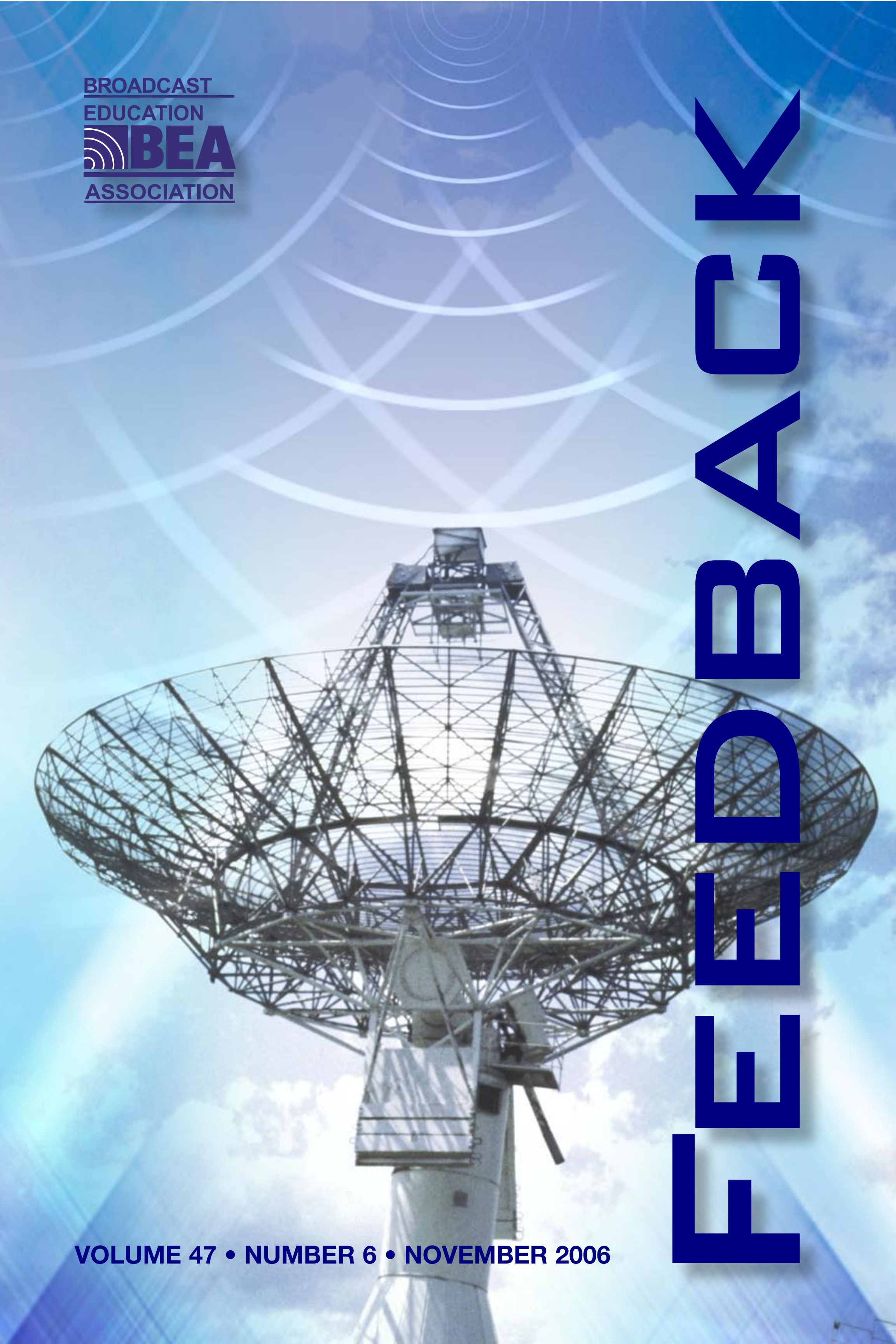
BROADCAST EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

FEEDBACK



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Feedback is an electronic journal scheduled for posting six times a year at www.beaweb.org by the Broadcast Education Association. As an electronic journal, Feedback publishes (1) articles or essays— especially those of pedagogical value—on any aspect of electronic media: (2) responsive essays—especially industry analysis and those reacting to issues and concerns raised by previous Feedback articles and essays; (3) scholarly papers: (4) reviews of books, video, audio, film and web resources and other instructional materials; and (5) official announcements of the BEA and news from BEA Districts and Interest Divisions. Feedback is not a peer-reviewed journal.

All communication regarding business, membership questions, information about past issues of Feedback and changes of address should be sent to the Executive Director, 1771 N. Street NW, Washington D.C. 20036.

SUBMISSION GUIDELINES

1. Submit an electronic version of the complete manuscript with references and charts in Microsoft Word along with graphs, audio/video and other graphic attachments to the editor. Retain a hard copy for reference.
2. Please double-space the manuscript. Use the 5th edition of the American Psychological Association (APA) style manual.
3. Articles are limited to 3,000 words or less, and essays to 1,500 words or less.
4. All authors must provide the following information: name, employer, professional rank and/or title, complete mailing address, telephone and fax numbers, email address, and whether the writing has been presented at a prior venue.
5. If editorial suggestions are made and the author(s) agree to the changes, such changes should be submitted by email as a Microsoft Word document to the editor.
6. The editor will acknowledge receipt of documents within 48 hours and provide a response within four weeks.

REVIEW GUIDELINES

1. Potential instructional materials that can be reviewed include books, computer software, CD-ROMs, guides, manuals, video program, audio programs and Web sites.
2. Reviews may be submitted by email as a Microsoft Word document to the editor.
3. Reviews must be 350-500 words in length.
4. The review must provide a full APA citation of the reviewed work.
5. The review must provide the reviewer's name, employer, professional rank and/or title, email address and complete mailing address.

SUBMISSION DEADLINES

Feedback is scheduled, depending on submissions and additional material, to be posted on the BEA Web site the first day of January, March, May, July, September and November. To be considered, submissions should be submitted 60 days prior to posting date for that issue.

Please email submissions to Joe Misiewicz at joedr@sbcglobal.net. If needed: Joe Misiewicz, *Feedback* Editor, Department of Telecommunications, Ball State University, Muncie, IN 47306, USA.

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TV MARKET AND CONGRESSIONAL DISTRICT MISMATCHES: EFFECTS ON CAMPAIGN SPENDING AND ELECTION OUTCOMES

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A small portion of the work, the 1998 campaign results, were presented May 27, 2001, to the Political Communication Division of the International Communication Association. The complete work has not been presented or published elsewhere.

"Television is one of the most expensive and important tools congressional candidates use to communicate with voters," wrote Herrnson (2001, p. 129). Recent campaign spending numbers bear out Herrnson's observation. Television Bureau of Advertising figures shows an increase even in non-presidential years. Political ads topped $200 million nationwide in 1990 (Foltz), and by 1998 were approximately $500 million in local broadcast TV sales (Freeman).

The Campaign Media Analysis Group and Alliance for Better Campaigns (later called the Campaign Legal Center Media Policy Program) tallied spending on TV spots in the nation's largest 100 markets. The totals were $771 million during 2000 and $995.5 million in 2002. From the start of the year through Election Day nearly 1.5 million political ads aired on 573 stations in those markets (Saunders).

In the 2004 election the totals in the top 100 markets more than doubled to $1.6 billion, or 1.95 million spots on 615 stations. If clumped together it would be roughly 677 solid days of nothing but political ads. Cable TV trailed far behind broadcast, $64.5 million spent on 24,586 ads in those same top 100 markets (McGehee).

Active congressional candidates typically devote 40 percent of their overall campaign budgets to ads, frequently TV ads (Chinoy). Herrnson (2001, pp. 72, 74, 75) stated most congressional candidates retain independent media consultants; about a fifth have staff experts. He further noted that campaigns employing professionals to develop ads usually are at an advantage, especially over challengers who may have difficulty affording media consultants.

Broadcast advertising clearly has become a significant channel by which U. S. congressional candidates communicate with voters. The importance of this channel, however, may vary greatly among the nation's 435 congressional districts. TV markets and congressional districts, of course, are very different geographic areas. The nation's 212 TV markets are determined by where viewers report picking up and watching stations from a nearby city. The lines may cross state boundaries, and the markets vary greatly in population. Congressional districts, however, are created within states and must be, within a very narrow margin, roughly equal in population. Gerrymandering, or the drawing of district lines to favor a person or party, only adds to the likely incongruity of TV and congressional boundaries.

Some congressional districts may match well the contours of mid-size broadcast markets. Other congressional districts may be small zones in much bigger metropolitan areas (large broadcast markets), making broadcast ads both prohibitively expensive and inefficient. Broadcast ads in big markets naturally cost more than in smaller markets; the potential audience is bigger and stations can demand higher prices for time compared to smaller markets. Furthermore, candidates able to pay the high price of broadcast ads in very big markets must endure great inefficiency. Candidates would be paying to reach many viewers outside the district, people who cannot vote for the candidate.

Still other congressional districts may be comprised of small pieces of several broadcast markets. While some of these may be smaller and cheaper markets in which to buy time, the inefficiency problem once again emerges. A candidate who wants to cover the district may have to buy time on many stations and markets. Many, if not most, of the viewers of each station's signal will live outside the district.

The relationship between congressional districts and TV markets (not just number of markets but especially contour "matches" and "mismatches") is well worthy of study. Matches may entice campaigns toward broadcast ads an efficient and effective means of voter communication. Mismatches may shift campaigns toward other alternatives such as direct mail, events, personal contact, and cable system ads. Matches and mismatches between district and coverage area even may play a role, not only in how the campaign is waged, but also whether the seat is hotly contested or incumbent-safe and unchallengeable.

Some examples of match and mismatch between congressional district and TV market may prove useful in illustrating the phenomenon under study. Three good examples of "mismatch" districts are:

- Louisiana's 4th District has been described as one of the strangest-looking in the country, and in U.S. history. It runs from Shreveport in northwest Louisiana, narrowly follows the border with Arkansas, turns south along the Mississippi River, and then splits into three arms. One juts west into central Louisiana; one curves south and west to take in parts of Baton Rouge and Lafayette; one heads east toward the Florida border. It is 66 percent African American, contains all or part of 28 parishes, and seven TV markets (Taur 1993, pp. 317, 324).
- Tennessee's 4th District runs from rural flatland east of Memphis, snakes east then north through middle Tennessee to reach Appalachian counties on the Kentucky border, and curves around parts of Knox County and east Tennessee. Five TV markets are needed to reach voters in it (Taur 1993, pp. 684, 691-692).
- Nebraska's 3rd District serves the central and western parts of the state and does not have the sprawling arms or twists of the two other districts in this list, but nine TV markets slice up this area (Taur 1993, pp. 444, 450).

Some examples of congressional districts where there is a good "match" with TV market contours are:

- California's 17th District, entirely within the Salinas-Monterey TV market, a relatively small market with very few viewers outside the 17th (Taur 1993, p. 85; Standard Rate and Data Service 2002, p. 537).
- California's 22nd District, entirely within the Santa Barbara/Santa Maria/ San Luis Obispo market, and the majority of viewers are in the 22nd (Taur 1993, p. 91; Standard Rate and Data Service 2002, p. 735).
- Ohio's 17th District, entirely within the relatively small TV market of Youngstown, and most Youngstown viewers inside the 17th (Taur 1993, p. 600; Standard Rate and Data Service 2002, p. 880).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Three previous projects have looked directly at effects of congruity, or lack thereof, between congressional districts and TV markets. Luttbeg (1983) created a categorization system for congressional districts. He used Census Bureau data (average household density of 2.81 persons in 1978) to convert the TV households in a market to a close approximation of the number of persons. Where the signals of a small set of stations could not reach 75 percent of the population he called that district Not Coverable. This turned out to be 53 rural districts. A total of 259 districts were identified as Not Selective. In other words, messages there reached four or more non-constituents for every constituent (congressional district resident). The remaining 124 districts he called Congruent. The findings, however, ran contrary to Luttbeg's expectation that congruent districts would be where one would find the most competitive races and the greatest spending. Congruent districts where one might expect the greatest potential for challenge actually had the highest percentage of incumbents re-elected, the highest vote percentage obtained by winners, and the lowest challenger overall spending. Winners, in fact, spent more money on campaigns in the Not Coverable districts.

Campbell, Alford, and Henry (1984) abandoned Luttbeg's categorization scheme for a congruence measure using data from Congressional Districts in the 1970s, the 108 congressional districts in the 1980 National Election Survey, 1980 election results, and the census. For the Not Selective, or "subsumed" district, the researchers divided the congressional district population by the TV market population. For districts with multiple TV markets the researchers calculated the same ratio (district population v. market population) for each market and adjusted it to the percentage of that TV market in the congressional district.

The researchers also contradicted Luttbeg by finding evidence of a congruency benefit for challengers. Name recognition went up slightly for incumbents and dramatically for challengers in highly congruent districts. Specifically, incumbents had a better than six to one name recognition advantage in low congruence districts (25 to 4 percent), as compared to less than a two-to-one name advantage lead (52 to 31 percent) in high congruence districts. The vote totals showed incumbents getting 72 percent of votes in low congruence districts, but only 64 percent of votes in high congruence districts.

Levy and Squire (2000) looked at all 1988 and 1990 congressional elections where incumbents faced a challenger. They also borrowed part of the Campbell, Alford, and

Henry method of calculating congruence. Levy and Squire used a formula of number of people in the district divided by the number of people in the Area of Dominant Influence (ADI) in 1990.[1] Levy and Squire found that more congruent districts did indeed make it easier for constituents, presumably as a result of both news and ads, to recall the name of the challengers. However, they did not find any congruence benefit for challengers when it came to election outcomes.

One should note Levy and Squire took one curious step regarding multiple TV market congressional districts. They only calculated a congruence ratio for any market where the congressman maintained a district office. They assumed that congressmen would place district offices to serve the bulk of their constituents. Certainly that's likely. However, it is also possible some congressman may choose not to place an office in an area dominated by the opposing party, or may have few district offices to be able to use office resources elsewhere, or may choose to have a mobile district office, or may choose to have few offices so as to be able to brag about not spending much taxpayer money.

The experience of these three research projects all provides clues about how to approach this work. Luttbeg made clear the need to differentiate between congressional districts "subsumed" in huge TV markets and rural congressional districts spread across parts of several small TV markets. Campbell, Alford, and Henry showed the desirability of a congruence formula. Levy and Squire point out the benefit of using multiple elections.

Thus, this project examines the 1992-2000 congressional elections, the entire census-to-census "life" of all 435 U.S congressional districts. By that, the author refers to the time period between the establishment of boundaries for each district in the state legislative session following the 1990 census, and the establishment of new boundaries in the state legislative session following the 2000 census. In practical terms this means the 1992, 1994, 1996, 1998, and 2000 congressional elections. Though some boundaries may shift because of court challenges or tardy legislative action, this set of elections should yield relatively stable reference points for the boundaries of the districts.

This work uses a formula that, instead of calculating the match, tallies the mismatch or the amount of waste. This technique makes it possible to use one simple formula for both subsumed and multi-market districts. That formula is the total number of adults (aged 18+) in the TV market(s) divided by the total number of adults (aged 18+) in the congressional district. Thus, a figure of 1.3 would indicate a relatively well-contoured district where a candidate reaches only slightly more adults through TV than those capable of voting for him or her. A figure of 12.7, on the other hand, would indicate a wasteful contours mismatch in which candidate ads would fall predominantly on adults not in the candidate's district. The researcher also will calculate separate figures for subsumed and multi-market districts to see if any differences emerge regarding contour mismatches, campaign spending, and electoral outcomes.

Also, one should note a study that addressed media markets and congressional districts using an historical timeline. Prior (2000) evaluated the number of congressional districts with television stations between 1940 and 1970, and the effects the increasing number of television stations had or did not have on the congressional districts. His results showed that the presence of TV stations in a district did, in fact, greatly increase the advantage for an incumbent. He also determined that television most enhances incumbency advantage in small districts with several television stations.

HYPOTHESES

Past work by Luttbeg (1983), Campbell, Alford, and Henry (1984), and Levy and Squire (2000) all make the logical leap that more congruent districts mean more targeted broadcast ad placement and thus more competitive districts. The links in this chain are open to question, and may explain the divergent previous findings regarding competitiveness. Instead, one should take a step back to determine if candidates take the logical step of reducing broadcast ad spending when faced with the daunting challenge of wasteful, incongruent districts.

Thus, Hypothesis One states that as contour mismatch increases [total adults in the TV market(s) divided by total adults in the congressional district] candidate spending on electronic media advertising will decrease.

Because the answer to Hypothesis One cannot be assumed, this project approaches competitiveness more as a exploratory research question, looking for any relationship between contour mismatch and victory margin, spending margin, and length of incumbency.

Hypothesis Two updates Prior's conclusions, most drawn from the period during the introduction of television as a mass medium, to see if they are still valid. Specifically, as the number of television stations in a television market increases one will find more non-competitive districts with large victory margins and long-serving incumbents.

METHODS

The data for this analysis cover the entire census-to-census "life" of all 435 U.S. congressional districts, 1992 to 2000 elections. The information was gathered using: A. C. Nielsen Company's TV Markets website; *Congressional Districts in the 1990s a Portrait of America* (Taur); the *Almanac of American Politics 1994, 1996, 1998, 2000, and 2002* (Barone, Ujifusa, and Cook), and *Congressional Quarterly's Politics in America 1994, 1996, 1998, 2000, and 2002* (Duncan and Nutting).

The books provided the following information about the congressional district and the election results: state, district number, winners number and percentage of votes, second place number and percentage of votes, all candidate party affiliations, year the winner was first elected, number of terms winner has been elected to serve, and total campaign spending by the winner and loser.

These books gave accurate, detailed information about each election, district, or TV market, making this project a census (rather than a sampling) of congressional candidates, congressional districts, and TV markets. The website now known as Political Moneyline (www.tray.com/fecinfo), owned and operated by Kent Cooper and Tony Raymond helped fill in any missing Federal Elections Commission data on individual candidate overall campaign spending.[2]

These data were further supplemented by campaign spending data from The Campaign Study Group. CSG is a for-profit consulting firm specializing in campaign finance research and public opinion analysis. Among its many projects, CSG spends thousands of hours each year correcting and categorizing spending reports from the Federal Election Commission's database (CSG website, http://campaignstudygroup.com). The researcher was able to take advantage of a one-year educational membership to use CSG data. Unfortunately, full congressional spending data were available only for 1992 and 1994 elections, with additional partial results from about a hundred districts from 1998. The CSG categories were: overhead such as travel and offices, campaign events including fundraisers, direct mail, telemarketing, polling, electronic media advertising, other media advertising, traditional activities such as brochures.

The number of commercial television stations in each market came from *Television and Cable Factbook*, 1992, 1994, 1996, 1998, and 2000 editions (Television Digest). The market data on the number of adults 18 and older in each market came from Standard Rate and Data's *SRDS TV & Cable Source* (2001). *Congressional Districts in the 1990s: A Portrait of America* provided information on which media markets covered which congressional districts, and how much of each congressional district by population was in that media market.

FINDINGS

Broadcast advertising overall played an important, but quite varied, role in the elections analyzed. The number of TV stations in each congressional district ranged from a low of three to a high of 69; the mean was 15.97. Winners spent an average of $139,439 on broadcast ads, 23 percent of the campaign budget. For losers the figures were $70,203 or 23.7 percent of the budget. During this five-election timeframe 247 losers and 104 winners spent no money on broadcast ads, but one winner spent 77 percent of the budget on broadcast ads and one loser spent 89 percent.

The contour waste/mismatch ratio ranged from a well-contoured 1.008 (little waste in reaching adults within the district) to a prohibitively wasteful 47.5. The mean waste/mismatch figure was 11.829. In other words, candidates in typical districts who wish to buy broadcast ads are reaching eleven or twelve adults outside their district for every one inside the district.

Increased levels of contour mismatch between congressional districts and media markets correlated with decreased candidate spending on broadcast advertising and increased candidate spending on traditional items such as yard signs, phone banks, bumper stickers, brochures, etc. Simple regressions showed this pattern for both winning and losing candidates. This held true both for raw dollar amounts and percentages of the campaign budget (Table 1).

The regressions also revealed no statistically significant differences regarding contour mismatches and spending on direct mail, telemarketing, overhead, polling, and non-electronic media. Winners in contour mismatched districts, however, did shift some money toward campaign events (Table 1). Thus, the prediction in Hypothesis One generally was supported.

The "next step" research question regarding contour mismatch and congressional district competitiveness did not yield as clear a connection. As the contour mismatch grew, so did the winner's percent of the vote ($N=2123$, $F=7.857$, $p=.0051$) just as the loser's percent of the vote fell ($N=2084$, $F=15.969$, $p=.0001$). However, the number of years in Congress for winners was not significantly different for congruent and incongruent districts.

One initially baffling finding is that in contour-mismatched districts the number of votes for both winners and losers both declined at statistically significant levels compared to contour-matched districts. This could be an artifact of non-competitive districts suppressing voter interest and turnout, but an alternate explanation is found when one separates the "subsumed" from the multi-market districts (Table 2).

Both single- and multiple-market districts mirrored the overall findings that as waste/mismatch increased campaigns of both winners and losers spent smaller percentages of their campaign budgets on electronic media and more on traditional campaign; winners opted for more on events as well. These redundant findings are not included in the table, but the electoral outcome differences merited special attention (Table 2).

One notices that contour mismatch or increased waste led to very different outcomes in single versus multiple TV markets. The "subsumed" districts, small parts of larger TV markets, saw larger vote percentages for winners and smaller vote percentages for losers as the mismatch/waste grew worse. However, the exact opposite happened in multiple-markets, losers got greater percentages of the vote (and winners less) as the district became a more difficult place to use broadcast advertising.

Further, in these multiple-market congressional districts the races appeared to become more competitive as the contour mismatch grew worse. Total spending and winner spending increased, and victory margin decreased. The comparable figures for "subsumed" districts yielded statistically insignificant differences.

Additional research including multiple regression and data not used in this study will be needed to address these significant differences between "subsumed" and multiple-market districts in their connections to media market mismatches. One possibility comes from historical patterns of party identification. Over this five-election timeframe 657 winners in single-market districts (60.8 percent) were Democrats. Conversely, 650 winners in multiple-market districts (59.4 percent) were Republicans. One could argue that urban constituencies who traditionally vote Democratic, African Americans and Hispanics, usually have low voter turnout and that turnout falls dramatically when the contest is perceived as a blowout (Highton and Burris, 2002; Mangum, 2003). Percent of voter turnout tends to be larger in small towns than in central cities (Pazniokas, 2002), so contour mismatch could be a double-edged sword. In central cities it means fewer broadcast ads challenging the presumption of blowout, leading both to low turnout and to high victory margins as measured by percent of vote. In multiple-markets comprised of small towns and suburbs voters, voters are more diligent in their voting. In this condition "high waste" contour mismatches marginally reduce incumbent TV advertising advantages leading to slightly closer outcomes.

Hypothesis Two yielded many fewer associations than either Hypothesis One or the Research Question. As the number of commercial TV stations within a congressional district increased, candidate spending on electronic media decreased (N=839, F=5.318, p=.0213) and spending on other media increased (N=839, F=8.112, p=.0045). However, the predicted larger victory margins and longer-serving incumbents did not emerge. Thus, Hypothesis Two was not supported. Prior's valuable point about the development of television as related to congressional districts is less instructive now that TV is established in good numbers in every district

Discussion

This research set out to examine contour mismatches between television markets and congressional districts, using the entire 1992 to 2000 election "life span" of the 435

U.S. congressional districts. As a general rule great contour mismatches (or wasted audience from the candidate perspective) led to less candidate electronic media spending and more spending on traditional campaign items and events. However, spending on direct mail, telemarketing, polling, overhead, or non-electronic media did not grow at statistically significant levels.

The connection to electoral outcomes was a quite revealing. Contour mismatches overall were associated with larger vote percentages for winners, and smaller percentages for losers, but a more precise picture emerged when broken down by "subsumed" single-market districts and sprawling multiple-market districts. Contour mismatches appeared to exacerbate the already low turnout in urban districts, leading to easy percentage point wins but low vote totals. In multiple-market districts, the wasteful mismatches apparently lowered the effectiveness of one incumbent weapon, broadcast ads, and led to slightly more competitive congressional contests.

The previous work by Luttbeg (1983), Campbell, Alford, and Henry (1984), and Levy and Squire (2000) all assumed that congruent districts meant more targeted broadcast ad placement, and this in turn meant more competitive districts. This work rebuts much of those assumptions. Rather than measuring level of "match," this project measured the much more common phenomenon of mismatch. In that condition congressional candidates do as expected and spend less on electronic media and more on some other forms. However, mismatch alone did not necessarily lead to more or less competitive districts. Instead, mismatch appeared to be associated with both less competitive urban single-market districts and more competitive multiple-market districts. Prior's (2000) historical point about more stations in a market being associated with greater incumbent advantage did not hold up to the more recent period of television as a near universal phenomenon in U.S. lives.

This research demonstrated that the surrounding broadcast markets certainly affect the manner by which congressional campaigns are waged. The key appears to be the efficiency of the buy, whether paid broadcast ads are an efficient way of reaching most of a candidate's potential voters or a wasteful, overpriced collection of people most of whom live outside the district. The importance of broadcast ads only will grow assuming local TV news continues the recent trend of decreased attention to local congressional campaigns (Rosen, 2002; Lear Center, 2002; Trigoboff, 1998). Furthermore, paid advertising is communication whose content is controlled by the candidate. It is not surprising that in districts where broadcast ads efficiently reach voters, candidates spend more resources on it.

Candidates lately have not been the only ones spending money to influence the outcome in congressional races. Political parties and interest groups also selectively place ads to reward some candidates and to punish others. The Brennan Center used 1998 House and Senate data from Campaign Media Analysis Group, a company that monitors political advertising in the largest 75 U.S. media markets. The data were more than 300,000 airings of 2,100 ads. Candidates remained uniformly dominant in TV ad purchases, spending five times more than parties, and ten times more than interest groups. The project tallied 236,177 candidate ads, 7,391 coordinated or co-financed through political parties, 1,152 from independent interest groups reporting their activity to the Federal Election Commission, and 57,037 unreported to the FEC by parties or interest groups (Krasno and Seltz, 2000).

One likely can assume "broadcast congruency" works in an inverse relationship with the power of incumbency. Highly congruent districts with newly elected congressmen and small margins of past victory become, in effect, target districts for interest groups and the Democratic and Republican national committees to focus resources. Spending on broadcasting rises, but so does spending on other media.

Of course, competitive campaigns also must seek to secure victory by good efforts to get one's persuaded citizens to the polls. The Democratic Party and AFL-CIO had a successful Get Out The Vote effort in 2000, an effort copied by the Republican National Committee's 72-Hour Project in 2002 (Glasgow, 2002; Balz and Broder, 2002; Balz, 2003). The "shoe leather and phone banks," of course, also tend to flow to the targeted, often broadcast congruent, districts.

On the other hand, challengers in low-congruency districts with well established incumbents stand little chance of becoming a targeted district. Those challengers must allocate scarce resources between media and grassroots efforts with not enough money available for either while both are needed.

This research project documented a role for media market and congressional district congruence in both the competitiveness of the contest and the strategies used for paid messages. What merits further inquiry are the roles played by media markets and congruency early in the process when parties and major donors are deciding where to spend resources—or, even earlier and less often, when state legislators are deciding where to draw lines.

Table 1. Increased Waste (Contour Mismatch) Television Markets and Congressional Districts, Simple Regressions.

Decreased Spending	N	F	p
Winners, Amount Spent on Electronic Media Ads	839	34.864	.0001
Winners, Percent of Budget, Electronic Media Ads	839	85.954	.0001
Losers, Amount Spent on Electronic Media Ads	839	15.004	.0001
Losers, Percent of Budget, Electronic Media Ads	704	42.056	.0001
Increased Spending	N	F	p
Winners, Amount Spent on Traditional Items	932	39.371	.0001
Winners, Percent of Budget, Traditional Items	931	96.704	.0001
Losers, Amount Spent on Traditional Items	932	17.5	.0001
Losers, Percent of Budget, Traditional Items	794	33.923	.0001
Winners, Amount Spent on Campaign Events	839	13.207	.0003
Winners, Percent of Budget, Campaign Events	839	14.376	.0002

Table 2. Significant Electoral Differences, Single v. Multiple TV Market Congressional Districts as Waste (Contour Mismatch) Increased, Simple Regressions.

Multiple-Market Congressional Districts	N	F	p
Decreased Winner Percentage of the Vote	1064	7.768	.0054
Increased Loser Percentage of the Vote	1036	7.349	.0068

Single-Market ("Subsumed") Congressional Districts	N	F	P
Increased Winner Percentage of the Vote	1058	26.899	.0001
Decreased Loser Percentage of the Vote	1047	34.547	.0001

Multiple-Market Congressional Districts*	N	F	P
Increased Winner Spending	1081	10.606	.0012
Increased Total Spending, Winner and Loser	938	5.93	.0151
Decreased Winner Percentage Margin of Victory	1037	9.44	.0022

* with no statistically significant result in same category for single-market districts

Single-Market Congressional Districts*	N	F	P
Decreased Total Number of Votes for Winner	1056	76.448	.0001
Decreased Total Number of votes for Loser	1047	34.012	.0001

*with no statistically significant result in same category for multiple-market districts

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[1] ADI is a term from Arbitron and how it measured local TV viewing. It is similar to A. C. Nielsen Company's Dominant Market Area (DMA); any follow-up work must use DMA because Arbitron has abandoned the TV ratings business, and now solely does radio.

[2] The author is grateful to Trillia Reed and the McNair Scholars Program. Ms. Reed was a student in the McNair Program when she assisted in data entry for the 1998 congressional elections.

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[ARTICLE]

NATIVE AMERICAN MEDIA: A TRAVEL-STUDY COURSE

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This paper discusses COMM 4311 Special Topics in Communication Arts: Native American Media, an 11-day travel course that visited eight media outlets owned and operated by four different Native American tribes through out the Southwestern portion of the United States. It also explains the circumstances that initiated this undertaking, a brief description of the trip, and a discussion of the educational purposes addressed by the course. It also deals with the planning and implementation of the course as well as some of the problems encountered during the trip.

As I drove along the highway across Northern Arizona, a voice from behind me became increasingly shrill. "Are you there? Can you hear me? Why did I lose the signal again? Hello? Hello? Hello?" Once again the cellular telephone signal played out during one of my student's conversation with a friend back home in Kentucky. This was a common occurrence during the 11-day study course trip that covered three states and more than 1,500 miles. We were on an ultimate academic road trip to study Native American media outlets in the Southwestern portion of the United States. To say we had a multi-dimensional experience is an understatement. During this trip students not only examined a specific and fascinating area of communication but also got lessons in native cultures, history, geology, geography, sociology, art, and music. They also came to appreciate how all forms of communication, both mediated and personal, are affected by the environment in which they operate.

In May, 2002 and again May, 2003, I served as instructor, tour guide, and den mother to a group of students enrolled in COMM 4311 Special Topics in Communication Arts: Native American Media, a travel course that visited eight media outlets owned and operated by four different Native American tribes. This paper will explain the circumstances that initiated this undertaking, a brief description of the trip, and a discussion of the educational purposes addressed by the course. It also deals with the planning and implementation of the course as well as some of the problems encountered during the trip.

THINKING OUTSIDE THE BOX

In fall 2002, I was working at a small liberal arts college in the Midwest that was struggling to maintain its enrollment. That fall the Dean of the College was looking for ways to expand the academic offerings and was taken with the notion of extending the calendar to include a mini-semester during the month of May. He asked the faculty to develop courses that met these three criteria: 1) be adaptable to a short time frame,; 2) be attractive to students, and; 3) be innovative. He suggested this would be an excellent time for faculty to "think outside the box" and explore the possibilities of off-site instruction to take advantage of experiential learning opportunities. At small colleges it is rare to have the opportunity to develop innovative courses. With limited budgets and faculty, we are often tied to a rigid curriculum in order to meet the basic student needs in each discipline, so this was a unique chance to do something inventive.

At the time the college offered two programs requiring student travel that were quite popular with students. Both were offered during the college's March Spring Break. The first was the annual trip to New York City. Several departments, including business, theatre, and sociology, had been offering courses that took students to the Big Apple. This trip included social and cultural activities such as museum tours and Broadway performances along with tours of professional organizations such as the New York Stock Exchange and ABC News. This course was attractive to communication arts students because it took them away from their rural surrounding and exposed them to the big city and a totally difference life style. Although the opportunity to offer a specific course focusing on the professional communications opportunities found in New York City was always a possibility, I never gave it serious consideration. The New York trip coordinators were determined to keep their program in March citing a change would increase the cost of the program to students because May begins the travel season in New York. The second program was offered through the Biology department and involved a trip to Central America to study marine biology. The Biology department was thrilled with the idea of moving their course to May because it gave them the opportunity to expand the length of the trip and to take advantage of off-season transportation and lodging rates.

Being a very student oriented professor, I began to think about what type of course the communication a rts department could offer that would meet the Dean's requirements. I wanted a course that would get students out of their comfort zone and challenge them to think about broader issues in communication. And to be bluntly honest, I wanted to get them out of town to see that communication was multi-dimensional and could be much more influential and functional in serving community needs than the standard fare offered up by the local commercial radio and television stations. I had often taken students on over-night trips to professional conferences or for media tours in a few of the larger cities in our area. This would be an opportunity to extend the travel time and tour media outlets outside our region.

In order to get enough students to participate in the course, I also had to think about designing a course that would be attractive and practical to students outside the major. Because the institution had made the commitment several years earlier to expand the cultural horizons of its students by requiring a multicultural course as a part of the general education program, the idea to offer a course that could meet this general education requirement or could be used as an upper-level elective for the major was a natural fit.

It is interesting how we arrive at some of our best ideas. The idea for this class came out of a family trip and a few visits to the local public library. A few years earlier, my family had taken two trips to southern Colorado and Utah. Being from the hills of Kentucky, the rugged landscapes of the Rocky Mountains and the vastness of the Utah and Arizona deserts and canyons absolutely fascinated me. I started reading all sorts of material about the Southwest including the works of mystery writer Tony Hillerman. For those unfamiliar with Hillerman's works, he has written a series of books about the adventures of two Navajo Tribal policemen. In these books, Hillerman often refers to interviews or news stories in *The Navajo Times* or broadcasts from KTNN-AM. Those comments stuck in my mind and I started thinking about how important these media outlets were for disseminating information to members of the tribe.

With that fledgling thought, I started designing a course about Native American media. A search was conducted to find anything published about Native radio stations and newspapers, but there were very few sources available. The only source of academic writing on the subject found at that time was an article in the *Journal of Broadcasting and Electronic Media* by Bruce L. Smith and Jerry C. Brigham published in 1992 that talked about the status of native radio broadcasting in the United States and Canada. There were a few national newspaper reports (Robbins, 2001; Adelson, 1999), and a few stories in professional publications (Stein, 1992; Fitzerald, 1994; Fitzerald, 1999; Silberman; 1999) about tribal radio or newspapers. These stories focused on two main issues: tribal censorship and signal coverage.

A quick Internet search turned up a number of interesting and relevant sites that helped in the development of the course. (See Appendix A) Beginning with the directory of stations found in Smith and Brigham (1992), several native-owned newspaper and radio Internet sites were found and the decision was made to focus on those with native ownership as opposed to independent media outlets aimed at the indigenous audience. The website of the Native American Journalism Association (http://www.naja.com) led to a number of tribal newspaper sites and provided excellent information about the mission of this organization.

One of the most valuable Internet sources about native owned radio stations was AIROS—American Indian Radio on Satellite (www.airos.org). AIROS is a project of Native American Public Telecommunications that receives funding from the Corporation for Public Broadcasting and in-kind support from Nebraska Educational Telecommunications. NAPT's mission "supports the creation, promotion and distribution of native media'" (http://www.nativetelecom.org/mission.html 10/10/2005). AIROS, whose motto is "All Indian Radio, Everyday, Everywhere" serves as the primary international satellite distributor of Native American programming providing its audience "with authentic Native American music, news, entertainment, interviews, and discussions of the current issues in Indian Country and the world." (http://www.airos.org/native.html)

This search laid the groundwork for a course focusing on the study of Native-owned media examining the differences in how tribes use media in order to meet the needs of their tribal members. Because of the concentration of media outlets in the Southwest, this was an excellent place to study these outlets. Because some of them were commercial enterprises and others were operated as a public service, the variety of organizational structures used to meet communication needs of the individual indigenous audiences was an added bonus. The resulting course was approved for both upper level communication credit and multicultural credit for the general education program of distribution.

EDUCATIONAL PURPOSES

In its final form this course had three primary purposes. First, it was designed to expose students to ethnic media by focusing on media outlets that have Native Americans as their primary target audience. Students toured five radio stations and three newspaper operations in the Southwest to get a first hand look at the facilities, the programming, and the information offered by these media outlets. Through these intense personal experiences students observed the unique problems facing Native American media in reaching traditional native audiences using modern untraditional methods of communication.

Second, this course allowed students, who were primarily from the rural Midwest, to tour the southwestern portion of the United States. The students who took this course were all middle-class Caucasians with limited travel experience. Of the 24 students who participated in these trips, only two had been to the southwestern region and many of the activities that took place during the trips were first-time experiences such as airplane travel, horseback riding, train travel, and rafting. Finally, and in many ways, the most important aspect of this trip was that it provided an invaluable opportunity for students to be exposed to an exciting and vibrant blend of native cultures, an assortment of historic locations as well as the unparallel splendor of three National Parks. On the 11-day trip students visited several regional sites of interest including the Pueblo Indian Cultural Center in Albuquerque, New Mexico, A:Shiwi A:Wan Museum & Heritage Center at Zuni, New Mexico, The Navajo Museum in Window Rock, Arizona, Canyon De Chelly National Monument in Chinle, Arizona, The Hopi Cultural Center on Second Mesa in the Hopi Indian Reservation, Arizona , Grand Canyon National Park in Northern Arizona, Monument Valley Navajo Tribal Park on the border of Northern Arizona and Southern Utah, and the Four-Corners Monument, and Mesa Verde National Park in Mancos, Colorado.

PLANNING

Although there is a wealth of literature on study-abroad courses (Carsello & Greaser, 1976; Kuh & Kauffman, 1984; Bowman, 1987; Carlson & Widaman, 1988; Bodycott & Walker, 2000; Paige, et. al, 2002; Kitsantas , 2004; Swain, 2005), there has been very little written about domestic travel courses. Other than an assortment of internal institutional documents from various educational institutions, there was very little discussion of how to plan a trip (Butler & Wilkerson, 2000). Travel courses bring with them a number of unique problems and processes that are rarely addressed in the traditional classroom setting. There were several issues that needed to be addressed including itinerary development, travel arrangements, institutional travel policies, and student recruitment.

The dates of the trips were determined by the academic calendar established by the institution. The trips began on the first day of the mini-session that happened to be the Monday after graduation. The plans included an 11-day trip and approximately one week post-trip time for students to complete assignments for the course. The number of days for the trip could have been expanded, but because the local airport was quite small and had limited week-end flights, the 11-day schedule avoided the restriction of limited travel times. Extending the length of the trip would have also increased the cost to student and the objective was to make it an affordable trip.

ITINERARY DEVELOPMENT

Based on previous research, a list of stations and newspapers in the Southwest that offered a variety of programming and organizational structures was developed. In order to meet the multicultural dimensions of the course, it was also important to incorporate other historical and recreational activities in the trip. Because of the vast distances in this geographic area, there was a need to avoid backtracking as much as possible. Contacts with these media outlets began in Fall 2001 with all the dates and times for tours finalized by January 2002.

The starting point for these trips was Albuquerque, New Mexico. This location was ideal because Albuquerque is the home of KUNM-FM, at the University of New Mexico that hosts *Native America Calling*, a daily call-in program heard on more than 60 stations in the United States and in Canada by more than 37,000 Native listeners weekly via AIROS (American Indian Radio on Satellite). The Koahnic Broadcast Corporation in Anchorage, Alaska, produces *Native America Calling*.

The trip took a fairly circular route throughout New Mexico, Arizona, and Colorado. The next stop on the KSHI-FM in Zuni, New Mexico, was a radio station licensed to the Zuni Communications Authority serving the inhabitants of Zuni Pueblo. With a very limited staff, KSH-FM operates with funding from the Corporation for Public Broadcasting and has been on the air since 1978. The next stop was Window Rock, Arizona where students visited KTNN-AM, KWRK-FM and *The Navajo Times*. Both radio stations and the newspaper are tribally owned but are run as independent commercial enterprises. These entities create a considerable revenue stream for the tribe while operating independently from the tribal government in order to avoid political complications as they provide their audience with news and information about events on the reservation. KTTN-AM is also unique because it broadcasts in the Navajo language and in 1985 was the last 50,000 watt clear channel AM Station to be authorized by the FCC (http://www.ktnnonline.com/default.asp). *The Navajo Times* has been published weekly since 1959.

The newest station on the trip is KUYI-FM in Hotevilla, Arizona. This radio station began operating in 2000 and is licensed to and operated by the Hopi Foundation that has a mission "to have a positive effect on the lives of the people living on the Hopi Reservation and in surrounding communities" (http://www.kuyi.net). The final set of media outlets toured was KSUT-FM, KUTE-FM and *The Southern Ute Drum* in Ignacio, Colorado. These media outlets are owned and operated by the Southern Ute Tribe. KSUT-FM is an award-winning NPR, PRI and AIROS affiliate that serves the Four Corners region via two transmitter sites and six translators. KUTE-FM is specifically programmed to broadcast tribal information and play the music of Native American artists. Each week programming from this station is featured on *Native Sounds, Native Voices – Regional*, a two-hour music program distributed via AIROS (http://www.ksut.org/aboutksut.htm). *The Southern Ute Drum* operates under the authority of the Southern Ute Tribal Executive and serves as an information source for tribal members on and off the reservation.

A variety of extra activities were planned to enhance the trip. Many of these activities were suggested by the media contacts. Although these activities could have been optional, the decision was made to include the cost of these activities with the cost of the trip so everyone could participate. The activities included visits to the historical and cultural sites mentioned previously. One of the most exciting activities was a four-hour horseback ride into Canyon de Chelly. The Canyon is a National Monument and all access to the Canyon floor is restricted without a Navajo guide or Park Service employee. Many of the students said this was the best activity of the trip. Students also took a rafting trip. The first year the rafting trip was a day long adventure along the Colorado River from the base of the Glenn Canyon Dam to Lee's Ferry that is considered the beginning of the Grand Canyon. The second year, the rafting trip was on the Animas River through Durango, Colorado to Ignacio, Colorado on the Southern Ute Indian Reservation. Both years, the students took a daylong trip via the Durango-Silverton Railroad to the mining town of Silverton, Colorado in the San Juan Mountains. (See Appendix B)

INSTITUTIONAL TRAVEL POLICIES

Because this was a somewhat new experience for the institution, many of the policies that governed the trip were adapted from those used for previous trips. Complete medical and insurance information and emergency contacts for the students were required approximately two weeks before the trip. Students also signed travel waivers that included all the various types of transportation that would be used during the trip. The administration also prepared authorization documents allowing for the use of the college credit cards and assigning a college representative in case a student required medical treatment.

STUDENT RECRUITMENT/DEADLINES

Approximately six months before the trip, student recruitment began. Because the Maymester was in its early stages, the administration decided students could receive up to three hours of academic credit free of charge if they restricted the number of hours they enrolled in during the spring semester to 15 or under. This experiment was instituted to give Maymester enrollment an introductory boost and affected advising for the spring semester. In November 2001, all the students in communication arts were notified of the new course offering via e-mail and in-class announcements. E-mail was also used to notify students in other majors and an informational meeting was held in December prior to the Christmas break. A deadline for enrollment in the course was set for January 25 with a $500 non-refundable deposit required at that time. A second deposit deadline for $500 was set for March 1st with the balance due by April 1st. The trip was limited to 12 participants including faculty.

Beginning with the first deposit deadline, the course participants began to meet monthly and were responsible for presenting a pre-trip briefing. Some students were assigned a tribe to research while others were assigned a specific location on the itinerary. This preview helped the students become familiar with the locations they were going to visit and provided information about reservation etiquette so they would understand what behaviors were acceptable.

PROBLEMS

Transportation and illness were two major problems during the May 2002 trip. At the beginning of the trip one of the students overslept and missed the flight causing the group to rearrange its plans and miss a private tour of the Accoma Pueblo. Because we had a great travel agent the student's trip was rescheduled allowing her to connect with us in Albuquerque. There were several other minor incidents including a run away horse, a run-in with a panhandler, and people occasionally ignoring their wake up calls, but these were to be expected. The biggest problem to affect the May 2002 trip happened when I got food poisoning and spent a very miserable 12 hours on a six-hour bus ride and six-hour rafting trip. Having learned a hard lesson, I invited another faculty member to accompany me the second year. This made the trip less stressful because the burden of responsibility was now shared with another adult. The first year also included a trip to the emergency room due to a student's allergic reaction to the detergent used at one of the hotels. The second year was less eventful with the exception of a case of severe sunburn and a minor repair to the van.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

During the trip students were required to keep a journal of their daily activities. This process helped the student to record events as they happened rather than trying to remember information at the conclusion of the trip. After visiting each media outlet, students were required to write a brief report summarizing the visit, including an analysis of the issues important to the operation of that media outlet, how the outlet serves its audience, and suggestions on how the service could be improved. At the conclusion of the trip, students wrote a final report that included a brief description of the trip and assignments. Students were asked to comment on how the experience related to their major and their personal career goals. Students were also asked to provide a personal assessment of the experience including observations about the organization of the trip, a narrative concerning the best and worst experiences during the trip, and suggestions for improving the experience. The final report also included a statement explaining how the student's awareness of other cultures had been enhanced.

This type of course has both practical and cultural applications. On the practical side, students learn in a variety of ways. As an instructor you can tell your students about a topic, but it becomes clearer when they can see that topic in action. Visits to media outlets are wonderful ways to enhance the learning experience. A tour of a radio station is remembered much longer than a lecture on station operations. Culturally, it is beneficial for students to be exposed to a different culture to experience firsthand how those differences are reflected in the media of that cultural group. There are numerous variations on this travel-course idea that incorporates learning subject matter with learning about cultures. For an example, a trip to Miami and southern Florida to examine media outlets aimed at Spanish speaking audiences could be very informative.

There are several recommendations for those who might be considering an extensive travel course with students:

1. Keep duplicate records of emergency contacts and medical information
2. Plan early
3. Set deadlines
4. Establish a set of behavioral expectations and consequences
5. Be flexible

This multicultural experience impressed on the students the value of media in helping to disseminate important information to audiences separated by vast distances. They also learned how native media are being used to build unity and preserve native cultures. One very important life lesson learned on the trip was a sense of isolation, both physically and racially, these midwestern students experienced for the first time. Sometimes we were the only white faces around when dining at local restaurants or visiting historical sites. This sense of discomfort gave the students a brief glimmer of what it means to be the minority and triggered several very touching, soul-searching conversations about race and social injustice. As for the physical isolation, they learned a practical lesson about how the cellular telephone system is affected by distance and geography.

APPENDIX A

Internet Sources

The People's path
http://www.thepeoplespaths.net/indianradio.htm

Hopi Radio
http://www.kuyi.net/

Southern Ute
http://www.ksut.org/contactus.htm

Navajo Radio
http://www.ktnnonline.com/index.html

AIROS
http://www.airos.org

Navajo Times
http://www.navajotimes.com/

Roane State (TN) field trip
http://www.rscc.cc.tn.us/swft/overview/

Southern Ute Tribe
http://www.southern-ute.nsn.us/

Navajo Nation
http://www.navajo.org/
Hopi Tribe
http://www.hopi.nsn.us/

Durango-Silverton Railroad
http://www.durangorailway.com

National Parks
http://www.nps.gov

Indian Country Today
http://www.indiancountry.com/

Native American News
http://www.nativenews.net/

Native America Calling
http://www.nativeamericacalling.com/

Koahnic Broadcasting
knba.org

Indian Country News
http://www.indiancountrynews.com

Native American Journalism Association
http://www.naja.com/

APPENDIX B

Itinerary Maymester 2003
CART4311 Special Topics in Mass Communication: Native American Media
Trip Dates: May 12-22, 2003
Monday, May 12
Depart – 5:45 AM (5 hour layover in St. Louis)
Arrive Albuquerque, New Mexico – 1:44 pm
Visit to NATIVE AMERICA CALLING (University of New Mexico)
Visit Pueblo Indian Cultural Museum.
Night #1 Gallup, New Mexico
Tuesday, May 13
KSUI-FM, Zuni, NM
The Navajo Times, Window Rock, AZ
KTNN-AM/ KWRW-FM - Navajo Radio, Window Rock, AZ
Night #2. Michaels, AZ (Navajo Reservation)
Wednesday, May 14
Canyon De Chelly National Monument, Chinle, AZ
Justin's Horse Rental – Chinle, AZ 4-hour horseback tour to Whitehouse Ruins
Night #3 Chinle, AZ (Navajo Reservation)
Thursday, May 15
KUYI-FM – Hopi Reservation, Keams Canyon (Hotevilla) , AZ
Night #4 Grand Canyon National Park, Tusayan, AZ
Friday, May 16
Grand Canyon National Park
Night #5 Grand Canyon National Park, Tusayan, AZ
Saturday, May 17
Leave GCNP – Drive to Monument Valley Tribal Park , AZ
Night #6 Kayenta, AZ (Navajo Reservation)
Sunday, May 18

Four Corners Monument
Mesa Verde National Park , Cortez, CO
Night #7 Durango, CO
Monday, May 19
Mountain Waters Rafting, INC. – Full day rafting trip
Night #8 Durango, CO
Tuesday, May 20
Southern Ute Drum
KSUT-FM/KUTE, Southern Ute Tribal Radio, Ignacio, CO
Night #9 Durango, CO
Wednesday, May 21
Durango-Silverton Railroad
Night #10 Durango, CO
Thursday, May 22
Leave Durango 5:00 AM -- Drive to Albuquerque
Return Flight (Connecting in Dallas & St. Louis) departs 11:09 am (MT), arrive: 7:22 pm CT

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PEGGING THE PODCAST POTENTIAL IN THE CLASSROOM AND THE NEWSROOM: LESSONS LEARNED FROM A 2006 EXPERIMENT

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Most observers will agree the year 2005 was the year the iPod took center-stage as an industry-changing technology. It is estimated that 14 million of Apple Computer's digital media players were sold in the last quarter of 2005 alone. News reports indicated it was the top item on teens' most recent Christmas lists (Smith, 2005). The fifth generation iPod, complete with a larger screen could play not only audio, but also video.

In late 2005 and early 2006, local and national newspaper reports featured college professors who took advantage of the iPod craze as a way to bring technology into the classroom (Bach, 2006; Fuson, 2006; Kessler, 2005; Petrillo, 2005). Barely two years old, podcasting or the act of providing digitally stored audio programs online for download to Apple iPods or other digital media players, has not yet been explored in the scholarly literature. Yet, at least one higher education publication this year ran a cover story on the "Power of Podcasting" in its special edition on higher education information technology (Lum 2006). Ironically, the lone communication professor featured in the higher education article, was taking a cautious approach to podcasting by only introducing students to the "how-to's" of podcasting while sticking with the core courses needed to help students become confident in their communication abilities (Lum, 2005, p. 35).

While instructors decide what role podcasting should have in pedagogy, those in the broadcasting industry are anything but settled on what content should be made available in downloadable files from the Web. In what *Broadcasting & Cable* magazine dubbed the "brave new world of TV" (Robins, 2005a), television companies cut deals with Internet companies and on-demand providers in a way that would have previously been viewed as sleeping with the enemy. Alliances between Yahoo! and TiVo and NBC Universal and DirecTV On Demand followed a land-

NOTE: Portions of this manuscript related to industry podcasting were presented at the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication Midwinter Conference in Bowling Green, OH.

mark deal between Disney and Apple where hit ABC shows such as *Desperate Housewives* and *Lost* will be available commercial-free for download on Apple's iTunes Music Store (Lafayette, 2005; Robins, 2005b). But, at the local broadcast level, a growing number of broadcast networks were providing podcasts of weather, local news content, and franchise segments such as health and consumer news.

As broadcast educators and media instructors, we are challenged to have one eye on the industry, while doing our best to engage our students in the classes we're teaching. Nowhere was this challenge more evident in 2006 than with podcasting. In similar fashion to an article in this publication last fall on one Ball State University professor's use of blogging to encourage classroom participation (Dailey, 2005), this article recounts one pedagogy experiment with podcasting. It goes a step further by also including results of an initial industry research effort on podcasting that was undertaken simultaneously. Privileging the journey over the destination, we begin with a step-by-step retrospective on the build-up to the experiment and the dilemmas encountered along the way. Coupled with the pedagogy potential of podcasting are the industry reports researched even as the class evolved throughout the semester. The early results of this research are reported here followed by a look ahead to the research and teaching experimentation still needed.

JOURNEY TO A PODCASTING TEACHING EXPERIMENT

In addition to the industry research, podcasting was explored as a method for providing alternative instruction in an introductory course in journalism. The course was offered in two 50-student sections. One section used podcasting as a substitute for one of the three 50-minute class meetings. The other 50-student section was taught as a traditional lecture course. From development of the course concept to the assessment of the method, the entire process took place in less than a year's time. Here's a recap of that journey:

September 2005

Received grant from the University's Academic Affairs Division via a campuswide "Active and Collaborative" Learning Initiative to cover costs of iPods and laptop computer and software for podcast development

October 2005

Scripted and edited a prototype podcast; attended a podcast training session

November 2005
Began preparing scripts and gathering audio elements of a "season" of podcasts that would include ten episodes (or installments)

December 2005
Entire season was edited by the last week of the fall semester
for posting on WebCT (Web Course Tools) site

January 2006
After winter break, we learned that WebCT could not host
downloadable files; had to develop an alternative way for students to get the podcasts that could not be placed on the Internet because of their inclusion of copyrighted material; "JN 100 On the Go" Podcasts introduced to students

March 2006
As a recipient of the Active & Collaborative Learning grant,
Daniels reports on the implementation of the podcast experiment as part of the University's "Excellence in Teaching Week."

April 2006
Two levels of assessment of this teaching method begin- surveys and focus groups

The iPods were circulated to JN100 students through a service point within the University Libraries, the Sanford Media Resource and Design Center. This center provides all students access to digital media creation computers, software, and equipment. This was a pilot for the center in providing a departmental specific service. As there were complications with hosting the episodes from the university's content management system and there were concerns with the copyrighted materials, the podcast was placed within iTunes on a public station profile that was password protected. When a JN100 student visited the center to checkout an ipod, the staff could verify the student's enrollment and provide the episodes.

There were six iPods for class use. As it turned out, the use of the iPods was quite light. Of 50 students, 8 students used the iPods for a total of 18 circulations. Forty days and 20 hours was the sum of time for all circulations. There were seven students who placed the episodes onto their own iPods and 18 students who decided to burn the episodes to CD. Several students in the latter category confirmed they would be burning additional copies of the episodes for JN 100 classmates. In at least two instances, students with iPods decided to burn CDs instead of placing the content on their iPods.

PODCASTING HISTORY

Most writers credit former MTV VJ and technology guru Adam Curry with coining the term associated with his program, *The Daily Source Code* in 2004 (Deggans, 2005; Stone & Moller, 2005). By late 2005, with television network executives declaring the distribution entertainment programming as a new business component of a network's overall digital strategy (Grossman, 2005), increasing numbers of local TV and radio news outlets and some newspapers were reportedly trying podcasts of their own (Deggans, 2005; Stone & Moller, 2005).

The response to the podcasting wave by local commercial television stations was the focus of this initial investigation into the use of podcasting. Using the case study method, station web strategies were examined specifically for their practice of making content available for downloads to a medium other than the computer. This experiment comes as research on traditional media use of the World Wide Web has been growing in the scholarly literature (Chan-Olmsted & Park, 2000; Ha & Chan-Olmsted, 2004; Murrie, 2000; Papper, 2005; Randle & Mordock, 2002; Ren & Chan-Olmsted, 2004; Schafer, 2000).

LITERATURE REVIEW

More than a half-decade has elapsed since journalism and mass communication scholars began to look at the text, strategies, and impact of an Internet site as a news medium. In perhaps one of the first studies of television station web strategies, Bates & King (1996) found, among 65 individual stations with a presence on the World Wide Web, most of the websites were not very sophisticated, did not make full use of Web and Internet functionality, and were overwhelmingly devoted to the provision of promotional materials. Few stations took advantage of the Web's capacity to distribute audio and video clips (Bates & King, 1996). In fact, one might characterize the sites as what advertising researchers have called Internet Presence Sites or "IPS" that showcases a firm and its offerings (Ghose & Dou, 1998).

Around the same time Bates & King studied television stations sites, another study focusing on radio station Web strategies found most radio broadcasters were underutilizing the medium even though it presented a range of possibilities, (Lind & Medoff, 1999). Specifically, fewer than one-quarter of Web radio sites streamed audio (Lind & Medoff, 1999). Randle & Mordock's (2002) content analysis of 128 Internet pages just three years ago showed television home pages offered significantly more weather presentation tools than news radio and newspaper pages. But before that, a content analysis of 62 local television stations by Kiernan and Levy (1999) showed local television stations did not differentiate themselves from competitors. The researchers hypothesized local television stations would distinguish themselves online from competitors. They credited funding, lack of interest, and lack of competition as the main reasons for the lack of website involvement from the television stations. Their theory was ahead of its time.

Ren and Chan-Olmsted (2004) conducted a content analysis of 176 radio stations, some Internet-only and some traditional, to gauge the features and strategies used on each site. Data showed the Internet-only stations focused their website efforts on interactivity with the visitor/listener while traditional radio stations focused their online strategies on news, content, and program schedules.

In a mail survey of adults across the United States, Ha and Chan-Olmsted (2004) found cable users who use a station's website have a higher loyalty to the station. Their study also showed cable users visiting the station's website also value the network more than non website users while also having a greater interest in the network. However, the study further showed many cable subscribers do not use the Internet. Researchers questioned whether the effort of cable TV networks to have strong websites loaded with features was cost effective.

The survey built on a Chan-Olmsted and Park's (2000) earlier study of television stations' applications of web features in news-related content on their Internet sites. The earlier research used a proportionate stratified sampling method to code 300 broadcast websites. Their study showed broadcast websites focused their online strategy to deliver news, weather, and program information. Very few websites offered interactive features for website visitors. Similar to Kiernan and Levy (1999), Chan-Olmsted and Park's (2000) study was conducted prior to a major boom in feature-oriented content on broadcast websites.

Just six years ago, trade publications were reporting broadcasting websites had not yet proven to be popular or profitable with about 6,700 American television and radio stations with websites up and running (Schafer, 2000). Fast-forward to the spring of 2006 and new research shows not only are websites nearly universal in television with local news an integral part, but the number of those websites reporting profitability is noticeably higher (Papper, 2006). These latest data come from the RTNDA/Ball State University Annual Survey of local television and radio news directors and general managers. Among the 1,120 television managers who participated in the latest survey, the percentage reporting their websites are profitable rose from 15.1 in 2004 to 24 percent in 2005. For the fifth year in a row, local weather and local news were the top two things the survey indicated viewers want from their website (Papper, 2006).

In late 2005, *Broadcasting & Cable* magazine reported the market for online news was exploding with 29 percent of Americans going online regularly for news (Romano, 2005). The result was fewer people turning to TV for local and national news. Much of this increased appetite is attributed to the growing number of Americans who have high-speed Internet access. In particular, two dozen stations were reported to be making newscasts available for playback on cable while others were experimenting with podcasts (Romano, 2005).

In one of the earliest research papers written on podcasting, Carter and Lunt (2005) found podcasters were playing it safe with mostly talk-oriented programs rather than music oriented programs. They suggested podcasting's unique characteristics—high quality compressed digital audio, interactivity, time shifting, asynchronous delivery, and ease of reproduction and distribution may justify copyright laws different from streaming (Carter & Lunt, 2005). The difference between podcasting and streaming is one that is particularly relevant for local news websites, many of which allow website visitors to watch but not download excerpts from their over-the-air products online. More than likely this is why Carter and Lunt (2005) pioneered scholarly research on podcasting with a focus on copyright laws.

The academic research on broadcasters' strategies on the Internet along with the revolutions in the local television and radio stations' reliance on the Web make the podcasting phenomenon in local television news of particular interest.

INDUSTRY RESEARCH ON PODCASTING

In an initial review of television industry experiments with podcasting, this industry component of the experiment sought to answer the following research questions:

R1: What is the nature of the podcasts provided by the earlier local television adopters of the podcasting strategy?

R2: Besides text, what are web other audio/video strategies are the earlier television adopters of the podcasting strategy utilizing for local news?

Both of these questions specifically address television stations' web strategy with an interest in understanding what one might see as podcasting and other new technologies are adopted by other stations.

METHODOLOGY

The 20 cases in this study were identified based on reporting in trade magazines such as *RTNDA Communicator*, *Broadcasting & Cable* and *Newspapers & Technology* or an analysis of the competing stations in a market. In other words, if a station was reported to be podcasting, all other television stations that produced newscasts were also analyzed. In some cases, the analysis was done based on station group reports while others were identified by individual station. A listing of the stations in a particular station was obtained from the station group's company website. Copyright information on the website was used to determine whether the site was developed or managed by an outside company or the product of an in-house online operation.

From the list of podcasting stations, the authors used additional trade press reports and popular press articles to determine the station's market rank in terms of ratings. Also, the list of media markets was matched with the 2005-2006 Nielsen Report of Designated Market Areas to determine market size of the stations.

A screen capture of the podcast or multimedia page with the podcast content was taken for each website. This capture showed the listing of the types of content available for download. Additionally, special note was taken of the branding strategies for the downloadable content such as "Pinpoint Podcasts" or "Positively Personal Podcasts"

FINDINGS

An analysis of these 20 local television news podcasters suggests podcasting is not restricted to major media markets, where staffs are usually larger. They also demonstrate that podcasting is not yet a consistent practice across station groups. Furthermore, the podcasts go beyond re-purposing over-the-air content. Most of the stations featured here have differentiated their web product from other stations by providing multiple elements only available to online users. This was a departure from what's quickly becoming the norm on local TV sites: streaming video of a limited number of stories from a station's newscast.

As Table 1 shows, large markets such as Chicago (DMA #3) to medium markets like Columbia, SC (DMA #83) adopted podcasting as a strategy to gain more viewers to their newscasts and more visitors to their website. The four major networks were represented in the 20 early adopters of podcasting: eight NBC, seven CBS, four ABC, and one FOX station. Twelve stations used an outside company to maintain and update their website while seven used the Internet Broadcasting Systems and one station used WorldNow. Six Gannett stations offered podcasts, while four Hearst-Argyle, three NBC/General Electric, two ABC/Disney, two Capitol Broadcasting, one Raycom, one Cox, and one Scripps Howard station distributed media through podcasts.

Among the 20 early adopters, an interesting market to look at to see competition taking place is market #29, Raleigh/Durham. All four major networks were among the first TV stations nationwide to introduce podcasting to their websites. The top two stations in the market, ABC and CBS affiliates, offered the most diverse content while the 3rd and 4th ranked stations, NBC and FOX affiliates, only offered news in their downloads. Each of the early adopters offered a wide range of content in their podcasts.

The first research question focused on the types of podcasts that are available. More than half of the early adopters looked to use their podcasts as an avenue to deliver news. Other stations provided feature story content including entertainment, arts, technology, healthy living, and sports beats. CBS affiliate in Seattle, KIRO, made weather the focus of its podcasts. In fact, a daily forecast from its chief meteorologist was the only content available in KIROs podcasts.

Newscast time constraints do not allow producers to deliver all the newsworthy content on a daily basis. Also, the time newscasts air prevents some stories from running during the show. It is evident a majority of the early adopters used podcasting as a way to deliver information not included in the regularly scheduled newscast. Some of these features included public affairs shows, longer interviews, weekly press conferences, and more.

Aside from offering news in their podcasts, the early adopters also focused their content on stories that are no longer receiving as much coverage as in earlier decades. Sports coverage during a newscast has gone down during the past decade, yet, about one-fourth of the stations offer sports in their podcasts. On the contrary, many of the early adopters had entertainment and health features in their podcasts, two story genres that have received more coverage over the last decade.

The second research question looked at the other content available on the website with particular attention to the overall audio/video strategies of the 20 podcasting stations. With the exception of WRAZ (which is in a duopoly with tech-leader WRAL), all the stations offer some type of video streaming on their sites in addition to the podcasting. In many cases, stations like their other non-podcasting colleagues in the industry have adopted the "Build Your Own Newscast" technology that allows viewers to select and order stories for playback in whatever order they desire through the video player. Those not using this technology have posted video files that link with text of news stories. A video icon usually appears to let viewers know that a particular story has a video clip. These video clips are then re-purposed content from the station's local newscast. At least a third of the stations also offered downloadable files to be viewed on a personal data assistant (PDA) or a cellular phone.

Based on both the classroom experiment and initial industry research, the following lessons can be taken from this effort:

10 Lessons About Process of Podcasting

1. Most of the industry podcasts are really just experiments too
2. Podcasts have not been mainstreamed into the news-gathering process
3. The number of markets where multiple stations offer podcasts is offering
4. Some stations don't know if anyone's listening to the podcasts making feedback difficult to gather on this technology
5. Newspaper podcasts are a bigger challenge because of the differences between the broadcast and print platforms

6. Most professors are producing "shovelware" of existing lectures rather than podcasts specifically for the audio medium over which they are being delivered

7. Students are still students and still may not grab on to the technology as fast as one might think.

8. Interests in podcasts and the "cool" factor may mask the actual learning potential of podcasts

9. It is necessary to experiment with different flavors of podcasts before knowing if they will work as instructor tools.

10. Podcasting instructors need extra time to execute the necessary planning steps that lead to an effective course podcast.

DISCUSSION

Clearly the latest development in the podcasting revolution is the ability for users to view,, as well as listen, to downloadable files. New products such as video iPods and PSPs offer users the capability of having what is essentially a portable television. In this study, a small minority of stations offered video podcasts. Some provided announcements of their updated technologies while others simply listed video and/or audio on their sites. It stands to reason that the production of video podcasts for a television station would be easier than clipping audio content from video previously shown on-air. However, the diffusion of the software innovations needed to support downloadable video has only reached a very small number of stations.

It is interesting to note that the nation's 29th largest market, Raleigh-Durham, appears to be the leader in adoption of local television podcasting. Four of the market's six stations that do local news offering downloadable audio files, the Research Triangle of Raleigh, Durham and Chapel Hill has multiple opportunities for residents to get news on the go. At least on the surface, it looks as if the findings in the Raleigh-Durham market support Kiernan and Levy's (1999) hypothesis that local stations differentiate themselves from their competitors in the online environment. As the market leader, WRAL distinguishes itself by offering the greatest variety of downloadable content while number-two station WTVD offers downloadable weather updates several times a day. Still, WNCN, despite it's ranking behind WRAL and WTVD in ratings, provides a separate MP3 with sports headlines, something the other stations do not provide.

In the stations analyzed in this study, most of the stations fell into one of four station groups, that arguably are the leaders among the largest broadcast companies in web innovation. Gannett Broadcasting has gone further with podcasting than any other station group. It is conceivable the increased revenue that comes from being the top-rated station as was the case with four of Gannett's podcasting stations, allows for the development of this additional offering. At the same time, Hearst-Argyle, through its web developer Internet Broadcasting Systems (IBS), also has been one of the leading station groups with this technology. The difference between Gannett and Hearst-Argyle is the outsourcing that Hearst-Argyle utilizes to offer these technologies. Finally, it is important to note that among the network owned-and-operated, except for their stations in Raleigh-Durham market, all the podcasting stations were in top ten markets. This would suggest the role revenue plays in supporting new technologies, like podcasts, would be higher in the nation's biggest markets.

Part of this study involved assessing not only stations that were podcasting, but also stations that were not podcasting. In markets where a podcasting station was identified, the competing stations' websites were also analyzed. In 12 of the 20 stations, only one station in the market was among the early adopters of podcasting. This could suggest that the podcasting strategy is meant to differentiate one broadcast news organization from another. On the other hand, in a business that is characterized by a high degree of imitation, one can conclude the non-podcasting stations either did not have the resources to produce the podcasts or differed in philosophy about the cost effectiveness of the technology.

With regards to the teaching experiment, besides the lessons learned, there are the alternative ways to develop such a teaching and learning method. Since the semester ended, the authors have explored ways to teach podcasting so that the production of the podcasts are a part the class. Like the variety of industry podcasts available, there is an equally varied number of models for using podcasting or downloadable files in teaching.

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[ARTICLE]

BLOGGING MADE DIFFICULT

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It seemed like such a wonderful and easy thing to add to my class. I walked out of the 2005 AEJMC panel presentation pumped about adding a class blog to my political communication course. This, I thought to myself, is what we all need to encourage class discussion and the sharing of ideas.

After all, that's what we're after, isn't it? In addition to learning the requisite terms and concepts, those of us who teach media classes want our students to share their own synthesis of ideas with their fellow class members. The idea is that we can learn from one another, and that we learn more effectively when we feel free to express and debate our thoughts and ideas with others. Those who have incorporated web blogs into existing face-to-face courses as part of a blended approach to learning have issued glowing reports such as "students using blogs seem to be more attuned to their assignment and to their group members" (Flatley, 2005). Others brag that adding a blog increased the degree of camaraderie in a class. "They really support each other even though their opinions are widely diverse. There's a group closeness and compassion I've never seen in all my years of teaching" (Beeson, 2005).

This, I thought, is what I want. So, in fall 2005 I set up a new blog on blogger.com to be used by my students. Setting up the blog was amazingly simple, prompting visions of students staying up half the night discussing the role of broadcast media in presidential election coverage and becoming active, vibrant participants in our political system.

I quickly found it can be easier to set up a blog than it is to get some students to participate. A few of my students took to it immediately. These, I discovered, were the ones who came into the class with prior knowledge of blogging. They were off and running, posting links and photos for classmates and blog visitors.

The other members of the class were akin to someone who has never seen the ocean and is hesitant to step into such a swirling and frightening environment. Most were eventually coaxed into getting their ankles wet, but very little actual dialogue emerged on the blog. For the most part, one person would post a comment, and two or three would agree, or perhaps cautiously wonder if there might be another way of viewing the issue. Most of them saw the blog as a chore, rather than an opportunity. In fact, one student wrote in a class evaluation that she was too busy to bother with a class blog, and it should be dropped from the class.

During the Christmas holidays, I pondered my spectacular lack of success during the previous semester. What, I wondered, did I do wrong? I decided I had given them too little structure. After all, when someone is learning a new skill, he or she often needs to take things a little more slowly and build on previous successes. After doing some research to see how other professors were incorporating blogs into their classes, I opted to add a bit more structure to the blog requirements in the spring. In addition to giving them more specific guidelines about what topics they could address in their blog comments, I also asked them to blog on the days that class met. This way, they could not only remember to do it, but it seemed more like a class assignment. Because the blog counted toward their final grades, having blog entries due on certain days seemed to fit better with their expectation of class assignments. They were also encouraged to blog on other days when they had a comment on something from class or an example from the media. However, requiring blog entries on certain days instituted a bit of structure into the semester-long assignment.

Although the structure was only marginally changed, there was a definite increase in participation in spring semester. While it still did not approach what I had dreamed of in terms of honest debate and self expression, all of the students participated and some even (gasp) dared to disagree with a posting from a fellow classmate. It happened only rarely, but it made me smile. I felt some sort of progress was being made.

Has blogging dramatically changed my course? No. I would argue the blog has made it a more well-rounded course, but progress in this area has been slow in coming. I'm jealous when I read other professors are having immediate success, but I realize students at different schools react in different ways to new academic demands. I also realize that the responsibility of the blog's success or failure rests on me. It will only improve and become a more effective tool for the class if I invest time and energy into making it work for the course. That requires me to take the time to evaluate its success or failure after each semester and look for ways to improve participation. After using the blog for an entire academic year, I have some observations about incorporating this tool into an existing face-to-face course.

First of all, I was forced to acknowledge (not for the first time) each class has a personality all its own. Some classes are quiet, some are talkative, some are dominated by two or three bold individuals, and some classes are combative. In this particular course, the class personality has been reflected in the level and type of participation in the class blog. For example, the fall class was quiet, and, despite my best attempts to provoke them into some sort of expressed opinions, they were docile and well behaved, that translated into a very quiet and well-behaved blogging experience. While two of them were less inclined to hold back their opinions on the blog, the rest were content to post enough comments to simply fulfill the course requirement.

The spring class was much rowdier. The members of this class, that was dominated by seniors and graduate students, were still not overly expressive of their opinions, but they made good observations and were not shy about asking questions. This attitude was also reflected in the blog postings made by class members. As a group, they posted on a wider variety of topics, and there were more responses to postings than in the previous class. The class traded opinions on subjects ranging from Sunday alcohol sales (a local proposal) to who might run for president in 2008. While it did not approach the level of intensity and interest I had hoped, it was a definite improvement.

Another lesson learned is that students come into our media classes at varying levels of technical skill. Many of my students had never heard of blogs, despite the fact they are communication majors, with the majority being broadcast and journalism students. However, if I had required that they "Facebook" about the class, I have no doubt they would have jumped up and down with glee. While my undergraduates could teach a doctoral level class in how to Facebook (notice is it now a verb), they have almost no experience with blogs, news groups, vlogs, or other new forms of participatory journalism. While part of the blame lies at the door of those who are preparing them for jobs as television reporters and newspaper and magazine writers, we can also surmise some students are not making much personal effort to learn about advances in the field.

And this, I believe, is why it is a good thing to introduce new technology into the classroom. Even though they may not have participated as much or as fervently as I had hoped, at least my students will graduate with some experience in blogging. They will be a little bit better prepared for their jobs as news media professionals, and, if called upon to blog for a media outlet, they can draw on the experience they gained in our class.

I, too, have learned from this experience, and the challenges of tailoring the blog to the course, and a particular group of students, has required me to re-evaluate my expectations for students and for myself. Instead of coasting on course preps from two years ago, I am challenged to look for ways to increase the voices and dialogue on the class blog through class instruction and activities.

I can't say it seems to have increased the closeness and compassion in my classes, but I have seen some students become more comfortable with expressing an opinion. A few have really enjoyed the experience, and a couple have said that they were happy to be exposed to blogging and felt more comfortable with it at the end of the semester. While that's not an overwhelming success, it is progress.

I haven't yet reached blogging nirvana, but I'm working on it.

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[ARTICLE]

CHALLENGING THE WAY WE LISTEN: PUBLIC RADIO'S FIRST YEAR OF PODCASTING

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Paper presented to the Broadcast & Internet Radio, Communication Technology, and Management and Sales divisions of the Broadcast Education Association Convention. April 29, 2005. Las Vegas, Nevada.

One of the biggest buzzwords of 2005, podcasting was virtually unheard of a year earlier. As late as October 2004 even the popular search engine Google asked podcast searchers "did you mean: broadcast?" (Carpenter, 2004, p. H6). In the year that followed, the podcasting experiment became a virtual revolution. In February 2006, a Google search for podcast yielded 96.6 million results. By April 2006, the number was upwards of 306 million.

Dubbed "TiVo for your radio," listeners can download podcasts onto their computer or MP3 player and listen to them at their leisure. While people have always been able to pop in a CD whenever they wished, podcasting makes entire programs available with the click of a mouse. In January 2005 National Public Radio's (NPR) syndicated weekly program On the Media turned its microphone on itself when it profiled its own venture into podcasting. A little more than a year later, NPR lists 300+ podcasts available through its network and affiliate stations. Such tremendous growth over such a limited time testifies to podcasting's popularity and warrants a critical inspection of this new technology. This paper will serve as a case study of NPRs use of podcasting and analyze the changes, challenges, and opportunities unique to non-commercial outlets. It will also consider the implications of podcasting on public radio and look to the future of podcasting pubcasters.

PODCASTING 101

Before browsing NPRs podcast directory, it is important to understand what podcasting is and its impact on broadcasting as a whole. Invented in August 2004, podcasting is the brain child of Adam Curry. "As a DJ constantly on the lookout for new music," Biever (2005) explains, "Curry found it tiresome and time-consuming to surf the net for new material and then manually transfer tracks from his PC to his iPod" (p. 24). The former MTV-host turned entrepreneur theorized there must be an easier way, so he went about creating one.

Curry's better mousetrap was the podcast, that "as anyone under 25 can tell you, is an audio recording posted online, much like a short radio show" (Pogue, 2005, p. C1). But it's actually much more than that. The beauty of podcasting is that your computer can automatically download selected audio files, which is why the technology is often compared to TiVo's ability to locate, record, and digitally store selected television programs. To make this happen, Curry paired with early blogger David Winer.

Back in 1997, Winer created Really Simple Syndication (RSS), an online subscription technology that allowed Web publishers to deliver content to readers automatically. Biever (2005) puts the definition into context, explaining RSS "enables a website … to scan itself continuously for new postings and send subscribers each new headline as a pop-up. It saves subscribers from having to visit hundreds of websites just to keep up with the news" (p. 24). To move beyond simple text headlines, Winer created a new RSS program to handle much larger audio files. Curry then wrote a "podcatcher" program to complement the new RSS and podcasting was born.

Podcast producers upload audio files, usually MP3s, to the Internet along with a text file about the show and links to its audio files. To listen to a podcast, one only needs a computer with an Internet connection and a podcasting software program—the podcatcher. Listeners then load the http address of the text file into a podcatcher, like Curry's iPodder (Battino, 2005, p. 42). If listeners like what they hear, they can choose to subscribe to the podcast. While audio files have always been available online, the beauty of podcasting lies with its subscription model. Podcaster Eric Rice of San Francisco puts it this way: "Say you are interested in new material from 100 websites. If you didn't have podcasting, how in the hell would you process so much info?" (Biever, 2005, p. 24).

Abstract
In January 2005, On the Media from WNYC became the first National Public Radio program to be podcasted. Since then a number of public radio programs and stations have followed suit. This paper will serve as a case study of NPRs venture into podcasting, analyzing the changes, challenges, and opportunities unique to noncommercial outlets. It will also consider the implications of podcasting on public radio as a whole and look to the future of podcasting pubcasters.

PUBLIC RADIO IN THE PICTURE

When On the Media debuted its podcast January 7, 2005, it blazed a trail as the first NPR program to make itself available via podcast. Now the program is just one of hundreds of public radio podcasts. Some podcasts, like On the Media, make the full program available while others, like American Public Media's Weekend America podcast, offer selected stories or a shortened version of the show. NPR has a number of "news package" podcasts, culled from excerpts from their programs, including NPR: Books, NPR: Health and Science, NPR: Religion and even NPR: Most E-Mailed Stories. Public radio podcasts are available on a myriad of topics, including arts and culture, business, environment, food, legal affairs, opinion, politics and sports (National Public Radio, 2006a).

Along with NPR, three public radio affiliate stations are acting as podcast pioneers: WGBH in Boston, KCRW in Santa Monica, and KEXP in Seattle. WGBH actually launched the first public radio podcast, months before On the Media. The station's Morning Stories, a weekly segment that airs as part of its Morning Edition broadcast, launched its first podcast in October 2004. As producer Tony Kahn explains, "When I first heard about podcasting, the term was about three days old." Kahn contacted Adam Curry, who told Kahn what he would need to podcast the show, and "a couple of days later, we were doing the first public radio podcast" (Lehrman, 2005, p. 28).

Across the country, KCRW in Santa Monica is blazing its own trail for public radio podcasting. As of February 2006, the station offered 24 podcasts of programs it already produces, such as The Treatment, Minding the Media, and Which Way, L.A.? KRCW also has podcasts for its nationally syndicated programs To the Point, Le Show and Left, Right, and Center. A press release announcing the station's March 1, 2005 debut of its podcasting line-up boasted "no other broadcaster has attempted to launch the number and caliber of programs on this scale all at once" and the contention still stands (KCRW, 2005).

KCRW offers some podcasts of live performances and independent bands from its Morning Becomes Eclectic show, but the station primarily podcasts talk-based programs. "I really want to podcast (major label) music," explains general manager Ruth Seymour. "It's where the future is … (but) I don't want a cease-and-desist order" (Kessler, 2005, p. 3B). More than a thousand miles up the west coast, KEXP in Seattle has found a way to work around the delicate issue of cyber-copyrights for podcasted music. In July 2005 KEXP invited 14 unsigned or small-label bands from the Seattle area to contribute music to its inaugural music podcast, becoming the first station to offer a podcast of full-length songs. The station decided "we couldn't sit around and wait and wait for a major (label) to sign off on this," said KEXP morning deejay John Richards. "I said, 'Let's just get the rights'" (Kessler, 2005, p. 3B; Bass, 2005, p. C2).

PODCASTING = POTENTIAL

In its first 12 months of existence, podcasting went from an underground experiment to mass media's next big thing. Indeed, the possibilities for podcasting appear virtually endless. With that in mind, there are a number of changes, challenges, and opportunities podcasting can offer public radio.

RADIO YOUR WAY: CHANGING LISTENING HABITS

Podcasting by its very nature transcends the traditional radio/listener dynamic. Rather than listening to content when it airs, individuals can access audio at any time. This may not mean much to an average Top 40 commercial radio listener because he or she can hear the same songs dozens of times throughout the day. Public radio, however, is more like television in that a station offers a mixture of programs rather than a steady stream of music. While the video cassette recorder has allowed for time-shifting of television shows for decades, there has never been an easy way to record a favorite radio program to play back later. Podcasting changes that by having a program automatically downloaded to a computer or iPod. Listeners may even be able to access a show before it airs on their local public radio station.

Podcasting has the potential to change the way listeners hear public radio. John

Diliberto hosts the public radio program Echoes and produces its podcast. "It's going to get to a point where people don't want to wait until 10 o'clock at night to hear Echoes," Diliberto says. "They'll want to hear it whenever they want. The best way to do that would be a podcast. And radio is probably going to be heading that way in many regards" (Battino, 2005, p. 56). Echoes engineer Jeff Townes expresses similar sentiment: "I don't even bother to find Le Show on the radio anymore. I download the podcast and listen to that" (Battino, 2005, p. 56).

COPYRIGHTS AND COST: PODCASTING'S GREATEST CHALLENGES

From tech tips to phone pranks to video game reviews, the top podcasts have one thing in common: they're categorically news and information or entertainment—but not music. The reason: no one's really sure how U.S. copyright law translates in this new cyber-kingdom. Unlike a station's Internet stream of its live broadcast, podcasts are downloaded and saved onto a subscriber's computer. As Kessler (2005) asserts, "record labels worry that listeners will pirate the songs contained in downloaded radio shows" and radio stations and record labels will engage in "yet another Napster-like standoff over piracy and music rights" (p. 3B).

"The big hurdle is ownership rights," agrees Bass (2005, p. C2). But that does not mean all music is off limits. In-studio performances get around the copyright issue, because they are not subject to the same terms as recorded music. KUT from Austin, Texas offers a weekly podcast-only program, Radio without Borders, culled from recent live studio recordings and the station archives. WNKU in Highland Heights, Kentucky offers a podcast of in-studio concerts while NPR podcasts World Café Words and Music, that features excerpted music and conversation from its syndicated World Café program.

Beyond its Live Performances podcast and Sonarchy Radio, that features live performances from northwest bands, Seattle's KEXP offers two podcasts of full-song recorded music: Song of the Day and the biweekly Music That Matters. Subscribers can hear new music from Blue Scholars, Stars of Track and Field, and Faster Disaster. The groups are no U2, but that's really the point. Record labels are rightfully nervous to give away downloadable versions of their songs. Unsigned artists and those at small independent record labels, however, are much more receptive to podcasting, "realizing the potential for broader exposure with the do-it-yourself approach to distributing music" (Amason, 2006, np). When KEXP approached the California band Foreign Born for permission to podcast their in-studio performance, the group signed on without hesitation. Seattle music historian Charles R. Cross theorizes, "part of it is that KEXP brings an authenticity to their mission that Clear Channel doesn't, so the bands don't question their motives" (Bass, 2005, p. C2).

Cost is the second major hurdle public radio podcasters face. Immediate costs include production and bandwidth expenses. Most production costs are moderate, especially if a podcast is just repurposing content already created for broadcast. The website podcastingnews.com lists more than two dozen software programs to help podcast publishers, ranging in price from free to approximately $90. Purchasing Internet bandwidth comes with a larger price tag. "If your podcast becomes popular, you could get hammered for bandwidth fees, so it's prudent to figure out where to host your audio files," advises Battino (2005, p. 50). In August 2005 an NPR spokeswoman would only say the costs associated with podcasting were "significant" (Janssen, 2005, np). Despite that, Maria Thomas, vice president and general manager for NPR Digital Media, indicated NPR.org had already been streaming audio for some time before its foray into podcasting, so it was able to negotiate good bandwidth deals with vendors (Glaser, 2005, np).

Whatever the actual bill is for podcasting does not seem to matter in the short run, as public radio stations and NPR have turned to sponsors to cover their costs. Ipswitch, a developer of network management, messaging and file transfer software, began sponsoring WGBHs Morning Stories podcast in January 2005 (Ipswitch sponsoring, 2005, np). KCRW tapped southern California Lexus dealers for a six-month partnership to underwrite their entire podcasting schedule. The six-figure deal includes Lexus logos and links on the KCRW website podcast player, mentions on the air during daily regular programming and mentions at the beginning of all KCRW podcasts (Lexus to launch, 2005, np). The automotive manufacturer Acura began underwriting NPR podcasts when they debuted in August 2005, with sponsorships from HBO, Intel, and Vanguard added a few months later (Janssen, 2006, np). As podcast sponsorships begin to prove lucrative, NPR and its member stations may even be able to fully offset copyright costs for their music offerings.

Outreach and localism: Podcasting brings opportunities for audience expansion

"If we're going to make it on the portable platform, we have to act differently," cautions NPRs Maria Thomas. "With podcasting, we're acting like producers and seeking new voices but at the same time we're working cooperatively with stations to find a way to help all public radio become more meaningful" (Glaser, 2005, np). By February 2006, when NPR entered the third stage of its podcasting project, podcasts by the network and its affiliates had been downloaded more than 13 million times (National Public Radio, 2006b). NPR is using those millions of downloads to attract new listeners to its programming while enhancing the service it provides to its existing audience. "I think podcasting, like the streaming, is a way to expand the audience and serve the existing audience," Thomas says (Tempero, 2006, np). On-air broadcasts are by their very nature fleeting, but podcasting provides the opportunity to listen to a program on demand. Podcasting also creates endless opportunities to develop new and expanded content, Thomas explains (Tempero, 2006, np).

Not all local public radio stations are as excited about podcasting as their mother network. However, as KRCW general manager Ruth Seymour asserts, "you can go around and say the sky is falling, or you can see it as an opportunity" (Friess, 2006, np). Stations like KCRW and KEXP are renowned for their original content and have been investing heavily in their Internet stream for years. Many other stations will have to beef up their local programming options to remain competitive. In April 2006, 79 public radio stations offered at least one podcast— from WILLs AM 580's Closing Market Report, a daily review of farm and agriculture markets in the Midwest, to Alabama Life from Alabama Public Radio, showcasing the people, stories, and culture of the state (National Public Radio, 2006a). As Phil Redo, vice president of station operations and strategy for WNYC puts it: "Podcasting is a remarkable boon for local radio broadcasts. This easy-to-access, easy-to-use technology allows local programming to transcend the limitations of both traditional radio and online streaming by allowing users to plug in to great programming from far-flung places, anytime, anywhere" (WNYC, 2005, np).

WNYC President Laura Walker echoed Redo's sentiments in extolling the virtues of podcasting its locally produced cultural program The Leonard Lopate Show. "Leonard has been New York City's own secret treasure for two decades—now we have a chance to share him far and wide" (WNYC, 2005, np).

CONCLUSIONS

"If there's a convincing argument for the longevity of podcasting, it's NPR," Palser (2006) argues. "The marriage between public radio and podcasting couldn't have been scripted more perfectly: much of NPRs content is essentially ready-made for podcasting, and listeners were literally begging for podcast versions of shows months before they were available" (p. 65). The concern that web-savvy listeners will begin bypassing local stations to find their favorite syndicated shows online is a real one, but there is no reason NPRs affiliates cannot begin podcasting their own material. Local content is what separates an affiliate station from the network on the radio dial and it will do the same on an iPod.

Local stations need to realize the podcasting potential they already have in their schedules. Virtually any talk program can be podcasted. Daily and weekly interview shows make perfect podcast material. Even short segments of programs will work, like WGBHs Morning Stories. WUSF and KNPR are just two of the stations offering news podcasts. Others have adapted NPRs news package model, like WDET's Arts and Auto podcasts. Stations can even offer archives of old programs, like KSMUs White River Journal, a series of 60 stories from all over the Ozarks. Finally, those stations that do host in-studio or other live performances can follow KEXPs lead and secure rights to podcast them.

Podcasting offers a number of changes, challenges, and opportunities for NPR and its affiliate stations. As the number of podcasts increase, the way people listen to their favorite public radio programs may be forever altered. "It is the mission of public radio to make programming as widely available as possible," says KNPR program director Flo Rogers (Friess, 2006, np). The beauty of podcasting is that it does just that.

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NAB/BEA ANNOUNCE FUTURE CONFERENCE DATES

Year	NAB Show	BEA Show
2007	April 16-19	April 18-21
2008	April 14-17	April 16-29
2009	April 20-23	April 22-25
2010	April 12-15	April 14-17
2011	April 11-14	April 13-16
2012	April 16-19	April 18- 21
2013	April 8-11	April 10-13
2014	April 7-10	April 9-12
2015	April 13-16	April 15-18
2016	April 18-21	April 20-23
2017	April 24-27	April 26-29
2018	April 9-12	April 11-14
2019	April 15-18	April 17-20
2020	April 20-23	April 22-25

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Visit http://www.beaweb.org/divisions.html to see information on each division.

Interest division bylaws (requires PDF reader):

- Courses, Curricula and Administration
- Gender Issues
- History
- International
- Law and Policy
- Management and Sales
- Multicultural
- News
- Production, Aesthetics & Criticism
- Radio & Audio Media
- Research
- Student Media Advisors
- Two Year/Small College
- Writing

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Nanyang Technological University
New England School of Communication
Ngee Ann Polytechnic
Normandale Community College
North Central College
Northern Arizona University
Northern Illinois University
Northern Kentucky University
Northwestern College
Northwestern University
Northwestern University
Ohio Northern University
Ohio University
Oklahoma Baptist University
Oklahoma City University
Oklahoma State University
Onondaga Community College

Oral Roberts University
Otterbein College
Pacific Lutheran University
Palomar College
Parkland College
Pennsylvania State University
Piedmont College
Pittsburg State University
Plattsburgh State University of NY
Purdue University Calumet
Quinnipiac University
Regent University
Richland College
Robert Morris University
Rochester Institute of Technology School of Film & Animation
Rockport College
Rogers State University
Roosevelt University
Rowan University
Rutgers-The State University
Saint Xavier University
Salisbury University
Sam Houston State University
San Antonio College
San Diego State University School of Theatre, Television & Film
San Francisco State University
San Jose State University
Santa Ana/Santiago Canyon College
Santa Monica Community College
Savannah State University
Scottsdale Community College
Shippensburg State University
Slippery Rock University
South Suburban College
Southeast Missouri State University
Southern Illinois University at Carbondale
Southern Illinois University Edwardsville
Southern Utah University
St. Bonaventure University
St. Cloud State University
St. Mary's University
Staffordshire University
Stephen F. Austin State University
Stephens College
SUNY - Brockport
SUNY - Oswego
Suny Alfred WETD
Susquehanna University
Syracuse University
Temple Univ/Dept of Broadcasting, Telecom. & Mass Media
Texas Christian University
Texas State University - San Marcos
Texas Tech University
The University of Akron
Thiel College
Towson University
Towson University
Trinity University
Truman State University
Univeristy of Wisconsin at River Falls
University of Alabama
University of Arkansas
University of California - Berkeley
University of Central Florida
University of Central Oklahoma
University of Cincinnati
University of Dayton
University of Delaware
University of Denver
University of Georgia
University of Hawaii
University of Hawaii, Manoa
University of Houston
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
University of Illinois, Springfield
University of Indianapolis
University of Iowa
University of Kansas
University of Kentucky
University of La Verne
University of Louisiana, Lafayette
University of Maryland, College Park
University of Massachusetts
University of Memphis
University of Miami
University of Minnesota
University of Missouri
University of Missouri, St. Louis

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University of Nebraska at Omaha
University of Nebraska atLincoln
University of Nevada at Las Vegas
University of Nevada at Reno
University of North Carolina - Chapel Hill
University of North Carolina - Greensboro
University of North Carolina Pembroke
University of North Dakota
University of North Texas
University of Northern Iowa
University of Oklahoma
University of Oregon
University of San Francisco
University of South Carolina
University of South Dakota
University of Southern California
University of Southern Indiana
University of Southern Mississippi
University of St. Thomas
University of Tennessee - Martin
University of Tennessee at Chatanooga
University of Tennessee at Knoxville
University of Texas at Arlington
University of Texas at El Paso
University of the Incarnate Word
University of the Ozarks
University of Utah
University of Western Ontario Faculty of Info & Media Studies
University of Wisconsin - Madison
University of Wisconsin - Oshkosh
University of Wisconsin at Eau Claire
University of Wisconsin at La Crosse
University of Wisconsin at Platteville
University of Wisconsin at Stevens Point
University of Wisconsin, Green Bay
University of Wyoming
University Politecnico Grancolombiano
Utah State University
Valdosta State University
Vincennes University
Virginia Polytechnical Institute & State University
Wake Forest University
Washburn University
Washington State Community College
Washington State University
Wayne State University
Western Illinois University
Western Kentucky University
Westminster College
Wilkes University
William Jewell College
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