FREQUENCIES AND TYPES OF ONLINE SOURCES IN QUALITY MEDIA: CAN WE PRESUPPOSE AN ADVANCEMENT OF THE DELIBERATIVE PUBLIC SPHERE?

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Abstract

The findings of this paper are based on a content analysis of fourkinds of media. It covers a time-span of three and a half years (2004 until 2007). The sample is made up by 30 days (12 days in 2004, 12 days in 2006, 6 days in 2007). Four in Germany widely used media were included: Two daily newspapers (Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung, Frankfurt, and Süddeutsche Zeitung, Munich) as well as two TV news programmes (ARD, public, and RTL, private television). In total we analyzed 4.243 articles/reports. We studied the news sections in the newspapers and whole news broadcasts on TV (ARD Tagesschau, eight o'clock news, and RTL evening news). How often do articles in quality media point to online sources and of which quality is the source? Surveys provide evidence that journalists now spend about 20 percent of their working time online. When journalists do a good deal of their reporting online this should be mirrored in their stories, texts and reports. However this analysis shows a weak (but increasing) usage of online sources over the years. Overall official, government-based sources were indeed rare. Non-official sources dominated.

Key Words: *Online Reporting, Online Sources, Public Sphere*

Kurzfassung: Anzahl und Typen von Onlinequellen in Qualitätsmedien: Wird eine erweiterte deliberativen Öffentlichkeit sichtbar?

Journalisten schreiben im Regelfall in ihre Texte auch die dazugehörigen Quellen hinein. Auch Onlinequellen werden seit einiger Zeit in die Artikel aufgenommen. Wir untersuchten, wie oft Artikel Onlinequellen enthalten und von welcher Qualität diese sind. Mit einer Inhaltsanalyse wurden vier in Deutschland weit verbreitete Nachrichtenangebote untersucht: zwei Tageszeitungen (Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung und Süddeutsche Zeitung) sowie zwei TV-Programme (ARD, öffentlich-rechtliches Fernsehen und RTL, privates TV). Die Auswertung deckte eine Zeitspanne vom Jahr 2004 bis 2007 ab mit insgesamt 4.243 Artikeln. Das Ergebnis zeigte eine noch schwache (aber zunehmende) Verwendung von Onlinequellen. Insgesamt dominierten die so genannten nicht-offiziellen, alternativen Quellen. Offizielle Quellen von staatlichen Institutionen waren seltener festzustellen. Dieser Befund deutet auf eine allmähliche Erschließung internetbasierter Öffentlichkeit durch Journalisten hin.

Schlüsselwörter: *Onlinerecherche, Onlinequellen, Öffentlichkeit*

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INTRODUCTION

Online reporting has gained a certain momentum recently. Most research reports dealing with journalistic production observed a growth of online operations. In Germany Weischenberg et al. (2006: 80) reported a growing segment for online research and reporting. According to the report a journalist spends an average of more than two hours (122 minutes) per day on Internet activities. More than an hour (66 minutes) is spent doing online research, 44 minutes writing and editing e-mails whereas 9 minutes of this time is for communicating with the audience. Machill et al. (2008: 108; 2009) observed an average of 78 minutes per working day using computerized resources which includes 22 minutes work with e-mails and 9 minutes with search engines. Google was visited 7 times a day by each journalist (Machill et al., 2008: 110; Machill & Beiler 2009). Interactive forms (e.g. weblogs) were used under 1 minute per day. According to the survey Machill et al. (2008: 190) conducted along with their newsroom observation, an average of 79 minutes was spent online. The amount of online work is dependent on age and genre of the media. Newspaper journalists work less via the Internet than their colleagues in other media. Now, if such an amount of time is spent with the Internet for online research there should be a noticeable quantity of online sources in the news and reports. We expected a correlation between the amount of online research/reporting and the incidence of online sources in the examined texts.

Journalists build the public. They publish for readers, listeners, for an audience. To publish is a "basic obligation" of every journalist (Pöttker, 2010: 115). Unlike advertising and art, journalists' work relates to the processing non-fictional content. Journalism needs a society in which "freedom, equality and justice, solidarity and cooperation have a high priority" (Weischenberg/Malik /Scholl, 2006: 23). Journalism is understood here as a public good.

So as a normative starting position, we use the deliberative model of the public (see Peters 2001). This model is a complex, but adequate model for public communication in a representative democracy. In a deliberative public journalism acts as a "discursive sewage plant" (Habermas, 2008: 144) in terms of selection and accumulating facts and opinions in public discourse. Journalism provides the relevant topics to the political debate, thus reducing the complexity of social systems (Rager/Rinsdorf, 2002: 48). The processing of information and exchanging of ideas is conducted on the basis of reasonable arguments. The legitimate interests and needs of groups are articulated publicly by Journalists and exchanged. Two types of actors are distinguished: individual actors (citizens) and collective actors (stakeholders). Both groups get help from journalists with their arguments. An agreement will be sought in cases of conflict based on the understanding of common rights.

This means that all stakeholders can potentially join the conversation, but not that everyone have to join in (Habermas, 2008: 178). Active citizens, civil society actors, politicians and lobbyists can articulate their positions forming a public opinion with the help of journalists. These pro-and contra statements will be filtered, sorted, bundled, evaluated, processed and presented to the public by professional journalists. These journalism-based discourses serve as a medium between institutional discourses (parliament, administration) and civil society or everyday communication (public meetings, round tables, etc.) (see Habermas, 2008: 164).

In the theory of the structural transformation of the public sphere (Habermas, 1971, 2008, 1971) the Internet now has created new discursive arenas. Journalists can access them for their reporting. So nowadays there is an abundance of sources, not only news agencies, other media, official or governmental institutions and companies but also all kinds of organizations even information of individuals (Bruns, 2009). The Internet has created an extensive public which may be accessed by journalists. The most of that non-official information is accessible via the World Wide Web. Those new discursive arenas could be political Weblogs, discussion forums, NGO's websites or sites of some activists.

Few and well-organized groups have better access to public arenas as normal citizens (see Hermida, 2011: 178). For this reason, media-based political communication is often one of the elite and requests (Habermas, 2008: 166). Journalists need to check if they rate professional groups like lobbyists or PR-managers higher than other voices of the civil society. This requires a reflection of power of journalism. Reporting (also online) can be used as a tool to reduce the influence of well-paid groups with professional priming and framing techniques.

"Das World Wide Web scheint freilich mit der Internetkommunikation die Schwächen des anonymen und asymmetrischen Charakters der Massenkommunikation auszugleichen, indem es den Wiedereinzug interaktiver und deliberativer Elemente in einen unreglemen-tierten Austausch zwischen Partnern zurück-lässt, die virtuell, aber auf gleicher Augenhöhe miteinander kommunizieren" (Habermas, 2008: 161). {The World Wide Web with the Internet communication does indeed seem to compensate for the weaknesses of the anonymous and asymmetric nature of mass communication by allowing the reoccupation of interactive and deliberative elements in an unregulated exchange leaves behind between partners who interact virtually, but on an equal basis} Computer based communication undermines censorship and controlled messages. Here we suppose an indirect effect of the deliberative power of the Internet: more and more alternative, Internet based sources get into the public: via the mass media. This fact encourages the substance and power of the political debate.

News media are rightly considered to be crucial for the provision of democratic prerequisites. They provide the reader/ viewer /user with information to understand the political process. Only with this information citizens are able to take part in the political discussion and may choose the right alternatives. The quality of the output of news media relies a lot on accurately and purposely selected sources.

Research indicates that journalists appear to have a professional preference for sources backed with a certain level of authority (Ericson et al., 1989; Gans, 1979; Jha, 2008). By focusing on such elite sources, journalists assume they can reduce or even skip some of the (sometimes even basic) procedures of searching and checking information (De Keyser et al. 2009). This can be explained to a certain degree with the theory of news factors. Both factors, elite nations and elite persons, play an important role in deciding whether an incident becomes news or not. The finding in different studies that 'power elites' within society have a major influence on news coverage (Helle, 2000) can also be explained by the immediate usability of the provided content (De Keyser et al. 2009).

If there grows an internet-driven, deliberative model of the public (Habermas, 2008) it should be indicated by the quality of the news output, especially by the amount of alternative, not official sources used by journalists in news media.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
AND METHODOLOGY

This paper looks at the portion of online sources and their quality in reports of highly regarded quality media. Sources are studied on a text level both print and TV.

What is the proportion of online news sources in this media and what weight can be observed? Furthermore we searched for longitudinal alterations, so we chose a 3 year design.

To what extend do the classical media (TV and newspaper) transport alternative sources (and content) into the public? Can we observe therefore a rise of a new form of the public?

We examined four news products from four different German media, which can be defined as German top media (Leitmedien) because of their scope and importance: *ARD Tagesschau* (public television, 8 o'clock p.m. news programme), *RTL-Aktuell* (private television, 6.45 p.m. news show), *Süddeutsche Zeitung* (*SZ*) and *Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung* (*FAZ*). For a development to be illustrated, three years were chosen: 2004, 2006 and 2007 (2007: Jan. to June). The population was based on 30 days of sampling (2 x 12 plus 6): For each month of each year the days were selected randomly. All months of the year are in the sample (2007: half-year) in order to avoid seasonal accumulations. *ARD Tagesschau* reaches an audience of 5.2 million people per day and is the no. 1 news programme in Germany; *RTL-Aktuell* takes

second place with 3.7 million viewers; SZ with its 1.2 million daily readers has the largest regional subscription of German newspapers,and *FAZ* is second rank with 1 million readers daily (AWA, 2009).

The categories were driven both by theory (for the source description), as well as empirically (for the content categories of the analyzed articles) (Früh, 2004 p141). The coding was done by two people, each responsible for one special section and the coded variables did not overlap, so intracoder reliability (Früh, 2004 p177; Krippendorff, 2004) was not to be calculated.

Coder no.1 was responsible for the first part of the records (38 variables). For the entire records an error ratio of 0.58 (7 of the 12 test data sets recoded again were identical), the error rate in relation to each record is 42 percent. The errors however focused on two variables, which seem difficult to determine, namely 'power' (How important is the source?) And 'intensity' (How high is the intensity of the source?). Different entries in the first and second round led to a high total error ratio. The ratio was lower however, if all variables were taken into account. The 12 data sets recorded again had a total of 248 variables, in 7 cases values did not match, so variables were coded differently than in the first operation, which corresponds to a ratio of 0.02 or about 2.8 percent error in relation to the recorded variables. Thus, 97 percent of all values recorded in the test round matched the first coding. This error rate seems tolerable. Coder 2 was responsible for the second part of the data (9 variables) and scored for an error ratio of 0.76 (13 of 17 test data sets matched), the error rate in relation to the records is thus 23.6 percent. This value seems relatively high, but was again lower, if all variables were taken into account. The 17 data

sets collected again included a total of 60 variables, in 5 cases variables were coded differently than in the first round, which is an error ratio of 0.08 or 8.3 percent in relation to the recorded values. 92 percent of the values recorded twice matched the first round.

The days were selected a) randomly and then b) by the logic of news production: Newspaper days followed TV days to make topic-specific evaluations possible. For example, for *ARD* and *RTL* the 22nd of January 2004 was analyzed; for the dailies *FAZ* and *SZ* the following 23rd of January 2004 was coded. A total of 4.243 units in four journalistic media products were used. Because of time and cost, the newspapers were not been fully analyzed, only the following pages: the front page which is part of the political section, the 'Knowledge' pages of the *SZ*, the 'Panorama' pages (*SZ*) and 'Germany and the world' (*FAZ*) as well as the page 'current events' (*FAZ*). Service items such as weather, stock quotes, as well as the teaser bar were not being recorded. In the case of articles, based on a 'continued inside', there was made a corresponding coding. The weighting of all relevant articles was made by the respective length and placement records. Also, the display format of the article in question was noted. Contributions like a photo or graphic elements were also coded. (Table 1-Table 2: 147)

For the electronic media corresponding variables to print products were used: The amount of the contribution per length was measured in seconds, the placement of the contribution was coded as the number of the sequence in the news broadcast. NIFs (news in film) were specially coded. Since online sources were the focus of this study, contributions without online sources were not recorded in detail. Units, for which online

sources have been identified, were also searched for traditional sources to make statements possible about the ratio of sources to online sources.

The definition of an online resource was determined as follows: the source had to cover an Internet resource which had to be explicitly mentioned in the article or in the report. A URI or URL was not required in any case. If an online source was identified, primary and secondary sources were coded. The latter were defined as media sources, information provided by other media. Also service references were recorded; that units are usually at the end of the article and indicate or point to a further piece of information which is given on the website of the medium. Traditional journalistic sources were then classified: actors, speakers, experts, other media (secondary source), such as its own staff reporters and correspondents, and others (see Haller, 2004: 88).

Some examples: In a news broadcast a report which dealt with terrorists committing a suicide attack in Iraq an al-Qaida website was shown. The report says: "The terrorist group claimed responsibility for this attack." The website acts as a source without clearly naming a URL. Example 2: A TV report says: "… as German Chancellor Angela Merkel said in her weekly Internet message." The picture shows an Internet video player and the chancellor. Example 3: "… as the company today announced on its website." The relevant website is shown.

Reporting – offline or online – is understood here as the core function of a fact-based journalistic work. Without reporting, the main functions of journalism in a democratic society cannot be achieved: controlling the powerful, and providing critical information

for the public about serious actions and events. Journalists are indeed not only mirroring events with their reports, they also authenticate as well as simplify with their news stories. But they work on the basis of their researched facts. Without searching, researching and logging facts, journalists can't match their professional quality standards, for instance objectivity (see McNair, 2009: 32). Now more and more searching and researching is done by using the computer and the Internet. "The appearance of computers in newsrooms has forever changed the work of journalists just as computers have affected just about every other business and industry worldwide", wrote Garrison (1996: 6) in his book on computer assisted reporting. While the first part of the sentence is true, the second isn't. A newsroom is not a factory and the output of journalistic work can't be rationalized the way a chip-factory can, although the pressure on journalists and media is growing like anywhere else (Krüger, 2009: 10-14). In terms of journalistic quality, online reporting has to meet journalistic standards as well as classic reporting. That is, for instance, the transparency of the researched and employed sources.

FINDINGS

This content analysis gives priority to the following questions: a) To what extent and how often do journalists embed online sources in their news reports; can we observe a growing number of online resources? b) Of what quality are the observed online sources in journalistic news products? We tried to answer, however indirectly, to which extent the work of journalists nowadays depend on online searching and researching. The visible products of online and computer assisted reporting are online sources in texts; this makes journalistic online research visible and

transparent for the audience. Online research can only be estimated indirectly here, by the amount of articles with explicit Internet sources in relation to the amount of all analyzed articles and reports. Then the empirical findings of other studies in respect to time spent on online reporting (see above) can be set in proportion to the amount of online sources found here in this study. So, online research here was examined on a text-level (in print) and text/picture-level (on TV). As Internet sources have been defined: any explicit references to the Internet as a journalistic source. A URL does not necessarily have to be cited.

A total of 4,243 media units in four media products were analyzed. 211 units (5%) presented a Internet source. Within these 211 articles and reports, 46 units referred to a service related to and offered by the presenting medium. 165 articles (3.9% of all investigated units) contained journalistic on-line sources in a strict sense. Service links were not defined as a journalistic source so these self-promos were evaluated and counted separately. Overall, the amount of online sources found in the analyzed units was surprisingly small. (Table 3: 148)

With 3.1 percent the daily *FAZ* shows the lowest proportion of articles with Internet sources in the period 2004 to 2007 in respect of all articles analyzed in this newspaper. The 8 o'clock news programme of public television, the *ARD Tagesschau*, followed with 3.7 percent, the daily *SZ* had 4.2 percent articles with online sources, and *RTL News* the highest proportion with 6.5 percent. Service links were treated separately. *RTL News*, had the highest proportion of these service references pointing to their own *RTL* website, a practice which was also intensified later by the editorial office of the *ARD Tagesschau*.

Because of the structure of the TV news broadcasts the number of TV units analyzed was much lower than the number of newspaper articles. The differences between the media reported here in percentage figures are not very great. (Figure 1: 148)

Over time we identified a clear increase in articles and reports with Internet sources. From 2004 to 2006, the number of articles with at least one reference to an Internet resource rose by 75 percent, from 2006 to 2007 the number increased by a further 25 percent. A differentiation by medium however shows no clear trend for *ARD Tagesschau* and *FAZ*. Both media reduced their amount of Internet sources again from the year 2006 to 2007 (see figure 2: top of the figure: charts: thousandth values, lower part of the figure: absolute numbers per year: 149). Figure 2 shows a clear upward trend for *RTL News* and the *SZ*. The data basis for *Tagesschau* is again not very strong, the figures indicate a conservative handling of Internet resources by the *Tagesschau*.

Of what importance were the articles and reports which included online sources? We collected the scale and positions of the units which held Internet sources. Print and TV were evaluated separately. The analysis shows that in the two daily newspapers the articles with online sources had on average 2.7 and 2.6 columns, these were middle sized articles. Larger differences were detected in the number of the lines: 109 (*FAZ*) and 91 (*SZ*) lines were counted for the articles in question. The relatively high standard deviation indicates, however, that the line length in both dailies was in fact not identical. Position: The position on the page of the units with Internet sources was almost equal for both newspapers and with the value 2, roughly in the middle. The TV

reports with Internet sources were placed in the news bulletin at an average ranking of 4 (*ARD Tagesschau*) to 5 (*RTL*), where the standard deviation also shows that the positions varied. Overall, by both the newspapers and television news, no clear effects on the importance of the article were detected. Both t-tests for the length of articles in newspapers (p = 0.15), and the mean length of the report in TV (*ARD* and *RTL*) were not significant (p = 0.93). So table 4 shows in fact that the importance of the analyzed units were mostly in the middle. (Table 4: 149)

The importance of the Internet source itself was measured as well. However the importance of the online source for the article or report was in fact, mostly rather low. In only 16 cases (10%), was the Internet the central source for supporting the story. In over half of all cases (52%) the Internet source was only mentioned briefly (Table 5: 150).

We looked also at the mode and the style of the stories with Internet sources: Among the 161 identified units were 136 news stories, 18 features, 5 interviews and 2 other forms. If an Internet source cited in the article a URL was usually given. Next we looked at the topics and themes of the articles in question. We were able to cover all articles and reports with internet sources, but unfortunately not all 4.243 units. In this respect we can only make statements for the group of units with online sources, but cannot compare them with all articles. To visualize tendencies and trends all topics are also listed by years. Particularly striking is the fact that more than one quarter of all articles with online sources can be attributed to the subject policy/foreign affairs. 27.5 percent of the collected articles with internet sources

dealing thematically with foreign policy. Middle East stories (including Iraq, Iran, Afghanistan, terrorism) had a significant role within this topic, 36 (17%) units dealt with this region of the world. (Table 6: 151)

Another news topic related to foreign affairs was 'domestic policy' (government affairs, political parties, cities). In this field we detected only 12 percent articles/reports with one or more Internet source. In contrast to the theme 'Middle East' and 'policy/foreign affairs' the field 'domestic policy', however, shows a higher number of service references (self-promo, service links etc.) which are not journalistic sources in a strict sense. About half of the 27 articles in this field had references to a service on the medium's own website. By contrast, of 60 articles dealing with foreign policies 5 units only had such a service notice. Apparently, the research and reporting situation in the field 'domestic' is quite clear and transparent, so that the media can offer additional information on their own web pages while in other areas genuine Internet sources must be used.

Around a fifth of the articles in question was attributed to the themes 'knowledge, medicine, health, environment and agriculture'. As expected, in this field there is also a large number of articles with service links. Surprisingly, the proportion of service sources here is lower than in the field domestic policy. From 37 articles in the area of 'knowledge', etc. 11 units listed service links, about one third of the analyzed texts. The fourth section called 'miscellaneous' (accidents, crime, boulevard, celebs) contains 49 articles, about a quarter of the investigated units. The number of articles with self-references in this section is fairly low, but still slightly higher than in the department 'foreign policy'. (Figure 3: 150)

Finally, we wanted to know if there are clusters of URLs named by the analyzed units. In 211 articles and reports which named Internet sources, 256 online sources could be identified in total, most of them (87%) named URLs explicitly. 33 (13%) sources could not be resolved, 41 (16%) addresses referred to the websites of one of the four media involved. 182 references pointed to the web representations of other media, institutions or groups and individuals. These were the journalistic online sources in an original sense.

We listed all explicitly named URLs and did a content clustering: The classification was aiming at the proximity or distance in respect to official sources: specifically mentioned resources from official sources such as government websites and sites of other authorities were labeled as 'official', sources from firms and other professional organizations were labeled 'professional' and alternative or non-professional sources like private weblogs, chats, clubs with non-professional character, and also terrorist websites were labeled 'non-professional'. Furthermore we labeled self-promotion links and unresolved links which could not be specified. The classification shows to what extent official online resources are used and displays the proportion of governmental and non-governmental sources: from the official on the professional to the alternative websites and platforms. The idea behind this classification was that journalists have a lot of classical sources from official organizations at hand. To cover a news story using these sources is relatively easy. The amount of work increases however, if the story covers non-established persons, organizations or topics.

Figure 3 shows only few sources pointing to Internet sites of governments, ministries, authorities or agencies. Most of the articles in question explicitly referred to Internet resources, namely 106 (slightly more than 40 percent of the 256 evaluated Internet sources) derived from professional services: company websites, institutions and intermediaries such as health insurance companies or universities, other media companies or big clubs and societies. 60 URLs (about one quarter) were assigned to 'alternative' sources. These were websites, forums and blogs from citizens, pages of opposition members and non-governmental sites, websites of terrorists and extremists from so-called 'autonomous communities' and those pages on which students had placed an announcement of school massacres. Even clubs that a protest public wanted, were counted, however, there were only a few such cases. All these sites were considered non-professional or non-officially classified. Journalists referred repeatedly to non-official web pages with terrorist background, as 'Islamist websites', 'web of terrorists', 'website of the extremist group, Ansar al Sunna Army', 'Internet Communication of the Taliban', 'website of the Iraqi resistance' etc. were common sources. Arab and Israeli media were cited as professional sites: 'Website of the newspaper Saudi Gazette', 'website of the newspaper Yedioth Ahronoth' etc. Party sites were also used as sources: 'Declaration of the Baath Party in the Internet'. The relatively high number of sources with a non-official background suggests that in areas which are difficult to research and report Internet sources are preferred.

CONCLUSION

Overall, this paper has shown that the proportion of articles with explicit Internet news sources in total is still rather low. Just 5 percent of all reviewed articles have this characteristic. This applies to both media divisions, print and TV alike. However, the proportion of internet-based sources increased significantly over time. Within three years, from 2004 to 2007, we could observe a doubling of the usage of Internet sources. But this growth was obviously not true for all media observed: We distinguished two groups: the 'conservative' news providers like *ARD Tagesschau* and *FAZ*: the number of internet-based sources in 2007 is again lower. The 'progressive' news media *RTL* and *SZ*, however, increased their number of articles with online sources.

The level of 5 percent of articles that cite more or fewer online sources seems relatively small in comparison to the time spent online in the news rooms. The time for searching and researching the Internet reported (Weischenberg et al., 2006; Machill et al., 2008) seems not to transfer directly into online sources on a text level. Either Internet search is only supportive of traditional research and the use of online sources used are then verified by means of offline sources, or the Internet sources are suppressed. The high proportion of online searching time in newsrooms reported by several studies is not yet reflected in the final journalistic output. However the trend shows an increasing number of online sources in journalistic reports.

To summarise: the analysis of extracted URLs and links indicates that online sources are used in specific settings: If there is no official or professional source provided, journalists shift to the Internet. That is obviously the case for non-debatable topics like terrorism attacks or , assaults. But it is also the case for more disputing fields where

discussion is vital and ordinary citizens play a substantial role as in topics of unorganized protests. The later are the interesting parts where Internet sources are filling a gap: for a discourse – even though there is no, or very little official information provided or available.

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TABLES AND FIGURES

TABLE 1: ANALYZED DAYS [a,b]

2004	22.01., 18.02., 11.03., 07.04., 02.05., 25.06., 04.07., 20.08., 14.09., 04.10., 23.11., 06.12.
2006	29.01., 12.02., 09.03., 20.04., 26.05., 07.06., 03.07., 15.08., 26.09., 06.10., 20.11., 27.12.
2007[c]	01.01., 09.02., 02.03., 02.04., 29.05., 05.06.

[a] days randomly selected; [b] for newspaper each day + 1; [c] 2007: half a year analyzed

TABLE 2: ANALYZED UNITS PER MEDIUM

	frequency	percentage
ARD Tagesschau	299	7,0
RTL Aktuell	310	7,3
FAZ	1.651	38,9
SZ	1.983	46,7
Total	**4.243**	**100,0**

**TABLE 3: ONLINE SOURCES AND SERVICE (SELF PROMO) PER MEDIUM; 30 DAYS, 2004-2007**

Medium	Observed Internet sources; frequency	Self-Promo, pointing to service online; frequency	Total: Internet sources and service; frequency
Tagesschau	11	3	14
RTL-News	20	16	36
FAZ	51	18	69
SZ	83	9	92
Total	**165**	**46**	**211**

FIGURE 1: NUMBER OF ARTICLES/REPORTS WITH AT LEAST 1 ONLINE SOURCE; EXCL. SELF PROMO
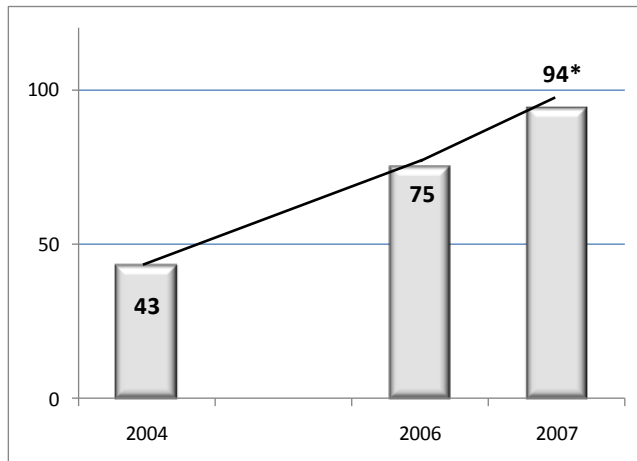
* 2007: numbers weighted with the factor 2 because only a half year was coded.

FIGURE 2: ARTICLES/REPORTS PER YEAR AND MEDIUM WITH AT LEAST ONE INTERNET SOURCE (SELF-PROMO NOT INCLUDED):
ABSOLUTE NUMBERS AND QUOTAS (CHARTS: PARTS PER THOUSAND); YEAR 2007: 6 MONTHS
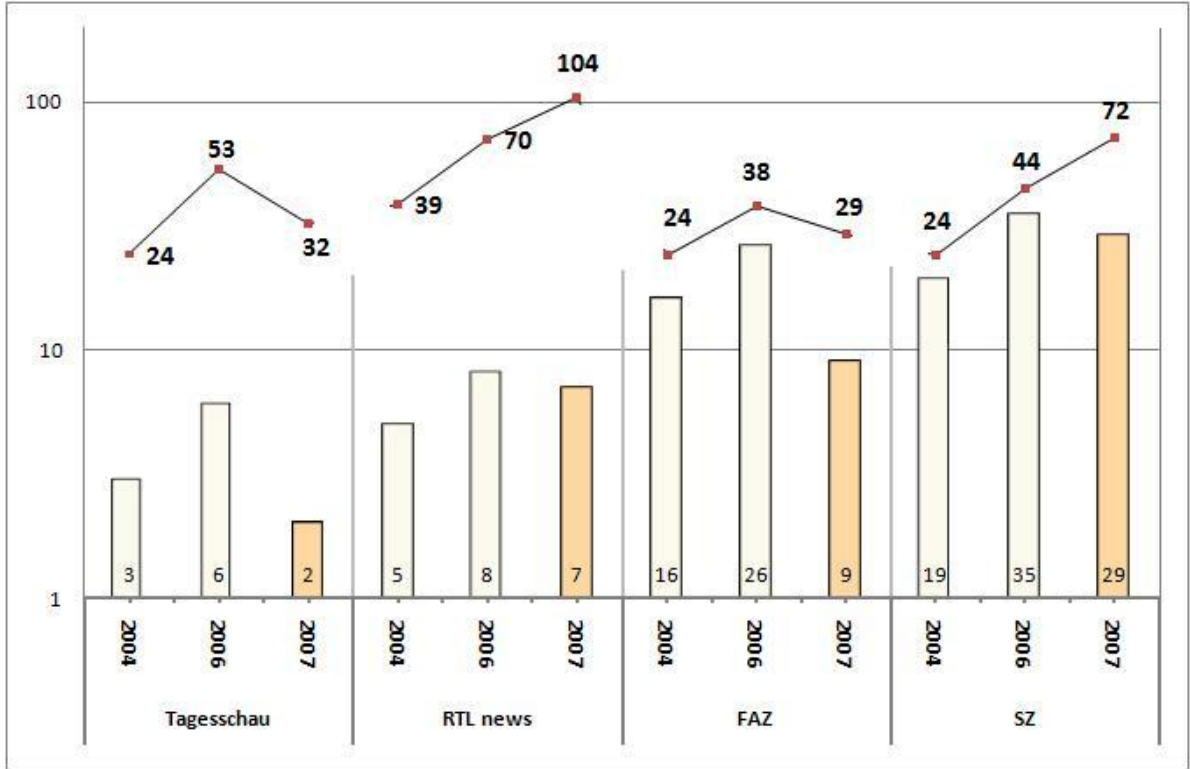
TABLE 4: QUALITY OF ARTICLES/REPORTS WITH ONLINE SOURCES: MEANS

	Mean		Standard deviation	
Print	FAZ (N=51)	SZ (N=83)	FAZ	SZ
Number of columns	2,7	2,6	1,5	1,5
Size (lines)	109,1	91,3	72,4	65,4
Position of article 1 = high, 3 = low	1,9	2,0	0,7	0,7
	Mean		Standard deviation	
TV	Tagesschau (N=11)	RTL (N=20)	Tagesschau	RTL
Position of report (placement) in the whole news programme	3,8	5,5	2,8	3,5
Size (seconds)	109,7	107,9	30,4	74,0

TABLE 5: IMPORTANCE OF SOURCE IN THE ARTICLE/REPORT

	Importance of source			Total
	minor	middle	significant	
Tagesschau	3	8	0	11
RTL news	9	9	2	20
FAZ	29	19	3	51
SZ	45	27	11	83
Total	**86**	**63**	**16**	**165**

FIGURE 3: SOURCES: EXPLICITLY NAMED URLS: CLASSIFIED (INCL. SELF PROMO)
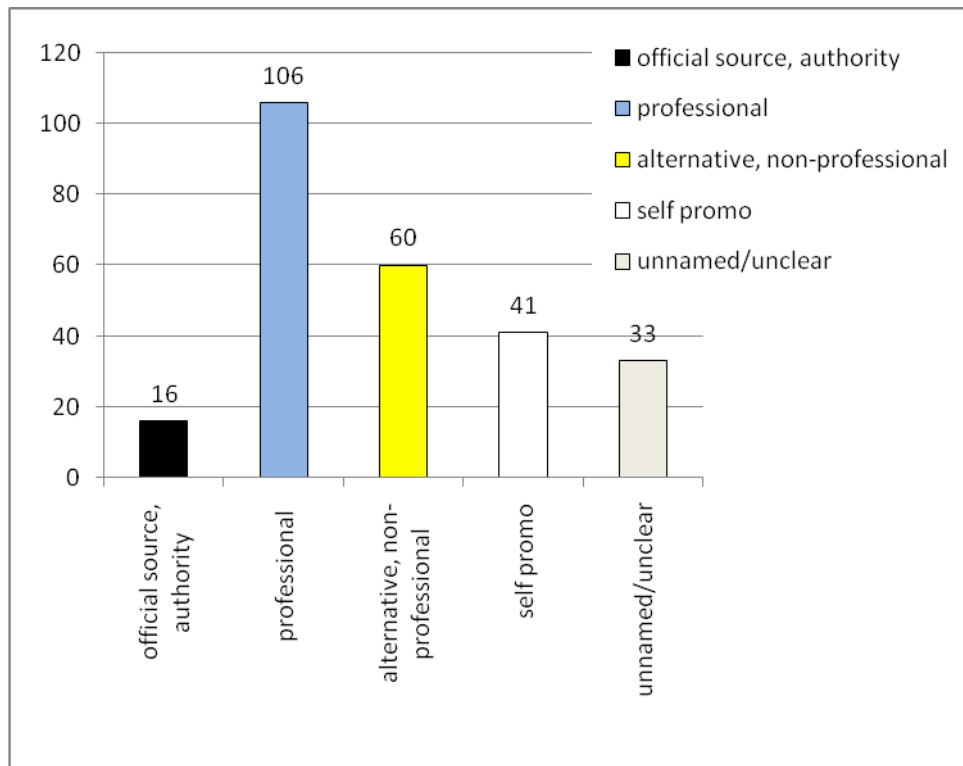
TABLE 6: NUMBER OF ARTICLES/REPORTS BY TOPICS, INCL. SELF PROMO

Topic	Freq.	%	2004	2006	2007	2007*
1 Government/Policy: Domestic	15	7,11	6	4	5	10
2. Government/Policy: Foreign Affairs	7	3,32	0	2	5	10
3. Government/Policy: Parties	2	0,95	0	2	0	0
4. Government/Policy: Länder, Cities	3	1,42	0	2	1	2
5. EU	2	0,95	0	1	1	2
6. Elections in gen.	0		0	0	0	0
7. Policy of other countries like USA	22	10,43	6	13	3	6
8. Iraq	25	11,85	13	5	7	14
9. Middle East Conflict	1	0,47	0	0	1	2
10. Afghanistan	3	1,42	0	0	3	6
11. Iran	1	0,47	0	1	0	0
12. Terror in general (excl. Irak, Afgh.)	6	2,84	5	1	0	0
13. - 15. not valid	0	0	0	0	0	0
16. Ruanda	0	0	0	0	0	0
17. UNO	0	0	0	0	0	0
18. Federal Authorities	0	0	0	0	0	0
19. High Court Rulings	1	0,47	0	1	0	0
20. Economics, Unions	8	3,79	2	2	4	8
21. Ecology/Agriculture	6	2,84	1	3	2	4
22. Social Affairs	1	0,47	1	0	0	0
23. Bird Flu	2	0,95	0	2	0	0
24. Nutrition/Health/Medical Affairs	13	6,16	1	4	8	16
25. Media	6	2,84	0	4	2	4
26. Trade Shows	0	0	0	0	0	0
27. Religion	5	2,37	0	5	0	0
28. Culture	8	3,79	3	4	1	2
29. Lawsuits (excl. economical relevance)	2	0,95	1	1	0	0
30. Accidents/Disasters	4	1,90	0	2	2	4
31. Boulevard/Panorama	26	12,32	8	13	5	10
32. not valid	0	0	0	0	0	0
33. Funerals/Obituaries	1	0,47	0	1	0	0
34. Crime	16	7,58	1	12	3	6
35. Sports	7	3,32	2	5	0	0
36. Science	16	7,58	5	4	7	14
37. Prizes	2	0,95	2	0	0	0
Total	**211**	**100**	**57**	**94**	**60**	**120***

* last column weighted with factor 2, because 2007 only 6 months recorded