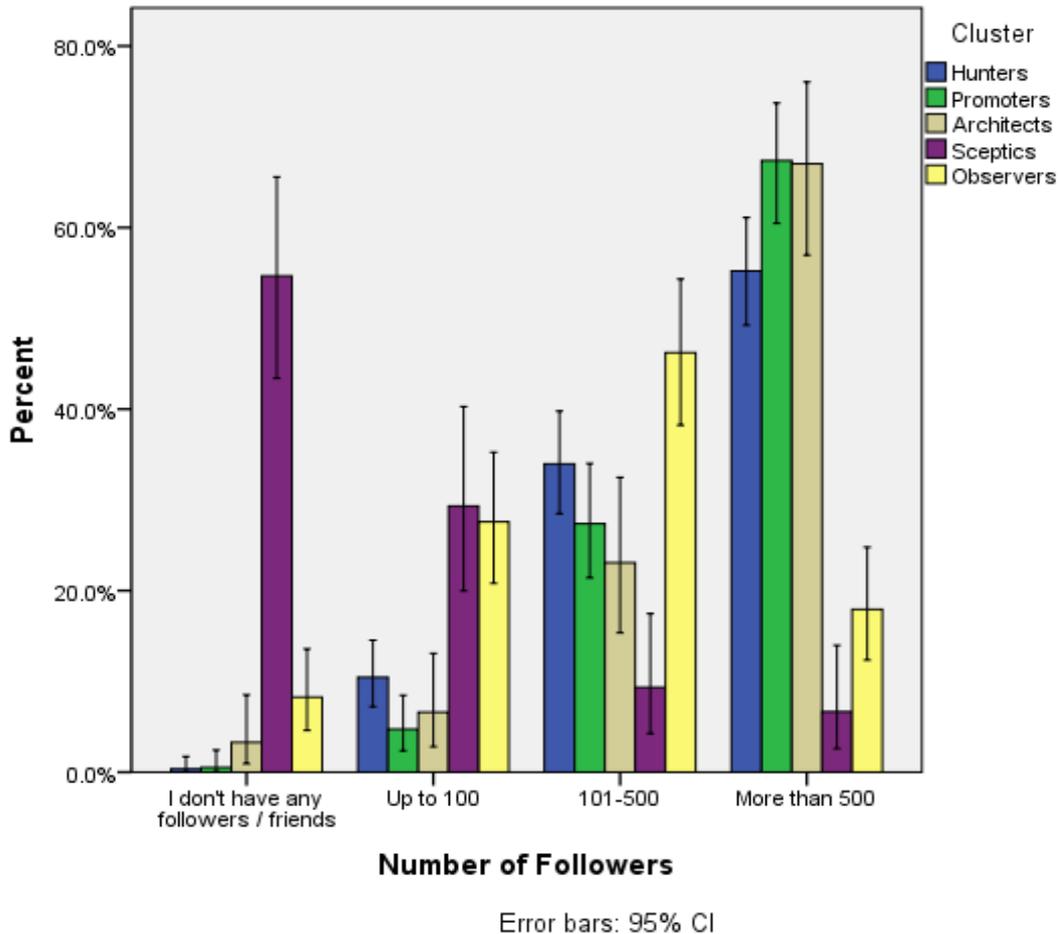
ns = no significant difference

Appendix I

DV6: Number of followers

There a significant difference between the clusters based on the number of followers they report as having with Sceptics being more likely to have no followers than followers, Hunter, Promoters and Architects being more likely to have more than 500 followers than less than 500 followers, and Observers more likely to have 101-500 followers than less than 100 or more than 500. A chi square test revealed that there was a significant association between the number of followers the journalists report having and the clusters they are in, $\chi^2(12)=408.78, p < .001$.

Percentage of journalists in each cluster who do or do not report having followers and how many they report having.

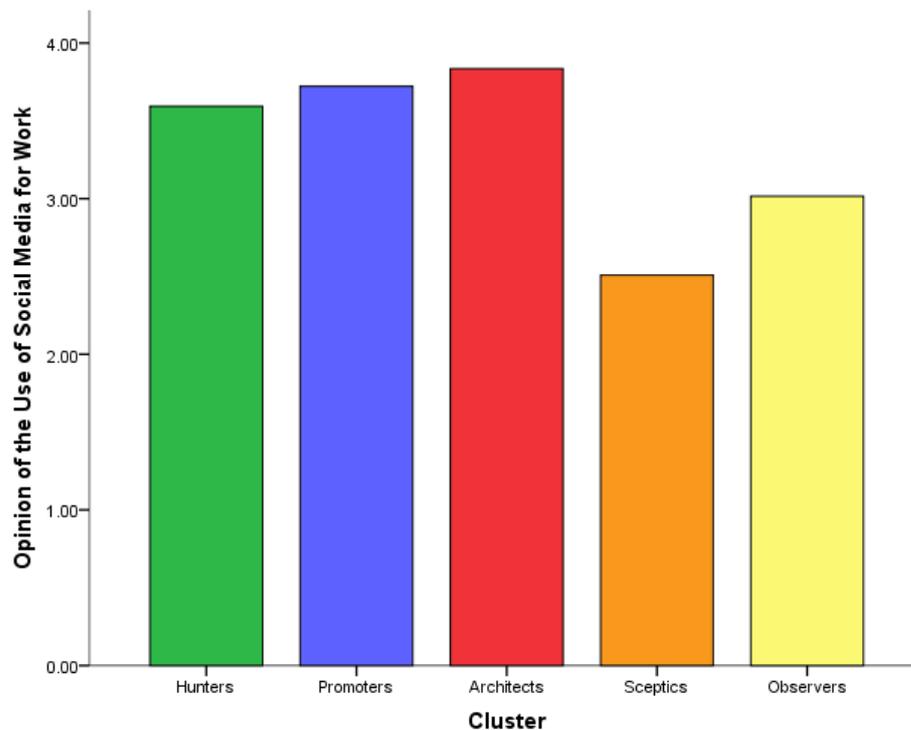


As can be seen from Figure 1, Hunters are significantly more likely to have over 500 followers than they are to have zero, up to 100, or 101-500 followers; they're significantly more likely to have 101-500 followers than they are to have zero or up to a hundred followers; and they're significantly more likely to have up to a hundred followers than they are to have no followers. Similarly, both the Promoters and the Architects are significantly more likely to report having more than 500 followers than they are to have 101-500 followers, up to 100 followers, or no followers; and they're significantly more likely to report having 101-500 followers than they are to have up to a hundred followers or no followers. In contrast, the Sceptics are significantly more likely to report have no followers than they are to having up to 100, 101-500 or more than 500 followers. Sceptics are also significantly more likely to report having up to 100 followers than they are to report having 101-500 or more than 500 followers. Finally, the Observers are significantly more likely to report having 101-500 followers than they are to report having more than 500 followers or 100 or less followers.

Appendix J: DV7: Opinion of the Use of Social Media for Work

There is a difference between the clusters in their opinion of social media. A one way ANOVA revealed that there was a significant difference between UK journalists in their opinions of the use of social media depending on the clusters they belonged to, $F(4, 764) = 15.8, p < .001, MS_E = .3$ (see Figure 3). Games-Howell post hoc comparisons revealed that this was due to the Sceptics being more against the use of social media for work than any of the rest of the clusters (all $p < .001$), the Observers being more ambivalent towards the use of social media than all of the rest of the clusters (all $p < .001$), the Architects being more in favour of the use of social media than the Hunters ($p = .007$), the Observers ($p < .001$) and the Sceptics ($p < .001$), and the Promoters being more in favour of the use of social media than the Hunters ($p = .045$), the Observers ($p < .001$), and the Sceptics ($p < .001$).

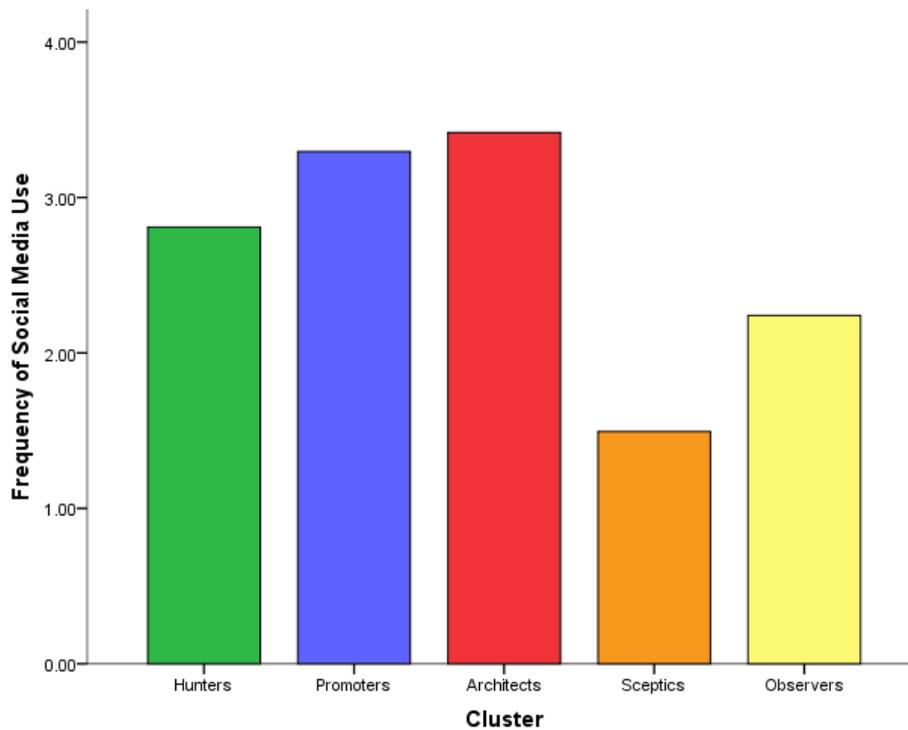
A comparison between the clusters on their opinion of the use of social media for work with the higher the rating the more in favour they are of its use.



Appendix K:
DV8: Opinion of the Use of Social Media for Work

There a difference between the frequency with which UK journalists report using social media for their work. A one way ANOVA revealed that there is a difference in the frequency with which UK journalists use social media for work based on the clusters they belong to, $F(4, 764) = 310.5, p < .001, MSE = .2$ (see Figure 4). Games-Howell post-hoc comparisons revealed that this was due to the Sceptics using social media significantly less frequently than the Observers (all $p < .001$), the Observers using social media significantly less frequently than the Hunters, the Promoters, and the Architects (all $p < .001$), and the Hunters using social media for work significantly less frequently than the Architects and the Promoters (both $p < .001$).

Frequency with which each cluster uses social media for work with the higher the rating the more frequently they use it.



Appendix J: Relationship between IV and DV and social media activity

The analysis below looked at each IV (gender, age, size of organisation, audience reach, and media sector), as well as opinion of social media and frequency of social media use, to see if there were any differences in: number of hours spent using social media in a typical day, self-rated knowledge of social media, diversity of social media (i.e. the number of types of social media used for work – blogs, microblogs, content communities and crowdsourcing sites, social networking sites, professional social networking sites, AV sharing sites, social reader and bookmarking tools), diversity of professional tasks social media used for at work (i.e. sourcing, networking, publishing and promoting, verifying, monitoring), opinion of the use of social media for work, and frequency with which social media is used for work. The results of these analyses are summarised below.

DVs

IVs	Hours Per Day	Knowledge	Diversity of Social Media	Diversity of Tasks	Opinion	Frequency
Gender	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Age	Older journalists spend less time using social media in a typical day than younger journalists	The younger the age group the higher they rated their level of knowledge	Older journalists use fewer types of social media than the younger journalists	Older journalists use social media for fewer types of tasks than the younger journalists	The younger the age group the more in favour they are of using social media for work	The younger journalist used social media more frequently than the older journalists
Size of Organisation	ns	Freelance journalists rated their knowledge as lower than those working for medium and large organisations	ns	ns	ns	ns
Audience Reach	ns	Local/Regional journalists rated their knowledge levels more highly than the other journalists	ns	ns	ns	ns
Media Sector	Online Journalists spend more time in a typical day using social media than print journalists	Online journalists rated their knowledge more highly than the print journalists did	Print journalists use fewer types of social media than the others	Print journalists use social media for fewer types of tasks than those from other media sectors do	Online journalists are more in favour of social media than print journalists	Online journalists use social media more frequently for work than the other media sectors
Opinion	The more in favour of social media they are the more time they spend using social media in a typical day	The more in favour they are of social media the higher they rate their knowledge levels	The more in favour they are of social media the more types of social media they use	The more in favour they are of social media the more types of tasks they use social media for	na	The more in favour they are the more frequently they use social media for work
Frequency of Use	The more frequently they report using social media the more time they spend using it in a typical day	The more frequently they use social media the higher they rate their knowledge levels	The more frequently they use social media the larger the variety of social media they use	The more frequently they use social media the larger the number of tasks they use it for	The more frequently they use social media for work the more in favour they are of its use	na

Ns = not significant

Na = not applicable

Appendix k: Differences in current and preferred contact method by PR practitioners to social journalist clusters %

