PERCEIVED CREDIBILITY OF THE DAILY O'COLLEGIAN BY FOUR UNIVERSITY AUDIENCES

Ву

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Thesis Approved:

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Dean of the Graduate College

PREFACE

This study examined newspaper credibility by determining how four university audiences perceive the credibility of The Daily O'Collegian at Oklahoma State University. The primary objective was to determine the similarities and differences of judging credibility by four audiences.

Some journalists believe talking about credibility harms the profession. Others believe work on improving credibility has only begun. This study is part of that beginning.

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LIST OF SYMBOLS

A Absent

df degrees of freedom

F F-ratio

Fac Faculty

OC <u>O'Collegian</u>

p probability

P Present

PIO Public Information Officer

Stu Students

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Public Attitude and Press Freedom

Public respect for journalism in the United States has fallen dramatically in recent years, threatening a basic foundation of the democratic system. A 1985 report by the American Society of Newspaper Editors (ASNE) suggests three-fourths of American adults have a problem with media credibility. 1

After years of taking a back seat to other concerns, the credibility issue has emerged on the forefront. Educators now discuss it, panelists debate it, and professional journals address it. To some extent, critics even see a backlash within the profession to keeping the issue of credibility in the spotlight.

"Enough, some of us are saying," said Louis Boccardi, president of the Associated Press. "One recent convention planning session dismissed any idea of a segment on credibility . . . At another meeting, credibility was described as 'last year's issue,' as though the subject had been milked and it was time to move on."

While many journalists sneer at credibility as a "buzz-word of passing fancy," others contend it is a pivotal issue

holding at stake the very foundations of press freedom. Some good journalists would argue that all the talk about credibility harms the profession and that the price of good newspapering always will be a credibility problem. Boccardi said, "As journalists we should not be paranoid about criticism, about the fact that sometimes we must do many things that do not leave our audience smiling and friendly."

Acknowledging that some journalists dismiss the credibility issue as a fad, some analysts contend ignoring or or failing to resolve the credibility issue will risk public acceptance of First Amendment principles. "We can go on doing things just as we are and console each other at editors' conventions and . . . slowly but surely we see the vitality slip from our newsrooms because we have lost our place in society," Boccardi said.⁵

Many journalists are concerned the consequences are even more far-reaching. If the public thinks the news media can not be believed or are irresponsible, then press freedom is in jeopardy. An "ultimately hostile public" may seek legal changes eroding First Amendment guarantees of press freedom. Likewise, if the public does not care or does not know about the adequate performance of the media, then press freedom could be equally in peril. A neutral attitude by the public toward media news would provide little support for the press' constant battle for freedom with legislatures, courts, or any other so-called adversaries.

Newspaper credibility and survival are very closely

linked. Newspapers play the watchdog role but need credibility to fulfill this role effectively. Robert D. Novak, a syndicated columnist, wrote, "If separated from the masses and disbelieved by them, the media are constantly vulnerable . . . which ultimately could result in the shrinking of that freedom."

A loss of confidence in the credibility of newspapers results in readers turning to other news sources and ultimately a loss of revenues. Boccardi said, "We need to be credible, we need to develop and maintain our audiences or we shall fail financially as well as spiritually."

Statement of Problem

Most early studies have provided little insight into the factors affecting newspaper credibility. By not knowing how different aspects of journalism practices influence credibility, reporters and editors have little chance to level impact on their local credibility.

The 1985 ASNE credibility study was noted for being one of the most comprehensive ever undertaken. In the past, many studies by noted organizations, such as the Gallup Poll and the Roper Organization, have attempted to measure public sentiment toward the media with agree-disagree types of responses. Even a recent Gallup Organization survey commissioned by Times Mirror Co. defined credibility by a one-dimensional term, "believability." These have provided little depth of attitude expressed or the reasons behind them. 10

In the 1960s, researchers began experimenting with sophisticated measuring instruments to better determine public attitudes toward the image or credibility of media. However, few studies are found where measuring instruments were used to gather this information. 11

Terry Horne, in a 1982 study on perceived media credibility, wrote that news media need more than single-item 'believability' surveys reported by research organizations during the past five decades. Such data do not provide the news media with enough information to determine if deficiencies exist, and how the best way might be to approach them. 12

The purpose of this study was to provide some insight into the issues of newspaper credibility and, in particular, into the credibility of The Daily O'Collegian, circulation 14,000, which serves Oklahoma State University. It examined four factors comprising credibility and how different campus audiences perceive its credibility.

Newspaper Versus Television Credibility

Although the differences and similarities of television and newspaper credibility can be discussed at length, the purpose of this report was to examine newspaper credibility. Such a report, however, would be incomplete without investigating the credibility of another primary medium—television—and the research regarding it. Recent studies have found respondents question the credibility of television as well as the credibility of newspapers.

On leaving his term as ASNE president in 1984, Creed Black, chairman and publisher of Knight-Ridder's Lexington, Kentucky, <u>Herald-Leader</u>, illustrated the need to clarify the relationship between newspaper and television credibility:

The public lumps the printed press and television together in something called 'the media' and makes little, if any, distinction between the two. The result is that newspapers are blamed for the sins and shortcomings of what television calls news . . . When critics of the press get down to specifics, more often than not they unleash a litany of complaints about television, not newspapers. 13

Black's farewell statement inspired a gathering of 22 newspaper and television journalists at a meeting sponsored by the Poynter Institute for Media Studies in St. Petersburg, Florida. While there, Black expanded his argument, saying, "Newspapers are being tarred with the brush of TV's transgression." 14

During the meetings, Don Hewlitt, executive producer of CBS's "60 Minutes," said,

Creed, neither of us (TV/newspapers) is so good, nor so pure nor so untouched by profit motives that we can afford to be so dammed goody-two-shoes. Your'e not that good, we're not that bad, and cut it out, will you? It's becoming very unbecoming. 15

The influence of television on newspaper readers has become more and more evident. The Roper Studies in the late 1950s and early 1960s indicated people looked at TV more than any other medium. A nationwide Roper study released in 1961 revealed, for the first time, television was perceived by respondents as more believable than other media.

These results ignited investigations of the relationship between audience characteristics and perceived media credibility. 17

Some researchers suggest the growing acceptability of television as an information source reflected the public's increased reliance on television for news. 18 Others question Roper's findings, saying that 'believability,' commonly used by Roper for measuring credibility, was actually connected with 'seeing it for oneself,' which naturally would give television an edge. But Roper retorted, " . . . 25 years earlier, radio, the completely invisible medium, had had the same edge over newspaper reports that television does now." 19

The 1985 ASNE study found the general public and frequent eraders chose television over newspapers as their preferred source of state, national, and international news. Forty-two percent of frequent newspaper readers said they would choose television if they had to select one source for local news. Television also rated ahead of newspapers with frequent readers and the general public in terms of reporting quality, reliability of coverage, and coverage of controversial issues. Respondents also preferred television as the medium they would believe if they heard conflicting reports of news events. ²⁰

There were, however, some conflicting results in the ASNE study. For instance, the survey found in "overall" credibility ratings, newspapers edged television with 32

percent of all respondents saying newspaper credibility was high compared with 30 percent saying television's was high. In addition, 25 percent of respondents gave newspapers "overall" a low credibility rating compared to 27 percent giving television an "overall" low rating. 21

David Lawrence, publisher of the <u>Detroit Free Press</u> and ASNE credibility committee chairman, said despite the "momentarily depressing news" for newspapers in the report, there were a number of positive finds. For example, 58 percent of respondents said it was important to have a free press even when it acts irresponsibly. The survey also found that respondents giving low credibility ratings to newspapers and television were also those most likely to feel the media abuse their constitutional freedoms. ²²

In addition, the survey found frequent readership improves credibility. Thirty-four percent of respondents who read their papers three times a week gave them high credibility marks as compared to 26 percent of low-frequency readers. 23

The Gallup-Times Mirror Co. poll released earlier this year was commissioned to resolve some "puzzling inconsistencies" of earlier research and to uncover the public's basic attitudes toward the media. The survey results suggested there is no credibility problem when credibility is defined as "believability." However, credibility is not easily defined in a single dimension. Credibility is not always synonymous with believability.

Some critics claim the ingrained differences within the media can distort direct comparisons. Wilbur Schramm said:

beyond their basic nature, in seeking either credibility or popularity. A horse cannot roar very well and a lion is unlikely to become a useful beast of burden. Television has a quality of entertainment that audiences do not want to lose. Newspapers have a power of careful documentation that audiences do not want them to lose, only in exchange for becoming faster and more sprightly. 25

David Broder of the <u>Washington Post</u> seemed to summarize accurately the pending differences between the credibility of these powerful media. He said, "It strikes me that the relevant distinctions are not between the (print) press and television, but between good journalism and bad journalism."²⁶

Eroding Newspaper Credibility

The first step in trying to tackle the credibility issue is to face the current status of newspaper credibility and to see what events contributed to the public image. Michael Gartner, former president of the <u>Des Moines Register</u> and <u>Tribune</u>, says hostility toward the press comes at a time when many journalists see the profession at its peak. "Newspapers, by and large, are better, fairer and more accurate than they have ever been," he said.²⁷

James Daubel, president of the Associated Press Managing Editors, believes newspapers are better than they have ever been, "but the information society is just moving so fast it is very difficult to keep up." 28

Boccardi seems to agree as he commented the press has improved dramatically this century but problems continue because of the intensity of print during this high technology period. He said:

It has become a cliche to speak of our age as a media age, yet the term cannot be dismissed. For with the ubiquitousness of our media, we have created a news environment, one far more sensitive to what we do and how we do it, one in many ways far less tolerant of our tradition, and one far more demanding of us because, despite all the hoopla, they (the public) need us more than ever.²⁹

George Watson, vice president of ABC News, notes that the public does not seem impressed by the argument that the press is more conscientious and careful. Freedom of the press probably is in bigger trouble than many people understand, he said.

The Harris Poll shows the public's trust in the press was highest in 1973. That is, the American people trusted the press most during the Watergate era. At that time, the press appeared vigorous, as people heard about the corruption and lies of powerful men. 30

Many analysts have pointed out, however, that the role of the press usually is not amorous.

"The press, by its nature, is rarely beloved--nor should that be its aim," wrote <u>Time Magazine</u>'s William Henry. "Too often it must be the bearer of bad tidings." He said since World War II, journalists have covered the turmoil of Civil Rights, conveyed vivid scenes of domestic protest and battle-field gore during the Vietnam War, and participated in the

collapse of a presidency. 31

The National Opinion Research Center found in 1976 that 29 percent of the population had "a great deal of confidence in the press." By 1983 that figure had fallen to 13.7 percent. A recent example of the souring attitude toward the press came when the Reagan Administration invaded Grenada and excluded reporters from the scene. Journalists argued the press' freedom and the public's right to know were at stake. But to many people, Henry points out, the lack of coverage "seemed inconsequential—even gratifying—as if laryngitis had silenced a chronic complainer." 32

Reacting to the Grenada situation, Robert McCloskey, former Washington Post ombudsman, said the public reacted cumulatively with a judgment that the press "had it coming." The Grenada dispute seemed to "uncork a pent-up public hostility. It reinforced a perception that journalists regard themselves as utterly detached from, and perhaps even hostile to, the government of their country." 33

Polls taken within six months of the Grenada invasion indicated a change in public opinion. For example, a Louis Harris survey taken two months after the invasion found the public believed reporters should have accompanied invading soldiers.

Similarly, newspaper credibility was damaged in 1981 when Washington Post reporter Janet Cooke was forced to return a Pulitzer Prize after admitting she had invented the title character of "Jimmy's World," a story of an eight-year-old

heroine addict. 35

Less than a year later, the <u>New York Times</u> published a report from Cambodia by freelancer Christopher Jones. It turned out Jones had written the story from his home in Spain and had partially plagiarized a 1930 novel. 36

In November 1985, Wad Roberts was fired from the Chicago Sun-Times after he fabricated a story about various colorful Texas characters watching a football game in a small town bar. The patrons described in the story and the bar could not be located when the story was checked for authenticity. 37

Reasons for newspapers to be in a credibility mess stem, in part, from incidents like those just mentioned. However, there are numerous other factors which come into play. Some analysts view the public's negative attitude as part of a broader lack of confidence in all major institutions, as well as a reaction against the growing power of the media. Others cite the "blame the messenger" syndrome as people resent reporters bringing them a steady flow of bad news. 38

Gannett Chairman and Chief Executive Officer Allen H.

Neuharth warned of a "rising tide of public opinion" with the attitude the press distorts the public's view of life by over-emphasizing the negative and ignoring the positive. He said there also is a perception of a

... constant negative tone that is getting the public down on the press and paves the way for demagogues on the left and right to rally people against the press to further their own causes. 37

Ralph Izard, professor of journalism at Ohio University,

said his surveys indicate the public's criticism centers on invasion of the individual's privacy, media overaggressiveness, inaccuracy, and fabrication of information, plagiarism, and a perceived influence of profit-making on news judgment.³⁹

Media critic Thomas Griffith said:

The public might agree that the press, while making money, often does good (though not always in a lovable manner). It peeks behind doors; tries to get at the truth by exposing wrongdoings, detecting deception, piercing propaganda, deflating inflated reputations, questioning motives. Its attitude, which it has preached and practiced, is skepticism. Now, it finds, the public is applying that skepticism to the press.⁴¹

Critics contend the public's negative attitude is bringing headstrong newspapers down to earth. Griffith said, "The news is that the press is at last beginning to shed its romantic image of itself as the one public defender of pure heart, purging all those other rascals."

Alvin P. Sanoff, <u>U.S. News and World Report</u>, captured the public's attitude. He wrote, "America's press, which often views itself as a knight on a white horse, is finding that the public sees its once shining armor as badly tarnished." 43

ENDNOTES

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

"Well, you don't have to be a gourmet cook to recognize a bad hot dog. And you don't have to be Ernest Hemingway to recognize the bad writing in most American newspapers."

The preceding comments by Harry Levins of the <u>St. Louis</u>

<u>Post-Dispatch</u> captures the feelings of many readers who believe their local newspapers are somehow under par. To have
a better understanding of the ramifications of newspaper
credibility, the researcher needs to consider the definition
of credibility, earlier studies on credibility, and the role
of audience demographics on credibility.

Definition of Credibility

Attitudes toward communications, like other behaviors, are learned. What people believe to be powerful or credible varies from culture to culture, according to Carl I. Hovland, who headed a series of communication studies at Yale University. A common factor influencing the effectiveness of a communication is the person or source originating the message—the cues provided as to the trustworthiness, intentions, and affiliations of this source.²

Howland said in Communication and Persuasion:

An individual's tendency to accept a conclusion advocated by a given communicator will depend in part upon how well informed and intelligent he believes the communicator to be. However, a recipient may believe that a communicator is capable of transmitting valid statements, but still be inclined to reject the communication if he suspects the communicator is motivated to make nonvalid assertions. seems necessary, therefore, to make a distinction between (1) the extent to which a communicator is perceived to be a source of valid assertions (his 'expertise') and (2) the degree of confidence in the communicator's intent to communicate the assertions he considers most valid (his 'trustworthiness'). In any given case, the weight given a communicator's assertion by his audience will depend upon both of these factors, and this resultant value can be referred to as the 'credibility' of the communicator.3

Several theorists and researchers have attempted to identify the underlying dimensions of credibility. Aristotle listed good sense, good moral character, and goodwill as qualities which "induce us to believe a thing apart from any proof of it." 4

Boccardi defined credibility as meaning that newspapers want their audience to trust in the accuracy of what is said.

"We want them to find our work fair . . . to understand the role of a free press in this society, a role that will often force us to bring bad news they might in truth be just as happy not to learn."

Kenneth Anderson and Theodore Clevenger, Jr. defined credibility as the image held of a communicator at a given time by a receiver. One communicator, in particular, could be newspapers.

Although many studies never actually gave a definition

of credibility, those that did included everything from communication theories to lists of bipolar adjectives.

Greenburg, Bradley, and Roloff suggested findings in credibility research are not always consistent and point to the different definitions of credibility as a possible source for the discrepancy. The variety of definitions in previous research suggested the complex nature of the credibility issue.

To evaluate earlier work better, an operational definition of credibility was needed to apply to various types of media. For this paper, <u>credibility</u> was defined as how the public perceives the image of a medium (or media) and the confidence the public has in a medium at any given time.

Researchers in earlier studies also have used <u>media</u> and <u>press</u> interchangeably. For this paper, they were considered separately. The word <u>media</u> was used to mean more than one medium, like television and newspapers. The word <u>press</u> was used to refer to newspapers.

Earlier Credibility Studies

Reviewing other studies on the credibility issue helped put this study on newspaper credibility in perspective. By knowing what research has been done, the researcher could identify what areas needed research. Examining previous studies helped in the design of research methodology and the identification of credibility factors used as the bases for this study.

Schramm noted a key difference between today's criticism of the media and earlier criticism:

In mid-twentieth century America, both the number of critics and the bitter vehemence of their attacks set this period apart. In fact, it sometimes appears to those who produce the mass media that everyone is an avid critic. Surely, this is a reflection of an importance of mass communication. Nearly everyone is convinced that the mass media, good or bad, are central to modern society.

Several researchers and academicians have attempted to identify the factors comprising credibility. A study in the 1930s done for Fortune by the Roper Organization found about one person in three expressed reservations about the accuracy of the media. According to a recent Gallup survey, this figure has remained basically the same. Studying credibility began in earnest in the 1950s when Hovland and Weiss reported there had been little research in this area. Later, Hovland, Irving Janis, and Harold Kelley, in their research on communicator credibility, distinguished between the extent to which a communicator is perceived to be a source of valid assertion (expertise) and the degree of confidence in the communicator's intent to communicate the assertions he considers most valid (trustworthiness).

Many of the early studies used Likert-type or semantic differential scales to determine credibility. These had limitations as the participant must select from a limited number of choices and the researcher cannot be sure of including all the relevant ones. Including too many items, however, can become too burdensome.

The four dominating factors emerging during research by Jack L. Whitehead, Jr. were trustworthiness, competence, dynamism, and objectivity. Trustworthiness suggested the participants expected the source to be honest, just, moral, friendly and virtuous. Competence was described by adjectives like energetic, active, and aggressive. Objectivity factors indicated the subjects expected the high credibility source to be open-minded, objective, and also impartial. These four factors accounted for 97 percent of the variance in Whitehead's study. 12

David K. Berlo, James B. Lemert, and Robert J. Mertz identified three significant credibility factors in two separate credibility studies. One study involved 91 Michigan State University students; the other, 117 Lansing, Mich., residents. The factors were: safety, qualification, and dynamism.

Safety included bipolar adjectives such as kind-cruel, fair-unfair, objective-subjective, and unselfish-selfish. The safety factor accounted for 34 percent of the total variance. Qualification included experience-inexperience, informed-uninformed, intelligent-unintelligent, and able-inept. This accounted for 16 percent of the total variance. The Berlo team suggested safety and qualification were similar to Hovland's trustworthiness and expertise factors. Accounting for 10 percent of the total variation was dynamism. It included such scales as fast-slow, aggressive-meek, forceful-forceless, active-passive, and bold-timid. 14

Berlo concluded from this research, "It seems clear that there are three, and only three, stable and meaningful dimensions of source evaluation." 15

Shaw used the following bipolar adjectives to measure credibility: unreliable-trustworthy, selfish-public spirited, fragmentary-complete, biased-impartial, and reckless-prudent. Of the five dimensions he studied, perceived trustworthiness, impartiality, and completeness appear to have influenced the respondent most. However, Shaw warned these factors seem to be only necessary, but not sufficient, conditions for newspaper credibility. 16

Two decades ago, the Roper Organization began surveying the American public's evaluation of various mass media. Since 1961, according to Roper data, television has been the most credible medium for news, cited twice as frequently as newspapers, its nearest competitor. 17 However, the Roper question provided no cognitive reference point (e.g., local or national channel/network/newspaper operation) for respondents to use when selecting which medium's report they'd be most likely to believe. 18

Some credibility studies have used factor analysis. The technique has produced different factors for different researchers, most of which developed two or three factors.

. . "(It) is seen that different researchers have used the same quantitative technique—factor analysis—to obtain somewhat different research outcomes." For example, the characteristic 'honesty' appeared in at least three different

factors: evaluation, safety, and character. 20

Kim Giffin, who directed a series of studies in credibility and trust at the University of Kansas in 1967-1968, suggested five credibility factors: expertness, reliability, intentions, activeness, and personal attraction.²¹

Michael Burgoon, Judee Burgoon, and Miriam Wilkinson found the confusion of results from previous studies in media credibility in general, and newspapers specifically, may stem from problems including (1) most research questions ask people about media as an institution rather than questioning them about experience with local papers, and (2) the research has focused on one element of credibility such as dependability, believability, or accuracy. This narrow view causes problems as credibility should be treated as a multifaceted concept. 22

Hovland said, "Any member of different attitudes may underlie the influence exerted by a given communicator," including affection-admiration, awe-fear, and trust-confidence. He said these are related to perceived credibility, including beliefs about knowledge, intelligence, and sincerity. 23

A number of different factors contributing to credibility have been identified, although there has not always been agreement on their existence or their labels. For this study, the terms used for credibility factors were: trustworthiness, expertise, believability, and dynamism. These will be discussed in greater detail in the next chapter.

Credibility and the Audience

Concerns about media credibility occur among all kinds of people, but different kinds of people have different kinds of problems with the media. For example, one group's problem with credibility may focus on a dislike of opinions in the news media, while another group may focus on a distrust of the motives and competence of reporters. 24

Asking who is affected by newspaper credibility is a fundamental element of the entire credibility issue and newspaper readership. Literature about demographics and its relationship to credibility is mixed and often contradictory. Some questions have attempted to find a relationship between credibility and variables such as sex, age, education, income, party affiliation, occupation, social class, religion, and place of residence.

An example of the mixed results includes how age alters perceived credibility. Mulder's research suggests age has a direct impact on credibility. He found young respondents are more inclined to believe newspapers. The ASNE found people in the 18 to 24 age group-gave lower credibility scores to newspapers than did respondents in older age groups. However, Gantz found little variance on credibility across major demographic subgroups, including age. 27

Earlier studies suggested men ranked the print media as being more accurate and truthful, while women assigned the higher rank to television. However, recent studies indicate no sex relationship. 28

Westley and Severin found the higher the education level, the greater the credibility of newspapers and the greater the distrust of television. In the ASNE study, people in the highest and lowest education and income groups rated newspapers lower on credibility than people in the middle groups. Also, the credibility of television tended to decline as education level of the respondent increased.²⁹

Westley and Severin also concluded that the trust people assign to the media is "not related to the media people use." Gantz's study suggested, as did earlier reports, there appears to be a direct, but modest, relationship between credibility and usage. 31

Burgoon, et al., found a person's image of a newspaper does not predict a person'will read a newspaper. However, they found image does predict satisfaction with newspapers, which, in turn, is related to reading habits. Image dimensions usually correlate with readership frequency. 32

Research by Bogart supported this assertion. He concluded that newspaper critics generally are the most faithful readers and make the heaviest demands for a high quality newspaper. 33

The ASNE study found belief in the credibility of newspapers is related positively to more frequent newspaper readership. Among those people who read their main newspaper
twice a week or less, 31 percent gave newspapers a low credibility rating, compared to 26 percent who gave it a high
rating. Among those who read their main newspaper three times

a week or more, 21 percent rated the credibility low, compared with 34 percent rating the credibility high. 34

"This does not, in itself, mean that heightened credibility leads to readership," the ASNE stated.

It could be that the same types of people who believe newspapers also tend to read them. However, the study strongly suggests credibility plays a significant role in the news sources people choose. 35

This study investigated the significance of different sample audiences and newspaper credibility. The Daily O'Collegian sample was divided into four groups based on their functions at Oklahoma State University: students, faculty/staff members, public information officers (PIO), and O'Collegian reporters.

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CHAPTER III

CREDIBILITY FACTORS

From review of literature and discussions with newspaper readers, four factors comprising credibility were identified for this study. They were trustworthiness, expertise, believability, and dynamism. By identifying factors comprising credibility, the researcher is able to design a more consistent method to measure credibility and its effects. Evidence pointing to these four factors infiltrates many areas of communications research.

Trustworthiness

Donald D. Jones, ombudsman for the <u>Kansas City Star</u> and <u>Times</u>, is convinced that "readers don't trust us--newspapers, radio, television, magazines. They don't trust any of us." Many comments Jones commonly hears about newspapers are the same ones recurring in the literature--objectivity, fairness, and public service--and were the focus of the trustworthiness dimension of newspaper credibility.

Many people, including those in the profession, believe trustworthiness is the key to the credibility issue. The difficulty lies in obtaining trustworthiness with the complications of daily newspapering. Objectivity, fairness,

and public service, which help identify trustworthiness, are needed to have a credible newspaper. The public's perception of newspapers, however, does not always include these dimensions.

In his farewell address as president of ASNE, John Hughes, editor of the Christian Science Monitor, said:

We proclaim that our newspapers are not the instrument of narrow groups of financial interests, but represent the people. We believe this in our hearts. But perhaps we have to do a better job of convincing people of this. All too often, our readers believe journalists have set themselves above and beyond ordinary mortals, and that their newspapers see themselves as judge, jury and executioner.²

A decade after Watergate, editorialists observed, the press was widely maligned, criticized, abused, and, most of all, distrusted. As evidence of the distrust they cited numerous polls and pointed to the public's initial failure to be outraged when reporters were barred from Grenada. 3

Another factor fueling distrust is the suspicion that some journalists care little about the facts. For example, when the <u>Washington Post</u>, <u>New York Times</u>, and the <u>New York Daily News</u> discovered during 1981 and 1982 that they had printed stories which reporters had embellished or invented, much of the public took these extreme cases as typical of journalism and expressed delight that major news organizations had been humiliated. 4

In defense, journalists point out deceptions, like the Janet Cooke episode, are oddities. They said most stories of consequence are covered by a variety of news organizations

and the pressure of competition makes it nearly impossible to fake a story from a major news source.⁵

Another factor frequently cited in eroding trustworthiness of newspapers is the ever-increasing number of media monopolies. Griffith said:

To the public, the press is not David among Goliaths; it had become one of the Goliaths, Big Media, a combination of powerful television networks, large magazine groups and newspaper chains that are near monopolies. 6

In 1985, there were 1,688 U.S. daily newspapers--a number that has remained stable since the mid-1940s. Nearly 1,173 of the nation's dailies are now chain-owned. Independent papers are being acquired by chains at the rate of 50 to 60 a year. In 1977, 71 percent of daily newspaper circulation in the U.S. was controlled by 168 multiple ownerships. In 1984, their circulation rose to 79 percent. 8

Jones said local businesses, governments, and educators often feel alienated from local newspapers because many are owned by chains or corporations. "Chains are regarded as the news equivalent of fast-food joints," he said. "Everything is fried in the same batter, a batter packaged in New York or Los Angeles and shipped in."

Even some newspaper giants are realizing the credibility problems with the surging group ownership. James K. Batten, president of Knight-Ridder Newspapers, Inc., said, "The truth is, a lot of the American public don't like us or trust us. They think we are too big for our britches." 10

As the power of the press has shifted from locally-owned

newspapers to business corporations, the public seemingly has added the news business to the list of remote institutions it mistrusts simply because of its overwhelming size. Says Chicago Tribune Editor James Squires, "The press used to be something accessible, owned by the fellow down the street. There is no access now. It is too big and far away." 11

In contrast, the ASNE study found newspaper credibility ratings don't vary much according to the size, ownership, or competitive environment of the papers people read. 12 However, there were some negative findings to note.

The study found that while people in various markets differed little in overall credibility ratings, people in competitive newspaper markets were more likely than others to choose dailies as more reliable sources of local, state, national, and international news. However, though people in competitive markets were more likely to choose newspapers as a news source, the survey said there was little difference in how respondents rated the credibility of large and small, competing and noncompeting dailies. 13

Regardless of whether they were correct or not, respondents in the ASNE study who said that their newspapers were locally-owned rated the credibility of newspapers somewhat higher than did those who said their newspapers were owned by a large company or by a small company. 14

Another dimension of trustworthiness is fairness. Robert Erburu, president of Times Mirror Co., said fundamental public support for a free press rests in a fair press. While the

public overhwhelmingly rejects censorship, they would embrace actions assuring the press is fair. He said the key to improving press credibility lies with the public's concept of newspaper fairness. 15

"Being damned is no great problem," said Robert Thomp-son, Seattle Post Intelligencer editor and publisher. "In fact, it is to be expected if we do our job with courage and controversy. The important thing is for us to be responsible and fair--and to maintain a sense of perspective." 16

Public service is another dimension of trustworthiness. Newspapers are not always trusted. The ASNE study showed the perception that the press exploits people, rather than serve as their watchdog, is an important contributor to the credibility gap between the people and the press. 17

The ASNE credibility study said many people believe the press invades the privacy of ordinary people—for instance, victims of tragedy or disaster—and that the press shows disrespect for standard news sources. They identify with those being exploited by the press, thus creating a "them" and "us" situation in which the press is seen as a self—serving, power—ful, and frightening institution. That feeling, then, contributes to a distrust that diminishes press credibility. 18

"A good newspaper is part of--not apart from--the community," Lawrence said. "It rejoices in successes. It looks for and writes about good people and good things, as well as the bad. A good newspaper will print hope as well as despair." 19

Expertise

Another factor used in measuring credibility was expertise. As in many studies, the expertise factor in this study included competence of reporters and editors, proper training, quality of work, and professional attitude.

Jones said part of the problem with accuracy is that reporters, who generally are better educated than in the past, are not as well-trained. "The craftsmanship of accurate reporting, the drudgery of verification, has been lost," he said. He maintains there is usually less emphasis on verification and more on investigation and the anecdotal. 20

Another complaint in the literature which critics claim hurts newspaper credibility is the attitude of reporters.

Lawrence said newspapers used to be respected, not loved, by readers. Therefore, reporters must "demonstrate civility and good manners" to readers.

Readers, Jones said, see reporters and editors as a privileged class. He found readers surprisingly aware of the pressures and problems of gathering news and even understanding of error. ²¹

"Somehow in the toxicity of the 60s and the 70s, we lost our civility and courteousness," said Michael J. Davies, editor and publisher of the <u>Hartford</u> (Conn.) <u>Courant</u>. "Young reporters thought the only way to get ahead was to be tougher, more cynical than the guy at the next desk." 22

Harry Levins, writing coach for the St. Louis Post-

<u>Dispatch</u>, said reporters sincerely believe they are artists and, therefore, entitled to some fringe benefits like having a messy desk, growing a beard, and driving a Volvo. He continues:

On rare occasions we see a piece of art on the copy desk. It usually speaks for itself, and copy editors will mention the story in terms of awe. But usually on a day-to-day basis, we see mostly '63 Chevys. This stuff isn't art; it's journalism. Copy editors aren't scrawling on the Mona Lisa. They're straightening fenders. 23

Jean Otto, <u>Rocky Mountain News</u> editorial page editor and former president of the Society of Professional Journalists, believes the press suffers from similar examples of arrogance. "Sometimes people in the press act as if they are doing their jobs for each other and maybe God, and nobody else ought to get in the way," she said.²⁴

A study by researchers at Michigan State University, conducted for ASNE, found many reporters cynical about the public's intelligence, arrogant about the reporter's role in deciding what is published, and inclined to reject public criticism. The researchers concluded that in many newsrooms the "public-be-damned" attitude reached siege mentality. 25

Otto maintains reporters should act professionally. She said reporters can get stories and "still act like civilized human beings . . . The First Amendment belongs to the citizens of the United States, not to us." 26

William Woo, editorial page editor of the <u>St. Louis Post-Dispatch</u>, said, "Arrogance, insensitivity, sensationalism, the sounding of First Amendment alarms at every provocation--

these have all lost press sympathy."27

Believability

Credibility to many people means believability. In this paper, the believability factor included the dimensions of accuracy and completeness.

Jones said:

Errors of fact do more to undermine the trust and confidence of readers than any other sin we commit. A city editor I know used to say: "A story is only as good as the dumbest error in it." 28

Indeed, accuracy plays an important role in credibility.

A study at the University of Chicago suggested a "tide of errors" is the greatest cause of newspapers ranking below banks in the eyes of the American people as institutions that can be trusted. The study measuring public confidence showed newspapers ranked ninth of 13 major American institutions. 29

"Janet Cooke" cases will occur in every profession, critics contend. Yet, in the views of some analysts, it is not these highly publicized cases of unethical reporting so much as the everyday errors that erode credibility.

Jones noted:

Basic inaccuracies in the newspaper top the list of complaints by readers. These are plain old errors of facts. We get names wrong, we get addresses wrong, we get locations wrong for public buildings, we get sports scores wrong. And every error of fact erodes our credibility. 30

Alred JaCoby, a veteran journalist at the <u>San Diego Union</u> who handles reader complaints, said, "We don't understand the impact of errors on our credibility. What we see as little

errors are very big ones for the public."31

Perhaps some of the strongest opinions, fair or unfair, about journalism are held by people who have been thrust into the news by their jobs or through extraordinary circumstances.

Frank Mandiewicz, former president of National Public Radio, says many news stories are wrong, but people not involved in the story fail to realize the inaccuracies. He said, "Whenever you see a news story you were part of, it is always wrong. It may be a rather unimportant error, but it can also be an important one." 32

More common than the willful errors are those resulting from overaggressive reporting and inadequate checking. For example, the <u>Kansas City Times</u> alleged during a series on athletic recruitment practices that the mother of a Wichita State University basketball player had received a new automobile and a house as a payoff for her son's success with the team. After another newspaper, the <u>Wichita Eagle-Beacon</u>, investigated the story, the facts were uncovered: the money for the purchases came from a medical malpractice suit settlement. The <u>Times</u> had been too zealous in its attempt to get the story and failed to find the truth. 33

"When journalists take a chance on facts, they will fall victim to the odds--and, thus, disillusion readers who know the score," stated Gene Foreman, managing editor of the Phila-delphia Inquirer. 34

Compunding the problems of inaccuracy, say critics, is

the image of infallibility cultivated by the press with its frequent unwillingness to admit, or correct, mistakes. Foreman said journalists used to avoid publishing corrections because "popular wisdom held that peeling back on one story somehow impaired the veracity of everything else in the paper." Now the consensus seems to be quite the opposite-newspapers enhance, not diminish, credibility when they honestly acknowledge mistakes and set the record straight. 35

The ASNE study showed 71 percent of the respondents said the news media in general try to correct their mistakes. ³⁶

To help increase accuracy and accountability, a growing number of newspapers have an ombudsman or reader representative to handle complaints and serve as an in-house critic on news standards. In 1970, two newspapers had ombudsmen. By 1986, the number had rise to 38. ³⁷ However, one ombudsman said that asking if an ombudsman prevents errors is like asking if the presence of a priest or rabbi prevents sinning. ³⁸

In addition to employing ombudsmen, more newspapers now run corrections in a fixed spot, mail accuracy forms to persons mentioned in news stories, and have local citizen advisory boards. However, these methods allow only a limited amount of public reaction to reach the newspaper. As Horne points out, there is no systematic measurement of an audience's attitude toward a particular medium or the media in general. 39

Dynamism

The 1947 report by the Commission on Freedom of the Press

stated:

The journalist means by news that something had happened within the last few hours which will attract the interest of the customers. The criteria of interest are recency or firstness, proximity, combat, human interest, and novelty. 40

These very terms could be used to describe the "dynamism" factor of credibility. In previous credibility studies, dynamism has been defined using the terms independent/dependent, timely/out-of-date, aggressive/meek, interesting/dull, active/passive, and energetic/lazy.

A young reporter quickly learns the dynamism factor gains noticeable results at a newspaper. This is especially obvious on the police beat. Many newspapers emphasize police and crime stories because those stories are widely read. A 1973 survey showed accident and disaster stories were the most widely read (39 percent). Another readership survey of 10 newspaper markets showed stories about natural disasters and tragedies ranked first of 25 categories. 42

News judgment can be influenced when striving for a dynamic news product. In efforts to boost readership of The
Detroit News, an in-house memo: called for "fine examples" of rapes, robberies, and car accidents on page one.

The commission criticized this tendency, saying that the "news is twisted by the emphasis on firstness, on the novel and sensational; by the personal interests of owners; and by pressure groups. "44"

The press often is caught between its economic obligations and social responsibilities. The need to make money

and sell newspapers can influence dynamism, especially the dimension of independence/dependence. Results of a Gallup Organization survey stated the independence/dependence issue emerges as central when the public discusses press performance. More often than not, the public sees press failure as a consequence of external influences. Fifty-three percent of the survey respondents said news organizations are "often influenced by powerful people and organizations," compared to 37 percent who view them as "pretty independent." 45

Large portions of the respondents said they believed news coverage by the press often is influenced by a wide spectrum of political and social groups. Example: respondents believed the press is influenced by the federal government (78 percent), business corporations (70 percent), and advertisers (65 percent).

Corporations do have a growing influence over newspapers as more and more companies own media outlets. Almost every major industry whose activities dominate the news of the 1980s "... sit on the controlling boards of the leading media of the country," Ben Bagdikian, Media Monopoly, writes. 47 He states that by 1980 most major media were controlled by 50 corporations. Twenty corporations controlled more than half the 61 million newspapers sold every day.

A study of nearly 300 directors of the nation's 25 largest newspapers showed thousands of interlocks with institutions the papers cover--or fail to cover--every day. The directors of these companies, whose dailies account for more

than half of all American newspapers, sit on the boards of regional, national, and multinational business corporations. 49

Another practice of newspapers—the use of press releases—es—is classified in the aggressive/meek or energetic/lazy dimension of dynamism.

Researcher Scott Cutlip estimates 35 percent of newspaper content is from publicists. Another researcher, Linda Kaid, found when a newspaper carried a news release at all, it tended to print the release verbatim. She found, for example, three of every five newspaper stories, generated from a political candidate's releases, were printed verbatim. 50

Jim Sibbison, former public information officer with the Environmental Protection Agency, said reliance on news releases es is common practice by an overburdened press. News releases written by Sibbison discussing a dangerous pesticide failed to include all references to cancer and hazards to pregnant women. Sibbison said many reporters would not suspect cancer-related hazards were omitted from the releases and would print them without further investigation. 51

The Canons of Journalism, Section IV, adopted by the American Society of Newspaper Editors, state in part:

Good faith with the reader is the foundation of all journalism worthy of the name. By every consideration of good faith a newspaper is constrained to be truthful. It is not to be excused for lack of thoroughness or accuracy within its control, or failure to obtain command of these essential qualities. 52

This lack of thoroughness can be detrimental to newspapers. As one researcher suggested, a news release passed on verbatim may mislead and misinform. Both can harm credibility.

Each of the factors--trustworthiness, expertise, believability, and dynamism--serves a vital function in composing the perceived credibility of newspapers. Lawrence summarized the importance of the combined effects of the credibility factors. "Our value is measured in every edition, on every page, in every column-inch of type," he said. "When we do our job well--when we report the truth fairly, fully, and with compassion--we earn the public's trust. We also earn our freedom." 53

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CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

The researcher constructed a pool of 72 statements representing different facets of credibility to facilitate the study of the relationship between the target groups and The Daily O'Collegian, often referred to as the O'Collegian or the O'Colly. This was completed by using Q-technique, a sophisticated way of ranking objects, stimuli, items, statements, etc. The researcher attempted to determine the agreement hierarchy of credibility factors among 40 people at Oklahoma State University. To gather a diversity of opinions, 10 people from each of the following groups were selected to participate in the study: students, faculty/staff members, public information officers, and O'Colly reporters.

Participants were asked to rank-order from their perspective the 72 opinion statements about the O'Collegian along a quasi-normal Q distribution running from "Strongly Agree" to "Strongly Disagree."

Independent variables in this study were the credibility factors in the 72 statements selected for the study. The statements were derived from interviews, discussions, and a review of the literature. The dependent variable was the subjective ranking of the Q-sort items by participants.

The 72 credibility statements comprised examples of four credibility factors—trustworthiness, expertise, believability, and dynamism—and whether they were present in the statements. The statements are listed in Appendix A.

The credibility factors were culled from numerous earlier studies on credibility. The factors often were described
with different terminology but were defined similarly with
bipolar adjectives. Combining these earlier studies, personal interviews, and a review of the literature led the author
to formulate credibility factors for her own use.

Definition of Credibility Factors

Operational definitions of the four credibility factors are as follow:

- 1. TRUSTWORTHINESS: Deserving confidence or trust;

 dependable; reliable. Example: Newspapers generally

 are expected to present comprehensive, objective

 news coverage. Perceived fairness is an essential

 ingredient to maintain credibility.
- 2. EXPERTISE: Possessing a special skill or knowledge; authority; trained by practice. Example: Reporters are trained to gather news in a professional, responsible manner. Arrogant attitudes by members of the press can affect the public's image of newspaper credibility.
- 3. <u>BELIEVABILITY</u>: Having faith in something without absolute proof. Example: Readers generally accept

information printed in the newspaper without trying to verify individual stories. If the reader constantly questions the information, credibility may suffer.

4. <u>DYNAMISM</u>: The vitality or liveliness of a newspaper and its reporters. Example: Credibility of a newspaper often may become damaged if a newspaper fails to stay abreast of recent news in the coverage area.

The 40 participants were asked to rank the statements along a 9-point continuum from "Strongly Agree" to "Strongly Disagree." The Q-items were drawn from more than 250 statements collected by the researcher. Each statement was selected to reflect the presence or absence of credibility in one of the four areas--trustworthiness, expertise, believability, or dynamism.

The items were grouped into eight treatment categories: trustworthiness (present); trustworthiness (absent); expertise (present); expertise (absent); believability (present); believability (absent); dynamism (present); and dynamism (absent). Eight statements were needed to incorporate each credibility factor. Nine statements from each of the eight possible categories were used for a total of 72 statements. This type of Q-sort is known as a "structured" Q-sort, as the statements are partitioned according to the appropriate credibility factor. Rerlinger wrote:

To structure a Q-sort is to build a "theory" in it. Instead of constructing instruments to measure the characteristics of individuals, we construct them to embody or epitomize "theories." 3

Sample

Participants were chosen based on their association to Oklahoma State University. Anonymity was granted to participants, as several expressed concern about the consequences of "going public" with their opinions.

Participants were chosen for their "membership" in one of four groups: students, faculty/staff members, public information officers, and O'Colly reporters. Every attempt was made to include a wide representation of age, sex, race, length of association with the university, and area of concentration within the university (from veterinary medicine to home economics to engineering).

To learn about similarities and differences of agreement among the four groups and the individuals within the groups, the participants' rankings were correlated, factor analyzed, and subjected to an analysis of variance.

Hypotheses

This study was designed to learn about the relationship between the credibility statements concerning The Daily O Collegian and agreement by the participants. The following hypotheses are presented:

- 1. The mean agreement with statements with a credibility factor present will be greater than the mean agreement with statements with a credibility factor absent: \overline{X} Credibility Present \overline{X} Credibility Absent.
- 2. The mean agreement with statements with trustworthi-

ness present will be greater than the mean agreement with statements with trustworthiness absent:

 \overline{X} Trustworthiness Present \overline{X} Trustworthiness Absent.

3. The mean agreement with statements with expertise present will be greater than the mean agreement with statements with expertise absent:

 \overline{X} Expertise Present \overline{X} Expertise Absent.

4. The mean agreement with statements with believability present will be greater with statements with believability absent:

 \overline{X} Believability Present \overline{X} Believability Absent.

5. The mean agreement with statements with dynamism present will be greater than the mean agreement with statements with dynamism absent:

 \overline{X} Dynamism Present \overline{X} Dynamism Absent.

- 6. The mean agreement of credibility statements by faculty/staff members will not differ significantly from mean agreement of statements by public information officers.
- 7. The mean agreement of credibility statements by faculty/staff members will not be significantly greater than the mean agreement of statements by students.
- 8. The mean agreement of credibility statements by O'Colly reporters will be significantly greater than the mean agreement of statements by faculty/staff members.

- 9. The mean agreement of statements by public information officers will not differ significantly from the mean agreement of statements by students.
- 10. The mean agreement of statements by O'Colly reporters will be significantly greater than the mean agreement of statements by public information officers.
- 11. The mean agreement of statements by O'Colly staff members will be significantly greater than the mean agreement of statements by students.

Q-Methodology

Q-methodology, formulated by William Stephenson, was used for design and analysis of this study since the study was limited to a small number of persons. Q-methodology is a set of philosophical, psychological, and statistical ideas oriented to research on the individual. Q-technique is a method of ranking objects along a quasi-normal frequency distribution and assigning numerical values to the objects for statistical purposes. It focuses on sorting decks of cards called Q-sorts and in correlating responses of the participating individuals.

When using the Q-methodology, any person can become the subject of a detailed factor and variance analysis. It is suited to testing theories on small sets of individuals selected for their known or presumed characteristics. 7

In this study, the researcher obtained a large number

of responses from a small number of persons. The participants were instructed to Q-sort the 72 statements which were typed individually on 3" by 5" cards (See Appendix B). The participants were asked to read all the statements, then sort and place them into nine piles. The participants were unaware of the principles from which the Q-sample was constructed. All that confronted the participants were the statements of the sample. With these statements, the participants performed the Q-sort under specific instructions. The degree of agreement by participants with the Q-sort statements served as the dependent variable. The statements in the sample gained significance from how the participants sorted them into the designated piles.

The piles represented the 9-point continuum ranging from "Strongly Agree" to "Strongly Disagree." The array made up a quasi-normal distribution shown below:

TABLE I
Q-SORT DISTRIBUTION OF 72 CREDIBILITY STATEMENTS

| Strongly Agree | Agree Strongly Disagree | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------|-------------------------|---|---|----|----|----|---|---|---|
| Assigned Values | 9 | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| Number of Items | 2 | 4 | 7 | 13 | 20 | 13 | 7 | 4 | 2 |

The numbers above the line are values assigned to statements in each pile. The numbers below the line show how many
statements were placed in each pile. For example, the two
cards at the extreme left received an agreement score of nine
each. All statistical analyses were based on the resulting
scores. Theoretically, sorting of credibility statements
reflected similarities and differences of the participants'
agreement with the credibility factors.

Once the data were gathered, the respondents' 72 scores were intercorrelated using the Product-Moment correlation. The correlations were then used to perform a McQuitty Elementary Linkage and Factor Analysis to determine typal representatives.

Correlation and Linkage Analysis

The product-moment correlation coefficient is an index of the direction of the relationship between two respondents. It ranges from -1.0 to +1.0. Using yhis method, a +1 would represent a perfect correlation (respondents showed an identical pattern of response) and a -1 would represent a negative correlation.

To identify "clusters" or types of participants who are most similar in agreement with the credibility statements, Exementary Linkage and Factor Analyses were used. Elementary Linkage transforms correlations into respondent types.

Factor analysis, according to Kerlinger, is "a method for determining the number and nature of the underlying

variables among a larger number of measures."10

Louis L. McQuitty's Elementary Linkage and Factor
Analysis is a form of factor analysis used to extract people,
items or objects with distinctive cluster characteristics.
This method consists of grouping "types," respondents whose
judgments are most highly related through the size of the
correlation coefficients. 11 In short, linkage analysis
identified participants who tended to be most similar in
their agreement of credibility statements. On the average,
the perceptions of any respondent clustered in one type
were more like respondents in the same type than they were
like respondents in another type.

Variance caused by the differences in "types" then could be identified and extracted. Linkage and factor analysis, therefore, separate into groups those participants most similar to each other in agreement with credibility statements than to participate in other categories.

Analysis of Variance

Following linkage and factor analyses, a three-factor analysis of variance with repeated measures on one factor was used to study the relationships of the four credibility facets on the different OSU groups. This type of analysis is known as a Type III analysis of variance.

The 72 statements were considered subjects. The eight statement groups of nine statements each were subjected to types of participants (students, public information staff,

staff, etc.). The types of participants were considered the treatment. Each statement group was considered representative of a credibility facet and was thought of as receiving different participant—type treatments which were extracted in the linkage and factor analysis. The types of participants, therefore, were considered the repeatable factor. For example, there were eight statements in the trustworthiness (absent) category. These statements were considered as subjects and the types of participants were considered as treatments. This allows the researcher to examine how different types of "participant" treatments presumably affected the agreement of "credibility statement" subjects.

The author, in effect, was working with four experimental variables (trustworthiness, expertise, believability, and dynamism) with two levels each (present or absent).

The Type III design enabled the author to extract variance in agreement scores by types of participants. Thus, differential agreement scores by types of participants could be identified. In other words, one type of participant (say, students) may have placed higher emphasis on the dynamism factor being present than did the others.

Analysis of mean agreement scores anabled the author to determine whether there were significant differences among the credibility facets. In other words, analysis helped pinpoint whether the participants ranked statements with credibility facets present higher than statements with

.

no credibility facets.

ENDNOTES

 1 Fred N. Kerlinger, <u>Foundations</u> of <u>Behavioral Research</u> (New York, 1973).

²Ibid., p. 588.

3_{Ibid.}

⁴Ibid., pp. 582, 598.

⁵Ibid., p. 582.

6_{Ibid}.

⁷Ibid., p. 598.

William Stephenson, The Study of Behavior - Q Technique and Its Methodology (Chicago, 1953), p. 112.

9Louis L. McQuitty, "Elementary Linkage for Isolating Orthogonal and Oblique Types and Typal Relevancies,"

Educational and Psychological Measurement, 117 (Summer, 1957), pp. 207-229.

10 Kerlinger, p. 659.

11 McQuitty.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS

Forty participants Q-sorted 72 credibility statements along a nine-point continuum. This methodology allowed the researcher to determine overall similarities and differences among the individuals.

To find possible similarities, the researcher intercorrelated and factor analyzed the participants' probable agreement with the credibility statements. Correlation and elementary linkage factor-analyses indicated overall agreement and relationships among the participants' perceived credibility of the O'Colly and statistically identified types of participants through McQuitty's Elementary Linkage and Factor Analysis.

Linkage analysis identifies clusters or "types" of participants by locating, through the size of correlation coefficients, the most highly related variables. In this study, linkage analysis identified participants who showed a similar pattern of agreement with credibility statements. Linkage analysis isolated clusters of respondents who were more similar to each other in their relative views of the credibility statements than to other participants.

In this study the researcher was interested in the four

underlying credibility factors important to the judgments of different clusters or "types" of participants. The four credibility factors were trustworthiness, expertise, believability, and dynamism.

Types of Participants

The researcher obtained a large number of responses (1,600) from a relatively small number of persons (40). The response from participants then were intercorrelated and factor analyzed. Each participant was affiliated with Oklahoma State University and had access to The Daily O'Collegian. The four campus groups were students, faculty/staff members, public information officers, and O'Colly reporters.

The correlation matrix of each participant with each of the other 39 participants in probable agreement of credibility, statements is shown in Appendix C. The 1,600 correlations ranged from a high of .7247 for O'Colly participants

Nos. 2 and 5 to a low of -.4717 for students Nos. 2 and 10.

A separate correlation matrix was constructed for each type of participant, as shown in Tables II, III, IV, and V. The correlation coefficients in each column were summed and, as linkage analysis states, the largest total indicates the respondent most representative of that type. Table II indicates O'Colly No. 2 was the most representative of Type I. Twenty-nine participants clustered into Type I, with O'Colly No. 2 as typal respresentative (See Table II).

TABLE II

INTERCORRELATIONS OF TYPE II PARTICIPANTS' PROBABLE AGREEMENT OF 72 CREDIBILITY STATEMENTS*

3 5 7 8 9 10 12 13 14 15 16 20 21 22 23 34 35 27 00 40 19 08 06 10 22 23 30 33 07 112 91 106 97 101 105 35 113 96 6 112 111 103 121 91 29 113 87 107 60 133 118 69 122 121 95 118 116 78

*Decimal points have been omitted before the first digit within the table. Persons are numbered consecutively: 1-10 students; 11-20 faculty/staff; 21-30 PIO; 31-40 0'Colly.

Analysis of the matrix identified clusters or "types" of respondents who tended to be "most alike" in judging credibility statements. In other words, there were respondents who clustered together or who were the most highly correlated in judgment of the credibility statements.

In linkage analysis, the highest of the underlined column entries in the correlation matrix were selected.

From the linkage of correlation coefficients, four clusters or "types" of participants were extracted. They were:

"optimists," "pessimists," "dynamic/believers," and "experts."

The linkage diagrams are shown in Figures 1 and 2.

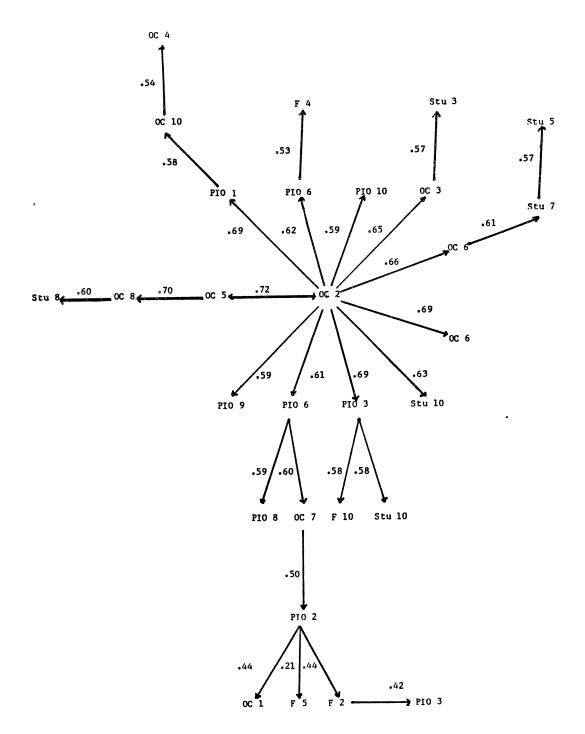
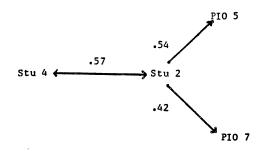
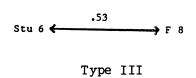


Figure 1. Type I Participant Linkage Analysis Diagram



Type II



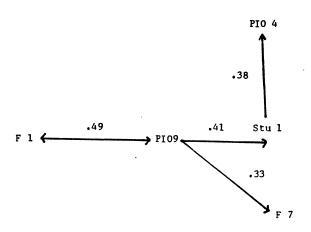


Figure 2. Type II, III, and IV Participant Linkage Analysis Diagrams

Type IV

Table III shows student No. 2 was the most representative of Type II participants.

TABLE III

INTERCORRELATIONS OF TYPE II PARTICIPANTS'
PROBABLE AGREEMENT OF 72 CREDIBILITY
STATEMENTS*

| | ~ | | | | |
|-------|------|------|------|------|--|
| | 2 | 4 | 25 | 27 | |
| 2 | | 57 | 54 | 42 | |
| 4 | 57 | | 38 | 27 | |
| 25 | 54 | 38 | | 39 | |
| 27 | 42 | 27 | 39 | | |
| Total | 1.54 | 1.23 | 1.32 | 1.09 | |

^{*}Decimal points have been omitted before the first digit within the table. Persons are numbered consecutively: 1-10 students; 11-20 faculty/staff; 21-30 PIO; 31-40 O'Colly.

Table IV shows student No. 6 and faculty/staff No. 8 were extracted in a cluster by themselves and therefore had the same ranking. Table V shows PIO No. 9 was the most representative of Type IV.

TABLE IV

INTERCORRELATIONS OF TYPE III PARTICIPANTS'
PROBABLE AGREEMENT OF 72 CREDIBILITY
STATEMENTS*

| | | 2 | 4 | |
|--------|---|-----|-----|--|
| | 2 | | 41 | |
| | 4 | 41 | | |
| Totals | | .41 | .41 | |

^{*} Decimal points have been omitted before the first digit within the table. Persons are numbered consecutively: 1-10 students; 11-20 faculty/staff; 21-30 PIO; 31-40 O'Colly.

TABLE V

INTERCORRELATIONS OF TYPE IV PARTICIPANTS'
PROBABLE AGREEMENT OF 72 CREDIBILITY
STATEMENTS*

| | 1 | 11 | 17 | 24 | 29 |
|--------|------|------|---------|---------|------|
| 1 | | 39 | 19 | 38 | 41 |
| 11 | 39 | | 26 | 28 | 49 |
| 17 | 19 | 26 | 000 000 | 32 | 33 |
| 27 | 38 | 28 | 32 | 98a 600 | 35 |
| 29 | 41 | 49 | 33 | 35 | |
| Totals | 1.38 | 1.43 | .89 | 1.05 | 1.59 |

^{*} Decimal points have been omitted before the first digit within the table. Persons are numbered consecutively: 1-10 students; 11-20 faculty/staff; 21-30 PIO; 31-40 O'Colly.

There were four participants in the second cluster with Student No. 2 as the typal representative. Other clusters of five and two also had a similar pattern in selection of the statements but different from the other clusters, on the average. Statistical analysis indicated where the differences were between the four types.

Type I: "Optimists"

Table VI shows the O'Colly No. 2, the typal representative for Type I, ranked statements in each category with credibility present higher than statements with credibility absent. Each participant's mean agreement scores in Table VI were computed by adding the values assigned by that individual to the statements during the Q-sort. For example, a seasoned reporter at the O'Colly showed a mean agreement score of 6.25 for statements with credibility present and a mean agreement score of 3.75 for statements with credibility absent.

Mean scores in Table VI show that Type I participants ranked statements with believability present the highest (6.16), followed by trustworthiness (5.69), expertise (5.53), and dynamism (5.52). In general terms, Type I was separated from the other types by the overall positive ranking in all areas of statements with credibility present.

Type II: "Pessimists"

Four participants clustered in Type II. Student No. 2

TABLE VI

TYPE I MEAN PROBABLE AGREEMENT
WITH STATEMENTS

| | | | Are | a | | | | |
|--------|----------|---------|-------|------|---------|--------|-------|------|
| | Trustwor | thiness | Exper | tise | Believa | bility | Dynan | ism |
| | | | Prese | nce | | | | |
| | P | A | P | A | P | A | P | A |
| Stu 3 | 5.77 | 2.88 | 5.88 | 4.55 | 6.33 | 4.44 | 5.88 | 4.2 |
| Stu 5 | 5.11 | 4.44 | 6.66 | 3.55 | 5.88 | 4.33 | 5.66 | 4.33 |
| Stu 7 | 5.44 | 3.77 | 6.44 | 3.77 | 6.44 | 3.88 | 6.00 | 4.2 |
| Stu 8 | 5.77 | 3.88 | 5.66 | 3.33 | 6.88 | 4.00 | 6.55 | 3.88 |
| Stu 9 | 5.33 | 4.22 | 6.00 | 3.77 | 6.33 | 4.44 | 5.66 | 4.22 |
| Stu 10 | 6.00 | 4.00 | 6.11 | 3.44 | 6.55 | 3.66 | 5.88 | 4.33 |
| Fac 2 | 3.88 | 6.00 | 4.44 | 5.44 | 5.44 | 5.33 | 4.66 | 4.77 |
| Fac 3 | 6.00 | 3.88 | 7.22 | 3.11 | 6.33 | 3.77 | 5.55 | 4.11 |
| Fac 4 | 5.88 | 3.77 | 5.00 | 4.33 | 6.22 | 4.11 | 5.77 | 4.66 |
| Fac 5 | 4.11 | 4.77 | 5.66 | 5.00 | 4.66 | 5.00 | 5.44 | 5.33 |
| Fac 6 | 6.00 | 3.44 | 5.66 | 4.00 | 6.77 | 4.11 | 6.11 | 3.55 |
| Fac 9 | 5.88 | 4.22 | 5.66 | 4.11 | 7.11 | 3.66 | 5.00 | 4.33 |
| Fac 10 | 6.00 | 3.33 | 6.22 | 4.22 | 5.44 | 4,22 | 6.44 | 4.1 |
| PIO 1 | 5.77 | 4.33 | 5.33 | 4.77 | 6.44 | 3.11 | 5.55 | 4.66 |
| PIO 2 | 5.33 | 5.33 | 4.66 | 4.44 | 5.33 | 4.55 | 5.77 | 4.5 |
| PIO 3 | 5.33 | 4.88 | 3.55 | 5.00 | 5.44 | 5.00 | 4.33 | 6.44 |
| PIO 6 | 6.22 | 3.88 | 5.22 | 3.77 | 6.77 | 3.77 | 6.66 | 3.7 |
| PIO 8 | 5.55 | 4.55 | 5.11 | 5.00 | 5.88 | 4.33 | 6.77 | 2.77 |
| PIO 10 | 6.11 | 3.66 | 5.22 | 5.11 | 6.44 | 4.11 | 5.00 | 4.33 |
| oc 1 | 5.33 | 4.22 | 5.11 | 4.66 | 5.22 | 4.55 | 4.88 | 6.0 |
| OC 2 | 6.55 | 3.66 | 5.88 | 4.11 | 7.00 | 3.22 | 5.55 | 4.0 |
| OC 3 | 6.33 | 3.88 | 6.33 | 3.66 | 6.55 | 3.44 | 5.77 | 4.0 |
| OC 4 | 6.22 | 4.11 | 3.88 | 5.33 | 6.11 | 3.44 | 5.11 | 5.7 |
| OC 5 | 5.66 | 3.77 | 6.44 | 4.00 | 6.44 | 3.00 | 6.22 | 4.4 |
| OC 6 | 6.00 | 4.22 | 6.33 | 3.22 | 6.22 | 3.22 | 5.66 | 5.1 |
| OC 7 | 5.66 | 4.55 | 5.33 | 4.44 | 5.66 | 3.77 | 7.11 | 3.5 |
| OC 8 | 6.00 | 3.66 | 5.88 | 4.11 | 6.66 | 3.11 | 6.55 | 4.0 |
| OC 9 | 6.11 | 3.77 | 5.33 | 4.66 | 6.44 | 3.66 | 6.55 | 3.4 |
| OC 10 | 5.88 | 4.88 | 4.33 | 6.00 | 5.88 | 3.33 | 4.55 | 5.1 |
| Means | 5.69 | 4.13 | 5.53 | 4.30 | 6.16 | 3.94 | 5.52 | 4.4 |

was the representative for this type. Participants in this type ranked statements with credibility factors <u>absent</u> higher (5.85), on the average, that statements with credibility factors present (4.11) in each of the four categories. Student No. 2 had a mean agreement score of 6.19 for statements with credibility absent and 3.85 with credibility present.

Mean scores in Table VII show that Type II participants ranked statements with expertise absent the highest (6.24) followed by dynamism absent (5.91), believability absent (5.8), and trustworthiness absent (5.52). Overall, Type II participants differed from other types as they ranked, on the average, statements with credibility absent the highest in each of the four categories.

TABLE VII

TYPE II MEAN PROBABLE AGREEMENT
WITH STATEMENTS

| Area | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------|-----------------|------|-------|--------|-------|---------|--------|----------|--|--|
| 1 | Trustworthiness | | s Exp | ertise | Belie | vabilit | y Dyna | Dynamism | | |
| | Presence | | | | | | | | | |
| | P | A | P | A | P | A | P | A | | |
| Stu 2 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 3.66 | 6.55 | 3.77 | 5.77 | 3.77 | 6.44 | | |
| Stu 4 | 4.66 | 5.88 | 3.88 | 6.55 | 4.44 | 5.55 | 4.11 | 4.88 | | |
| PIO 5 | 4.22 | 5.55 | 2.77 | 5.77 | 5.11 | 6.55 | 3.88 | 6.11 | | |
| PIO 7 | 4.11 | 4.77 | 4.22 | 6.11 | 5.22 | 5.33 | 4.00 | 6.22 | | |
| Mean | 4.24 | 5.55 | 3.63 | 6.24 | 4.63 | 5.80 | 3.94 | 5.91 | | |

Type III: "Dynamic-Believers"

Two participants, student No. 6 and Faculty/staff No. 8, formed a small cluster. They ranked statements with dynamism present and believability present higher than other statements, on the average. The dyad, shown in Table VIII, had a mean agreement score of 6.11 for dynamism-present statements and 6.61 for believability-present statements.

The average of all categories--present and absent--was

4.63. The categories were ranked as follows: expertise

present (4.88); trustworthiness absent (4.77); dynamism

absent (4.77); believability absent (4.66); expertise absent

(4.57); and trustworthiness present (4.44).

TABLE VIII

TYPE III MEAN PROBABLE AGREEMENT
WITH STATEMENTS

| | | | | Area | | | | | | | |
|----------|-----------------|------|-------|-----------|------|----------|-------|----------|--|--|--|
| | Trustworthiness | | s Exp | Expertise | | vability | y Dyn | Dynamism | | | |
| Presence | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | P | A | P | А | P | A | P | A | | | |
| Stu 6 | 4.55 | 4.33 | 5.44 | 4.11 | 6.44 | 4.44 | 5.66 | 5.00 | | | |
| Fac 8 | 4.33 | 5.22 | 4.33 | 4.44 | 5.66 | 4.88 | 6.55 | 4.55 | | | |
| Means | 4.44 | 4.77 | 4.88 | 4.27 | 6.05 | 4.66 | 6.10 | 4.77 | | | |

Type IV: "Experts"

Five participants formed the second largest cluster.

This cluster was represented by PIO No. 9. On the average, they ranked statements with expertise absent higher than other categories. PIO No. 9, a public information veteran, had a mean agreement score of 3.4 for expertise present and 6.8 for expertise absent.

Mean agreement scores in Table IX show "experts" ranked statements with expertise absent the highest (6.04) and statements with expertise present the lowest (3.66).

TABLE IX

TYPE IV MEAN PROBABLE AGREEMENT WITH STATEMENTS

| | | | A | rea | | | | | |
|-------|-----------------|------|--------|--------|-------|---------|-------|----------|--|
| | Trustworthiness | | ss Exp | ertise | Belie | vabilit | y Dyn | Dynamism | |
| | | | | sence | | | | | |
| | P | A | P | Α | P | A | P | Α | |
| Stu l | 4.55 | 5.88 | 3.11 | 6.33 | 4.88 | 5.00 | 5.55 | 4.66 | |
| Fac l | 4.66 | 5.11 | 3.11 | 6.00 | 4.11 | 5.66 | 4.88 | 5.77 | |
| Fac 7 | 5.00 | 5.44 | 4.33 | 4.88 | 4.33 | 6.22 | 4.55 | 5.22 | |
| PIO 4 | 4.77 | 5.44 | 4.33 | 6.11 | 4.77 | 4.55 | 4.66 | 5.33 | |
| PIO 9 | 4.00 | 5.77 | 3.44 | 6.88 | 3.77 | 5.66 | 5.77 | 4.66 | |
| Means | 4.59 | 5.52 | 3.66 | 6.04 | 4.37 | 5.41 | 5.08 | 5.12 | |

Other categories had the following means: trustworthiness absent (5.52); believability absent (5.41); dynamism absent (5.12); dynamism present (5.08); trustworthiness present (4.59); and believability present (4.37).

Summary of Types

Four types of participants were factored out in elementary linkage and factor analysis and the representative of each type determined. An "optimists" cluster of 29 participants, a "pessimists" cluster of four participants, a "dynamic-believers" cluster of two participants, and an "experts" cluster of five participants were identified.

The "optimists" participants, or Type I, ranked the statements with credibility present the highest, on the average. Type II, the "pessimists," ranked statements with credibility absent the highest. The "dynamic-believers" ranked statements with dynamism and believability present higher than other categories. Type IV ranked statements with expertise absent higher, on the average, than statements in other categories. This type was labeled "experts."

Overall, the participants ranked the credibility statements in the following order: believability present (5.3), expertise absent (5.21), dynamism present (5.16), dynamism absent (5.05), trustworthiness absent (4.99), believability absent (4.95), trustworthiness present (4.74), and expertise present (4.42).

Type III Analysis of Variance--Clusters

To find out the independent and interactive effects of the credibility factors on the participants' judgments, a Type III analysis of variance with repeated measures on one factor was used. In this analysis, the four types of participants, categories of credibility, and absence-presence were independent variables and the participants' degree of agreement with the statements represented the dependent variable (scores assigned to the credibility statements and presumed to be an indication of the participants' probable agreement with the statements). This procedure enabled the researcher to extract differences in ranking credibility statements by the different types of "audiences" identified earlier through McQuitty's Elementary Linkage and Factor Analysis.

The independent credibility factors were subdivided into two levels by the Presence element. Either the credibility factors were present in the statement (present) or they were not (absent). These elements were used to categorize credibility statements which 40 participants Q-sorted along a nine-point continuum.

This portion of the study primarily was concerned with investigating the problems stated in the hypotheses. Basically, these hypotheses stated that the presence of the trustworthiness, expertise, believability, and dynamism factors in the credibility statements would make a significant

difference in the participants' probable agreement with the statements. The 72 statements were considered as subjects for the Type III analysis of variance. In other words, eight groups of nine statements each were subjected to the four types of participant "treatments." The statements in each group were considered representative of a credibility factor.

In the analysis, a $2 \times 4 \times 4$ design was used to indicate the four credibility factors—trustworthiness x expertise x believability x dynamism—at two levels (present and absent) as judged by the four types of participants. This analysis was used to study variations or differences in mean probable agreement of credibility statements for the four participant types.

The Type III analysis of variance with repeated measures on one factor is a combination of factorial and treatments-by-subjects designs. This design reveals the effects of two factors working in concert, as well as possible differences in repeated measures on the third factor.

From the Type III analysis of variance, two findings were identified as significant: the interaction of participant type and presence (present/absent) and the interaction of group, presence, and area (credibility factors). The author then determined if the differences in the mean scores were greater than expected by chance. Analysis also determined whether probable agreement with one credibility statement depended on its combination with the presence factor or

the type of participant. In short, there were differences in probable agreement with statements because of differences in participant types. These were previously identified through linkage analysis.

As shown in Table X, findings were significant when the presence factor interacted with participant type. Interaction shows to what degree two factors are interdependent.

TABLE X

INTERACTION OF PRESENCE AND TYPE

| | Participant Type | | | | | | | |
|----------|------------------|------|------|------|---------|--|--|--|
| | I | II | III | IV | Means | | | |
| Presence | | | | | | | | |
| Present | 5.79 | 4.11 | 5.37 | 4.43 | 4.92 | | | |
| Absent | 4.20 | 5.88 | 4.62 | 5.56 | 5.06 | | | |
| Means | 5.00 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 5.00 | | | |
| | | | | Gran | nd Mean | | | |

Statistical analysis indicated a significant difference between present and absent credibility factors for Type I ("optimists") and Type II ("pessimists") at the .05 level of confidence. Type I had a mean agreement score of 5.79 for credibility present and 4.20 for credibility absent. Type II had a 4.11 mean agreement score for credibility

present and 5.88 for credibility absent. Differences this large would occur by chance less than 5 times in 100. Almost 89 percent of the variance was explained by the interaction of presence and group type. Differences were not significant for Types III and IV (F = 56.6, df = 3: p < .05). Type III had a mean agreement score of 5.37 for credibility present and 4.62 for credibility absent. Type IV had a mean agreement score of 4.43 for credibility present and 5.56 for credibility absent.

The other significant finding was the interaction of type, presence, and area factors, as shown in Table XI.

TABLE XI
INTERACTION OF PRESENCE, TYPE, AND AREA

| | Area | | | | | | | | | | |
|------|----------|--------|-----------|------|--------|-------|----------|-------|-------|--------|--|
| | 7 | Frustw | orthiness | Exp | ertise | Belie | vability | y Dyn | amism | Mean | |
| | Presence | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | P | A | P | A | P | A | P | A | | |
| Type | | | | | | | | | | 6 | |
| Type | I | 5.70 | 4.13 | 5.53 | 4.31 | 6.17 | 3.95 | 5.76 | 4.41 | 4.99 | |
| Туре | II | 4.22 | 5.55 | 3.63 | 6.25 | 4.63 | 5.80 | 3.94 | 5.91 | 5.00 | |
| Type | III | 4.44 | 4.77 | 4.88 | 4.27 | 6.05 | 4.66 | 6.11 | 4.77 | 5.00 | |
| Type | IV | 4.60 | 5.53 | 3.66 | 6.17 | 4.37 | 5.42 | 5.08 | 5.13 | 5.00 | |
| Mean | | 4.68 | 5.00 | 4.42 | 5.25 | 5.30 | 4.95 | 5.22 | 5.05 | 5.00 | |
| | | | | | | | | | Grand | d Mean | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |

Interaction of presence, type, and area explained

11 percent of the variance. As shown in Table XI, interaction was significant in the following areas.

- 1. Between Type I and Type II in all credibility areas;
- 2. Between Type I and Type III in trustworthiness present;
- 3. Between Type I and Type IV in expertise present, expertise absent, believability present, and believability absent;
- 4. Between Type II and Type III in expertise present, expertise absent, believability present, and dynamism present;
- 5. Between Type III and Type IV in believability present.

All of these exceeded the critical difference of 1.23. Differences this large would occur by chance less than 5 times in 100 (F = 2.37, df = 9: p < .05). There were no significant differences between Type II and Type IV at the .05 level of confidence.

Type III Analysis of Variance--University Audiences

A Type III analysis of variance also was completed for the original four groups of participants--students, faculty/ staff, Public Information Officers, and O'Colly reporters.

Research questions asked if there would be a significant difference in the mean agreement of credibility statements among the original four university audiences. The hypotheses stated there would be no difference except between two groups: O'Colly/students and O'Colly/public information officers. There was a significant difference in the presence factor, interaction of group and presence, and interaction of group, presence, and area.

Analysis indicated a significant difference in perceived credibility in statements with or without credibility factors. The mean agreement of statements with credibility factors present (5.43) was significantly greater than the mean agreement with statements with credibility factors absent (4.56). A difference this large would occur by chance less than 5 times in 100 (F = 30.4, df = 1: p<.05).

As shown in the following table, there was significant interaction of group and presence (F = 34.6, df = 3: p < .05).

TABLE XII

INTERACTION OF PRESENCE AND GROUP

| | Participant Group | | | | | | | | |
|----------|-------------------|---------|------|---------|--------|--|--|--|--|
| | Students | Faculty | PIO | O'Colly | Means | | | | |
| Presence | | | | | | | | | |
| Present | 5.41 | 5.37 | 5.07 | 5.86 | 5.42 | | | | |
| Absent | 4.57 | 4.62 | 4.92 | 4.12 | 4.55 | | | | |
| Means | 5.00 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 5.00 | | | | |
| | | | | Grand | l Mean | | | | |

Statistical analysis indicated a significant difference between present and absent credibility factors for three of the four groups. There was a significantly higher mean agreement on the presence than absence factor by students, faculty/staff, and O'Colly reporters. Each of these audience groups exceeds the critical difference of .42. There was not a significant difference for public information officers at the .05 level of confidence. In other words, a difference this small could occur by chance more than 5 times in 100. Interaction of group and presence explained 73.6 percent of the variance.

Another significant finding was the interaction of group, presence, and area factors, as shown in Table XIII.

TABLE XIII

INTERACTION OF PRESENCE, GROUP, AND AREA

| Area | | | | | | | | | |
|---------|--------|----------|-------|--------|-------|---------|-------|-------|------|
| | Trustw | orthines | s Exp | ertise | Belie | vabilit | y Dyn | amism | Mean |
| | | | | Prese | nce | | | | |
| | P | A | P | A | P | A | P | A | |
| Group | 5.11 | 4.53 | 5.28 | 4.60 | 5.80 | 4.55 | 5.47 | 4.62 | 5.00 |
| Student | s 5.11 | 4.53 | 5.28 | 4.60 | 5.80 | 4.55 | 5.47 | 4.62 | 5.00 |
| Faculty | 5.17 | 4.52 | 5.16 | 4.64 | 5.61 | 4.70 | 5.53 | 4.64 | 5.00 |
| PIO | 5.14 | 4.82 | 4.38 | 5.28 | 5.52 | 4.70 | 5.24 | 4.88 | 5.00 |
| O'Colly | 5.97 | 4.06 | 5.47 | 4.42 | 6.22 | 3.47 | 5.80 | 4.54 | 5.00 |
| Mean | 5.34 | 4.48 | 5.07 | 4.73 | 5.78 | 4.35 | 5.51 | 4.67 | 5.00 |
| | | | | | | | | Grand | Mean |

Interaction of presence, group, and area accounted for 35.6 percent of the variance. As shown in Table XIII, interaction was significant in the following areas:

- Between students and public information officers in expertise present (means: students, 5.28; PIO, 4.38) and expertise absent (means: students, 4.60; PIO, 5.28);
- 2. Between students and O'Colly reporters in trust-worthiness present (means: students, 5.11; O'Colly reporters, 5.97), trustworthiness absent (means: students, 4.53; O'Colly reporters, 4.06), and believability absent (means: students, 4.55; O'Colly reporters, 3.47);
- 3. Between faculty/staff members and public information officers in expertise present (means: faculty/ staff, 5.16; PIO, 4.38) and expertise absent (means: faculty/staff, 4.64; PIO, 5.28);
- 4. Between faculty/staff members and O'Colly reporters in trustworthiness present (means: faculty/staff, 5.17; O'Colly reporters, 5.97), trustworthiness absent (means: faculty/staff, 4.52; O'Colly reporters, 4.06), believability present (means: faculty/staff, 4.70; O'Colly reporters, 3.47);
- 5. Between public information officers and O'Colly reporters in trustwothiness present (means: PIO, 5.14; O'Colly reporters, 5.97), trustworthiness absent (means: PIO, 4.82; O'Colly reporters, 4.06),

expertise present (means: PIO, 4.38; O'Colly reporters, 6.22), believability absent (means: PIO, 4.70; O'Colly reporters, 3.47), and dynamism present (means: PIO, 5.24, O'Colly reporters, 5.80).

All of these exceeded the critical difference of ,44 $(F = 3.01, df = 9: p \angle .05)$. A glance at the findings suggests there were more differences between public information officers and O'Colly reporters than there were between other groups. Differences this large between groups would occur by chance less than 5 times in 100. Differences between students and faculty/staff were not significant at the .05 level of confidence.

In summary, participants ranked statements with credibility factors present higher than statements without credibility. Type I participants ranked statements in each credibility area the highest. Type II participants ranked statements without credibility factors the highest. Type III ranked believability-present and dynamism-present statements higher than other categories, while Type IV ranked statements lacking expertise the highest.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Some journalists argue that talking about credibility can harm the image of newspapers. They say the price of good newspapering always will be a credibility problem, and there is nothing that can be done about it. Such attitudes illustrate the importance of credibility research.

This study was an attempt to understand further newspaper credibility by determining how four university audiences perceived the credibility of one newspaper—The Daily O'Collegian at Oklahoma State University. Four credibility factors were derived from a review of the literature and personal interviews. One of the intentions of the study was to isolate factors comprising credibility.

Credibility in the literature review was described mainly as a single-dimensional concept such as "fair." In this study, credibility was defined as how the public perceives a medium and the confidence members of the public have in a medium at any given time.

To better judge the concept of credibility, four factors were derived - trustworthiness, expertise, believability,

and dynamism. As a result, 72 credibility statements were produced - nine statements in four categories at two levels each (present and absent). Participants were asked to Q-sort 72 statements along a nine-point continuum ranging from "Most Agree" to "Most Disagree" based on their perception of the newspaper. Participants were selected based on their association with the university. The 10-person groups were students, faculty/staff, public information officers, and O'Colly reporters.

Independent variables were the credibility factors in the 72 statements selected for the study and type of respondent. The dependent variable was the participants' degree of agreement with the credibility statements.

Correlations of the 40 respondents Q-arrays were used to perform a McQuitty Elementary Linkage and Factor Analysis to determine types of participants. Identifying participant types enabled the researcher to explain the nature of variance in mean probable agreement of statements by different participants. Linkage analysis revealed four types of participants: "optimists," "pessimists," "dynamic believers," and "experts."

"Optimists" rated statements with credibility higher than statements without. This was the largest cluster, and comprised almost 73 percent of the participants. "Pessimists" rated statements without credibility in each of the four areas the highest. They comprised 10 percent of the total number of participants. Another group ranking state-

ments without credibility higher than statements with credibility were the "experts." This group differed from the "pessimists" by ranking expertise absent higher than the other factors and split on the dynamism factor. They accounted for 12.5 percent of the participants. The two "dynamic believers" rated the <u>O´Colly</u> highest in the areas of dynamism and believability.

The "experts" and the "pessimists" rated statements without credibility higher than statements with credibility. Together these groups accounted for some 23 percent of the participants.

Overall, mean probable agreement of credibility factors showed believability present to be rated the highest with a mean of 5.31; followed by expertise absent at 5.25; dynamism present, 5.22; dynamism absent, 5.06; trustworthiness absent 5.00; believability absent, 4.96; trustworthiness present, 4.74; and expertise present, 4.43.

Type III analysis of variance confirmed differences among the four types of audiences. The findings suggested significant differences in interaction of type and presence and interaction of presence, type, and area. Interaction of presence and type accounted for almost 89 percent of the variance. Interaction of presence, types, and area accounted for 11 percent of the variance.

A Type III analysis of variance also was used with the original four university groups. Again, there were significant interaction of group and presence and group,

presence, and area. Interaction of group and presence accounted for 73.6 percent of the variance. Interaction of presence, group, and credibility area accounted for 35.6 percent of the variance.

Testing the Hypotheses

The first hypothesis stated mean probable agreement with statements with a credibility factor present would be greater than mean probable agreement with statements without credibility. This hypothesis was supported. Table XII indicated mean probable agreement of credibility present was 5.42 and mean probable agreement of credibility absent was 4.55. This difference was significant at the .05 level of confidence.

Hypothesis No. 2 stated mean agreement with statements with trustworthiness present would be greater than mean probable agreement with statements with trustworthiness absent. This hypothesis was confirmed. Table XIII shows the mean probable agreement score for trustworthiness present was 5.34, and the mean probable agreement of trustworthiness absent was 4.48. This difference was significant at the .05 level of confidence.

Hypothesis No. 3 stated mean probable agreement with statements with expertise present would be significantly greater than mean probable agreement with statements with expertise absent. This hypothesis was <u>not</u> confirmed.

Table XIII shows the mean probable agreement score for

expertise present was 5.07 and the mean probable agreement score for expertise absent was 4.73. A difference this large could occur by chance more than 5 times in 100.

Hypothesis No. 4 stated mean agreement with statements with believability present would be significantly greater than mean agreement with statements with believability absent. This hypothesis was confirmend. Table XIII shows mean agreement of statements with believability present was 5.78 and mean agreement of statements with believability absent was 4.35. This difference was significant at the .05 level.

Hypothesis No. 5 stated mean agreement with statements with dynamism present would be significantly greater than mean agreement with statements with dynamism absent. This hypothesis was confirmed. As shown on Table XIII, mean agreement of statements with dynamism present was 5.51 and mean agreement of statements with dynamism absent was 4.67. This difference was significant at the .05 level.

Hypothesis No. 6 stated mean agreement of credibility statements by faculty/staff members would <u>not</u> differ significantly from mean agreement of statements by public information officers. This hypothesis was confirmed. Mean agreement with credibility statements by faculty/staff members was 5.37 and mean agreement of credibility statements by public information officers was 5.07. This was not significantly different at the .05 level of confidence (see Table XII).

Hypothesis No. 7 stated the mean agreement of credibility statements by faculty/staff members would not be significantly greater than the mean agreement of statements by students. This hypothesis was supported. Table XII shows the mean agreement of credibility statements by faculty/staff members was 5.37 and the mean agreement of credibility statements by students was 5.41. This difference was not significant at the .05 level of confidence.

Hypothesis No. 8 stated the mean agreement of credibility statements by O'Colly reporters would be significantly greater than the mean agreement of statements by faculty/staff members. This hypothesis was confirmed.

Mean agreement of credibility statements by faculty/staff members was 5.37 and the mean agreement of credibility statements by O'Colly members was 5.86. This difference was significant at the .05 level of confidence.

Hypothesis No. 9 stated mean agreement of statements by public information officers would <u>not</u> differ significantly from mean agreement of statements by students. This hypothesis was confirmed. Mean agreement of credibility statements by public information officers was 5.07, as shown on Table XII, and mean agreement by students was 5.41. This difference was <u>not</u> significant at the .05 level of confidence.

Hypothesis No. 10 stated mean agreement of statements by O'Colly reporters would be significantly greater than

the mean agreement of statements by public information officers. This hypothesis was confirmed. Mean agreement with statements by reporters was 5.86 and the mean agreement by public information officers was 5.07. This difference was significant at the .05 level of confidence.

Finally, Hypothesis No. 11 stated the mean agreement of statements by O'Colly reporters would be significantly greater than the mean agreement of statements by students. This hypothesis was confirmed. Mean agreement by O'Colly reporters was 5.86 and mean agreement of students was 5.41. This difference was significant at the .05 level of confidence.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Understanding credibility factors may help the media produce a better product. If a newspaper, or any medium, is not seen as credible, much of its power is lost. At stake is a basic element in a democratic society.

Overall, this study of <u>The Daily O'Collegian</u> showed the four university audiences generally agreed more with statements containing credibility than statements lacking credibility. This would suggest they view the <u>O'Colly</u> as credible, on the average.

The positive attitude is a good sign for newspaper credibility. A negative, or even a neutral attitude, toward the newspaper would provide little support for press freedom in the eyes of some adversaries. If a local public

perceives a newspaper as lacking credibility, then press freedom is in jeopardy. Likewise, if the public does not care or does not know for sure about the adequate performance of the newspaper, then press freedom equally could be in trouble.

Nearly one-fourth of the respondents did have a problem with the The Daily O'Collegian is credibility. This audience segment should be the focus of possible programs to enhance the newspaper's credibility.

Many newspapers have long-standing programs designed to build audience trust. Other newspapers have instituted policies as a reaction to reports of eroding press credibility. In general, steps newspapers take to make themselves more accessible to readers enhance credibility as long as the audience is aware of these steps.²

Of the original four groups, O'Colly reporters gave the O'Colly the highest credibility rating. This positive attitude may be expected. It also may be indicative of a greater problem. Many journalists are unaware of any credibility problems or are afraid to admit them.

O'Colly reporters and public information officers had the largest difference in mean agreement of statements. There was a significant difference in seven of the eight categories. Being in similar professions, it seems like public information officers would be more understanding of daily problems of newspapering and, therefore, rate the paper's credibility higher. However, this was not the

case. It could be possible the officers expect more from the reporters because they are aware of the news gathering process. They may see O'Colly reporters as fellow professionals and expect them to perform at the level they view themselves performing.

There also was a significant difference between O'Colly reporters and students and between O'Colly reporters and faculty/staff members. This suggests a need for better communication between the groups.

To help overcome these differences, the author recommends the O'Colly address reservations about the paper by improving believability and trustworthiness factors. For example, holding reader panels on local issues would help build trustworthiness. The panels could be scheduled twice a year and be open to the public. This would provide an opportunity for readers to be face to face with the newspaper's reporters and editors. It would be an opportunity to hear both sides of an issue.

To enhance believability, the newspaper could use questionnaires to check for accuracy. Articles written by O'Colly reporters could be selected randomly and mailed to persons mentioned in the stories. This would tell reporters if they were accurate while letting the source know the O'Colly wants to get the facts right.

Another way to improve credibility is for O'Colly reporters to write stories aimed at closing the credibility gap. Informing readers about how stories are written and

some of the problems along the way would give readers a better understanding of newspapers and reporters.

Even the way telephone inquiries are handled can impact the paper's credibility. O'Collegian reporters and editors should check their behavior in responding to complaints. They should be courteous, thorough in answering questions, and encourage the caller's feedback. A recent study indicated many people who bring suit against a newspaper have tried to communicate with the newspaper but often were given the "brush off." This attitude prompts a high percentage of them to bring suit.

To enhance credibility of the newspaper further, the most basic approach, and perhaps hardest to achieve, is to improve the news product with better writing and greater accuracy. As one author stated:

. . . the way to rebuild reader confidence is to put new emphasis on the basics of our job: be accurate, be fair, be thorough. We all know from experience in our frantic newsrooms, where thousands of words are written and edited in deadline haste, that it is an objective simply stated but not so easily achieved.

ENDNOTES

l The American Society of Newspaper Editors (ASNE),
Newspaper Credibility - Building Reader Trust (April,
1985), p. 5.

²Ibid., p. 57.

³Gene Foreman, "How newspapers can improve credibility," <u>Editor and Publisher</u>, 118 (Jan. 5, 1985), p.63.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A CREDIBILITY STATEMENTS

O-SORT STATEMENTS

Trustworthiness Present

- 1. O'Colly reporters seem to keep their biases out of their stories.
- 2. O'Colly reporters are careful to give us information in a straight forward, objective manner.
- 3. Readers can trust O'Colly reporters.
- 4. The news stories are generally free of the reporter's opinions.
- 5. The <u>O'Colly</u> gives balanced coverage on controversial issues.
- 6. News coverage in the $\underline{\text{O'Colly}}$ doesn't seem to be influenced by its advertisers.
- 7. I like to read the <u>O'Colly</u> because I can depend on it.
- 8. O'Colly reporters don't usually sensationalize stories.
- 9. The O'Colly's number one priority seems to be public service.

Trustworthiness Absent

- 1. $\underline{\text{O'Colly}}$ reporters haven't learned to separate facts from their opinions.
- 2. For the most part, O'Colly reporters can not be trusted.
- 3. I have to take most everything I read in the $\underline{O'Colly}$ with a grain of salt.
- 4. Too often, opinion infiltrates and slants news stories.
- 5. O'Colly reporters are only concerned with getting their stories on the front page, not about who they are going to hurt.

- 6. Big advertising clients often get favorable treatment in news coverage.
- 7. The O'Colly is not a paper you can depend on.
- 8. Typically the <u>O'Colly</u> will pick out insignificant incidents and blow them out of proportion.
- 9. On controversial issues, the $\underline{O'Colly}$ often fails to present all sides.

Expertise Present

- 1. O'Colly reporters are well trained.
- 2. Although <u>O'Colly</u> reporters are students, they usually act professionally.
- 3. The <u>O'Colly</u> is a good source of authority on campus issues.
- 4. The <u>O'Colly</u> has a relatively high quality writing style.
- 5. The <u>O'Colly</u> explains complicated issues so they are understandable.
- 6. The <u>O'Colly</u> is good enough to compete with the state's major newspapers.
- 7. For the most part, O'Colly reporters act mature.
- 8. Turnovers on the <u>O´Colly</u> staff have little impact on the newspaper´s quality.
- 9. The O'Colly seems like a professionally-run newspaper.

Expertise Absent

- 1. Reporters are not on the ${\hbox{O\'colly}}$ staff long enough to develop expertise.
- 2. Since O'Colly reporters change every semester, the writing is very inconsistent.
- 3. The O'Colly is pathetic compared to other newspapers.
- 4. O'Colly reporters often act unprofessionally.

- 5. It is not unusual for the $\underline{\text{O'Colly}}$ to miss a major news story.
- 6. You may read a story about OSU in one of the Tulsa or Oklahoma City papers and days or weeks later it appears in the O'Colly.
- 7. The <u>O'Colly</u> can't be taken seriously because it is a training ground for beginning writers.
- 8. Quality of reporting at the O'Colly is poor.
- 9. The O'Colly confuses me on complicated issues.

Believability Present

- 1. On stories I know about first hand, the O'Colly usually gets the facts right.
- 2. Generally I have found O'Colly stories to be accurate.
- 3. I usually believe the stories printed in the O'Colly.
- 4. The O'Colly provides news with depth and detail.
- 5. O'Colly articles usually tell the whole story.
- 6. I agree with what seem to be the <u>O'Colly</u>'s priorities for news coverage.
- 7. The <u>O'Colly</u> helps me with day-to-day life at the university.
- 8. The O'Colly usually tries to correct its mistakes.
- 9. Reading the <u>O'Colly</u> gives me a representative view of campus issues/activities.

Believability Absent

- 1. There are so many errors in the O'Colly, I can hardly look at it as a serious newspaper.
- 2. O'Colly reporters should be required to give their sources a copy of a story to check before it's published.
- 3. In my opinion, O'Colly stories are often very shallow.

- 4. I would bet the <u>O´Colly</u> omits information if it looks unfavorable to the university or a university administrator.
- 5. Articles do not provide enough information about community, campus or national events for the O'Colly to be considered a legitimate newspaper.
- 6. I question the O'Colly's news priorities.
- 7. The <u>O'Colly</u> tries to cover up its mistakes instead of correcting them.
- 8. Very few <u>O'Colly</u> stories are newsworthy.
- 9. The <u>O'Colly</u> has distorted view of campus issues and events.

Dynamism Present

- 1. The <u>O'Colly</u> reporters seldom seem to shy away from writing about sensitive subjects.
- 2. The <u>O'Colly</u> generally has a staff of aggressive reporters.
- O´Colly reporters aren´t afraid to tackle controversial stories.
- 4. The <u>O'Colly</u> has a lot of interesting and entertaining stories.
- 5. Most of the news in the O'Colly is up-to-date.
- 6. The <u>O'Colly</u> is a good example of responsibility and freedom working together.
- 7. Reporters seem to stand up to any administrator who tries to tell the paper what to do.
- 8. <u>O'Colly</u> reporters are good at searching out fresh story ideas.
- 9. O'Colly reporters hardly ever seem to miss a major news story on campus.

Dynamism Absent

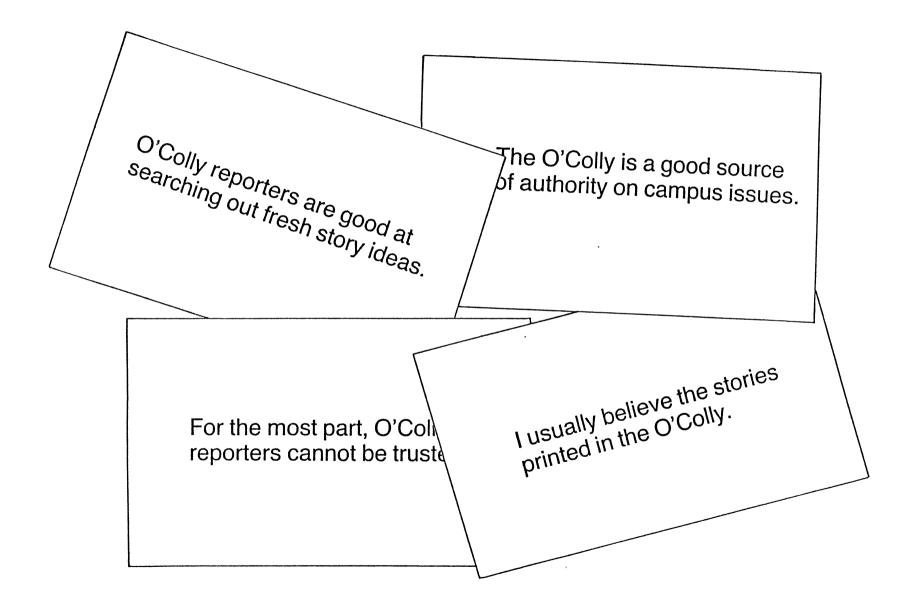
1. There are not many reporters at the O'Colly willing

to do a story that puts their future on the line.

- 2. O'Colly reporters often avoid stories on sensitive issues.
- 3. The <u>O'Colly</u> wouldn't know a controversy if it were happening right under its nose.
- 4. The <u>O'Colly</u> is a "sleepy blob" in the basement of the journalism building.
- 5. Many times, articles in the O'Colly are old news.
- 6. Often you see articles in the <u>O'Colly</u> after you have seen them in all the other media.
- 7. The <u>O'Colly</u> has missed several major news stories and didn't even try to get a second-day story.
- 8. O'Colly reporters seem to back down when challenged on a subject.
- 9. O'Colly reporters don't even take advantage of the freedom they have.

APPENDIX B

EXAMPLE OF Q-SORT CARDS



APPENDIX C PARTICIPANTS' CORRELATION MATRIX

Mary Bea Drummond

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Thesis: PERCEIVED CREDIBILITY OF THE DAILY O'COLLEGIAN BY FOUR UNIVERSITY AUDIENCES

Major Field: Mass Communications

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Tulsa, Oklahoma, March 8, 1960, the daughter of Vernon O. and Thelma B. Jackson. Married to Doug Drummond on November 5, 1983.

Education: Graduated from Edison High School,
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Bachelor of Science degree from Oklahoma State
University in May, 1982; completed the
requirements for the Master of Science degree
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Professional Experience: reporter, The Bixby Bulletin, 1982 to 1984; editor, The Oklahoma State News, Oklahoma State University, 1984 to present; public information officer, Oklahoma State University, 1985 to present.