SCHOOL OF RELIGION, PHILOSOPHY AND CLASSICS

The Effects of Citizen Journalism on the Ethics of Journalism: The Case of the Marikana Massacre and the #FeesMustFall Movement

Nothando Happy-Girl Shandu

214516881

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Philosophy, in the School of Religion, Philosophy and Classics.

College of Humanities,

University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg Campus

Supervisor: Dr. Beatrice Okyere-Manu

Acknowledgements

Declaration - Plagiarism

I declare that 'The effects of citizen journalism on the ethics of journalism: The Case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement' is my own original work, unless specifically indicated, and that all sources used have been properly referenced and acknowledged. No part of this work has been used in any publication.

…………………………………………

Nothando Happy-Girl Shandu

Pietermaritzburg

May 2019

…………………………………………

Dr. Beatrice Okyere-Manu

Supervisor

Abstract

Citizen journalism has for many years, been conceived as a new phenomenon of the twenty-first century, whereas, it has been around long before this period. Due to the creation of the internet and the readiness and accessibility of technology, the general public has drastically been exposed to various ways of communicating and engaging with news. This often includes the capability of reporting breaking news at a swifter speed than the average professional journalist. The profession of journalism has been significantly affected by the overwhelming phenomena of citizen journalism because professional journalists have to write, edit and crosscheck news at a far more rapid pace. Thus, placing pressure on the profession of journalism and its ethics.

Citizen journalism is undeniably a heavily appreciated tool of the present-day as it enables a free flow of news content. This makes it possible to cover the majority of events happening around the world that professional journalists might miss out on. This might be a problem because from an ethical point of view, citizen journalism also presents news content that is unregulated and haphazard in quality and coverage. While this challenge is immense, research on its implications to the profession of journalism and its ethics is minimal. The existing literature focuses on the new and advanced technological way of newsgathering, its production and dissemination with a lack of emphasis on journalism ethics.

The current study seeks to examine how citizen journalism affects the ethics of journalism. This is done with the use of the ethical theory of consequentialism. The theory is used to explore and evaluate the consequences of the activities taking place in the use of social media platforms as a source of information and news coverage. The study uses the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement as classic examples of how citizen journalism affects the ethics of the profession of journalism.

Key words: Professional journalism, Citizen journalism, Internet, Social media, and Media ethics.

Abbreviations and Acronyms

ANC   African National Congress

CBC   Canadian Broadcasting Corporation

CJA   Citizen Journalism in Africa

Cosatu   Congress of South African Trade Unions

Hivo   Humanist Institute of Corporation

IOL   International Online

Lonmin   London Mining

MISA   Media Institute of Southern Africa

NUM   National Union of Mineworkers

POP   Public Order Police

PCSA   Press Council of South Africa

PDMSA   Print and Digital Media South Africa

PFC   Press Freedom Commission

RDOs   Rock Drill Operators

SABC   South African Broadcasting Corporation

SAHRC   South African Human Rights Commission

SANGOneT   South African NGO Network

SAPS   South African Police Services

SPJ   Society of Professional Journalists

UJ   University of Johannesburg

UNESCO   United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

WJEC   World Journalism Education Congress

WWW   World Wide Web

Table of Contents

Chapter One

General Introduction

1.1   Background of the study

This study will use the term professional journalism to refer to journalists who have been employed by agencies be it newspaper, magazine, radio or news broadcast. These journalists could either carry out their work offline or online. The profession of journalism is considered as a profession with its own set of rules and ethics. Thus, according to Joaquim Fidalgo (2013), proper news reporting cannot be easily carried out by ordinary people without the relevant qualification. However, nowadays, with the emergence of citizen journalism, any citizen is free to give their own opinion through social media which as a result causes tension with the profession of journalism and also increases the level of fake news (Gumede, 2017).

In the last few years, the internet, and social media in particular, have completely altered the nature of journalism. The profession of journalism is no longer operated under hierarchical organisational settings, where journalists are assigned stories from their superiors and work within constrains and ethical standards (Hamada, 2018). Rather, the four distinct forms of media, namely; print, radio, television, and internet have all emerged onto online platforms. Although these media outlets have distinct features, all of them share common similarities to the profession of journalism. As Stephen Ward puts it: "Professional journalists who once dominated the media are now sharing the media space with citizen journalists" (Ward, 2011: 2). This means that the lines between professional and non-professional journalists have been blurred, giving rise to the redefinition of journalism as a profession which consequentially raises new ethical dilemmas.

Citizen journalism has always been misunderstood as a concept that refers to ordinary citizens that are not otherwise employed as professional journalists (Hughes, 2011). These citizens seem to have taken either a conscious or non-conscious decision to migrate away from mainstream or traditional journalism as a source of news and information. This ongoing process has been made possible through the advancement of digital technologies of the social media or social networks platform. However, citizen journalism can also be used to refer to professional

journalists who have incorporated digital technologies such as social media into their journalistic routines in order to control the flow of news and information. This suggests that these digital technologies have enabled both professional journalists as well as ordinary citizens "to share the same media platforms, yet with different purposes" (Hamada, 2018: 35). A detailed definition of citizen journalism will be presented in chapter two.

The conflict between professional journalists and citizen journalists arises when the two parties feel like they are in a battle of autonomy, independence, power and revenue with one another. (Dugan, 2007; Cheney, 2017; Hamada, 2018). According to Ye Jin Hong (2014), professional journalists tend to quickly forget that for the longest time, the public has always relied on their professionalism to produce content that is reliable. There is no doubt that this increases the work load of the professional journalists (Hong, 2014). However, citizen journalism on the other hand, has also been defined as "journalistic efforts in which ordinary people participate in the distribution, analysis and reporting of news" (Trottier and Fuchs, 2014: 116). This leads to the reason why citizens tend to respond more to the internet, especially social media.

The study aims to incorporate the case of the Marikana massacre and #FeesMustFall movement to examine how citizen journalism affects the ethics of journalism. The study will explore the roles that the citizen and professional journalists played in reporting the events and identify the consequences of each of their roles using the ethical theory of consequentialism. Lastly, the study specifically evaluates the positive and negative effects of citizen journalism on the ethics of journalism.

1.2   Problem statement

The rise of citizen journalism has effects on the ethics of journalism. According to Pavindharan Balakrishnan (2016), the rise of citizen journalism affects professional journalism in three ways- namely; power shift, moulding opinions and the biases of professional journalism reporting issues in time of crises. In the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement, newscoverage suggested various judgements on how the events were reported. For example, it was reported that the "absence of citizen journalism resulted in the coverage being biased towards official accounts such as the police" (Duncan, 2007: 1). In contrast, the events

of the #FeesMustFall movement would not have been properly reported on had it not been for citizen journalism.

This reflects an existing trend within the current nature of journalism which is the continuous blurring of lines between professional journalism and citizen journalism. To elucidate how citizen journalism has affected the profession of journalism, the study will explore the roles played by citizen and professional journalists in reporting on the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement. Furthermore, the study will use the ethical theory of consequentialism to evaluate the ethical impact of the roles played by the two types of journalism, in the above-mentioned cases on the practice of journalism as a whole.

1.3 The key research question

The study endeavours to answer the following key research question:

What are the effects of citizen journalism on the ethics of journalism in the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement?

1.4 The research objectives and sub-questions

- To define the profession of journalism.
- To define citizen journalism.
- To explore how the professional and citizen journalists reported on the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement.
- To evaluate the effects of citizen journalism on the ethics of journalism using the ethical theory of consequentialism.

Given these objectives above, the following research sub-questions will guide the study to reach its goals:

- What is the profession of journalism?
- What is citizen journalism?
- How did the professional and citizen journalists report on the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement?

- How does the ethical theory of consequentialism assist in evaluating the effects of citizen journalism on the ethics of journalism?

1.5   Motivation for the research study

1.5.1 Personal motivation:

I was particularly, curious to find out how the activities of citizen journalists online, have affected the ethics of the profession of journalism. I also wanted to find out whether professional journalists have encountered any ethical setbacks or benefits concerning the constant increase in citizen journalism.

1.5.2 Academic motivation:

Literature on citizen journalism embodies various studies from different schools of thought (Hamilton, 2012). From a historical perspective, studies have focused on the dynamic emergence of citizen journalism and have been concerned about locating it within the centuries. Often, studies focus on the challenges that citizen journalism has brought on the practice of journalism. One of the main challenges is the accelerating pressures of competition on the basis of the emergence of modernism and technological change (Pidduck, 2010).

Studies from a sociological point of view centre their arguments on commonalities and differences between citizen and professional journalism. For example, some sociologists argue that citizen and professional journalists use different routines when reporting and writing (Vujnovic et al., 2010). Other sociologists argue that with the existing pressures on the working structures of professional journalists, there exists a great deal of commonality between citizen journalists and professional journalists. Furthermore, studies from a biotechnology perspective focus on the technological convergence of citizen journalism (Heinrich, 2011). In this regard, interference within professional journalism are largely related to the internet. This study however, writes from an ethical perspective. The study investigates the effects of citizen journalism on the ethics of journalism.

1.6   Research problem and the aim of the study

Studies have indicated that the emergence of citizen journalism has affected the profession of journalism during the past two decades (Lewis, Kaufhold and Larsorsa, 2010). Amongst these effects is the decline in the audiences and consumers of the mainstream or professional journalism. This is evident in the drastic growth of audiences migrating from mainstream as their source of news to participation in producing new content on social media platforms (Hamada, 2018: 35). The decline of the mainstream audience is due to the phenomenon of citizen journalism challenging the already disputed concepts of journalism as a profession and journalists as professionals (Hamada, 2018: 35). This study seeks to explore and also evaluate the effects of citizen journalism on the ethics of journalism using the case the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement.

1.7 Theoretical framework of the study

The assumption of the study is that citizen journalism has an effect on the ethics of profession of journalism. The theory that will guide the study is the ethical theory of consequentialism. Consequentialism is an ethical theory that determines the rightness or wrongness of actions in terms of their consequences (Alexander, 2000). Through the lens of consequentialism, the study will evaluate the effects or consequences of citizen journalism on the ethics of professional journalism using the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement.

1.8 Research design and methodology

The study will use a desk-based case study approach. This is a popular method of desk-based research which examines 'purposive sample' in depth (Yin, 2014). A desk-based research is a type of social science research that gathers and interprets secondary research sources. This interpretation of data helps us understand social life through the study of targeted societies (Starman, 2013:30). Furthermore, Adrijana Starman also provides the following definition for a case study:

> A case study is a general term for the exploration of an individual, group or
> phenomenon. Therefore, a case study is a comprehensive description of an
> individual case and its analysis; such as, the characterization of the case and

the events, as well as a description of the discovery process of these features

that is the process of research itself (Starman, 2013: 31).

Therefore, a combination of the above methods can be referred to as a 'desk-based case study' approach (Baxter and Jack, 2008: 543). According to Pamela Baxter and Susan Jack (2008), this approach provides ways to examine complex phenomena within their contexts. Furthermore, Baxter and Jack (2008: 543) also states that this research method enables an opportunity to "explore or describe a phenomenon in context using a variety of sources", in this case, the case study of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement. In other words, the study will be strictly based on existing literature.

1.9 The structure of the dissertation

The study constists of six chapters. These are described as follows:

Chapter one will present the organizational framework of the study. It contains the background of the research problem. Chapter one includes the introduction, background and motivation for the research, the research problem and aim of the study along with the problem statement, the key research question and sub-questions as well as the objectives of the study. The chapter will also highlight the theoretical framework of the study as well as its methodology.

Chapter two is the literature review which will be presented thematically under the following: The nature of journalism, the emergence of the internet, the emergence of citizen journalism, the principles of journalism, fake news and policies found in professional journalism and lastly; ethics and journalism.

Chapter three will be the methodology of the study. This chapter comprises of the description of the methodological approach. The chapter provides a justification for the use of the chosen method and the limitations of this approach. Chapter three also provides the narration of the two cases; the case of the Marikana massacre and the case of the #FeesMustFall movement which the study will base its analysis on.

Chapter four presents the theoretical framework of the study, consisting of the definition and meaning of the ethical theory of consequentialism. The chapter will discuss the different approaches found in the ethical theory of consequentialism. Again, the chapter will explore the

strengths and weaknesses of the ethical theory of consequentialism. Lastly, the chapter discusses how the ethical theory of consequentialism will guide the study.

Chapter five presents an analysis of the role of citizen and professional journalists in the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement using the ethical theory of consequentialism. Lastly, the chapter uses the analysis to evaluate the positive and negative effects of citizen journalism on the ethics of journalism.

Finally, Chapter six presents the summary and conclusion of the entire study. The chapter is divided into two sections. The first section presents the summary of the study and the second section presents the general conclusions and recommendations of the study.

1.10   Conclusion

The chapter has introduced the major concerns of the study, which is to evaluate the effects of citizen journalism on the ethics of journalism. It outlined the background of the study, stating that social media has transformed the nature of journalism from a hierarchical organisational setting into a setting where ordinary citizens can participate in the production and dissemination of news content. The chapter stated the personal and academic motivation for the study, the aim of the study as well as the research problem. The chapter also presented the problem statement, the key research question, sub-questions as well as the objectives of the study. In conducting this study, the thesis draws critically from the insights of the ethical theory of consequentialism. The study uses a desk-based case study approach as its methodology. Lastly, the chapter outlined the structure of the study. The following chapter consists of the review of existing literature concerning the focus areas of the study.

<center>**Chapter Two**</center>

<center>**Literature Review**</center>

2.1   Introduction

This chapter presents a comprehensive summary of previous research on the phenomena of citizen journalism, professional journalism, and the ethics concerning both citizen and professional journalism. The chapter provides an overview of the historical background of professional journalism, how it has evolved over the years to its current nature. It is divided into two major sections. In the first section, the nature of journalism, the emergence of the internet, and the emergence of citizen journalism is discussed, including its relationship to fake news. The second section presents the principles of journalism, the policies found in journalism as well as ethics in journalism. This is then followed with a conclusion.

2.1 The Nature of Journalism

For several years, great effort has been devoted to the study of journalism and how it has been altered over the years (Hong, 2014; Lloyd, 2013; Ward, 2011). Similarly, this chapter explores the background of journalism and how the internet has altered the profession of journalism. This background starts with literature from a global perspective, before narrowing down to a South African perspective. However, the chapter endeavours to emphasize specifically, on the ethics involved in professional and citizen journalism.

According to Umar Farooq (2015: 2), journalism can be defined as "daily register or a diary" that contains "each day's business transactions". Furthermore, journalism is the occupation of writing, editing and reporting of news organisation as a form of business. From this definition, it is evident that the main function of journalism is to convey information and empower the informed. It is a daily report of everyday events which are reported with outmost transparency to inform the society about its surroundings. Similarly, Hong (2014: 27) establishes journalism as a profession inclusive of "specialized knowledge, technical skills, practice experience and professional codes of ethics". Due to such expertise, journalists hold power and privilege in society as professionals of information.

The above definition shows that in order for a person to be recognised as a journalist, there are certain skills that they should acquire. This serves to prove that journalism is a profession that requires one to go and study at a certified institution. Farooq (2015:2) explains the role of a professional journalist as one that is "not confined to merely reporting the news events". In addition, a professional journalist is also responsible for interpreting and commenting on news and events. Thus, the news content ends up constituting of "News and Views".

In his elaboration, Farooq states that there is more towards being a professional journalist which includes educating the public about events and issues that affect their lives. In addition, being a professional journalist means that you spend time with the sources that provide you with information. This, sometimes, includes visiting the scene where the event took place or any other occurrence that is newsworthy. Hong (2014) maintains that for a journalist to qualify to be called a journalist, he or she needs to have specialized knowledge and skills about how news is reported . Journalists obtain their power as information professionals through what is generally known as gate-keeping which is the procedure where information is sifted for distribution through newspaper publication, the internet or any other form of communication (Barzilai-Nohan, 2009).

After examining the above definitions on the profession of journalism and the role of a professional journalist, the study discusses a brief history of the profession of journalism from a global scope, narrowing down to Africa, particularly South Africa with the aim of gaining an understanding of how the profession of journalism has evolved over the years. This is done with the aim of gaining knowledge on the current nature of professional journalism. Historically, professional journalists gave readers assurance that they would publish the truth based on the "matters of fact" (Ward, 2011: 58). Journalism had an authoritarian approach and it reflected the early modern society which was hierarchical and undemocratic.

The duties of journalists were to serve the existing authority, whether it was a king, a political regime or a party. Today, a majority of countries still operate under a similar system in various ways, including South Africa (Ward, 2011). For instance, as stated by Pedro Gonzalez (2013), critics of media such as Noam Chomsky and Edward Herman, developed a model called the Chomsky propaganda model to illustrate how the objectivity of mainstream journalism in America, ends up favoring the views and opinions of the government and powerful

organisations. This essentially leads to a heavy dependence on 'official' sources. This propaganda model is worth noting because similar characteristics of the model are evident in the case of the Marikana massacre where professional journalists were easily influenced by public officials on how the events of the massacre should be reported and which sources should influence the reporting. The study will later discuss this issue at length in chapter four.

Furthermore, Gonzalez (2013:7). states that media outlets are "instruments of power that mobilise support for the special interests that dominate the state and private activity". The Chomsky propaganda model comprises of five filters that filter out news content that qualifies to be printed and disseminted in order for the government and authoritative institutions to get their messages across to the public. The first filter is the profit orientation and owner wealth of the influencing mass media outlets. The second filter is the use of advertisements as the main source of the mass media. The third filter is that mass media rely heavily on the government, business, and "experts" for information. This information is funded and approved by these main sources and agents of authority. The fourth filter is the use of strong criticism as a way of disciplining the media. The last filter is to use an "anticommunism" approach as a control mechanism (Gonzalez, 2013).

The basic premise of the Chomsky propaganda model is that information is significantly controlled by the government and official institutions. Additionally, Gonzalez (2013) states that the control of information is mostly visible in contemporary capitalist democracies where political power and economic power indirectly injects propaganda as totalitarian or dictatorial regimes behind the guise of the informative "freedom" and "independence" in the media.

In the early ages of journalism, states used to apply strict controls on the news press such as state licensing and of the press (Dubbous, 2010). Furthermore, there were harsh measures against illegal presses as well as offensive content. The decision as to who gets to print and what was printed was determined by the state. Therefore, all news institutions were obligated to serve the government and not challenge it. According to Wally Hughes (2011), this was the American Revolutionary period where newspapers became known. This time period was very political and polarized thus, making the newspapers less objective.

There is similar literature found in South Africa that describes the historical nature of journalism. According to Una Seery and Monica Seeber (2012: 6), during the Apartheid era, "the media was severely restricted and controlled by a myriad law that made it difficult to publish information on anything political without authorisation". For example, the Apartheid government used to implement the Publications Act of 1974 to census plays , movies and books. In other words, the government effectively decided what citizens could and could not do.

In the early 1990s, the National Party was increasingly pressured to change. This was due to resistance within the country and opposition around the world. When changes after the first democratic election took place, the democratic government was determined to form discussions and debates for the implemenattion of a free press. Freedom of expression was promoted and upheld as one of the most imortant rights of all citizens. Additionally, as Seery and Seeber put it:

> With this freedom came freedom of the press and media, the freedom to
> receive or impart information or ideas, the freedom of artistic creativity,
> academic freedom and freedom of scientific research, as an intrinsic part of
> the 'New South Africa' (Seery and Seeber, 2012: 7).

The above-mentioned view is the core motive behind the current nature of journalism, be it professional or citizen journalism that we witness today. This is the very nature of journalism that the study seeks to investigate in order to arrive to the various effects that citizen journalism has on the profession of journalism. The rise of digital technologies, specifically the social media, is not just a matter of technology merging but it is an astounding process where media convergence is "both a top-down, corporate-driven process and a bottom-up, consumer-driven process" (Hamada, 2018: 35).

The top-down, corporate-driven process refers to the process whereby, professional journalists rely on higher authority figures within their corporate institutions to determine what is newsworthy. This process creates clear lines of authority and facilitates quality control of news dissemination. On the other hand, a bottom-up, consumer-driven process describes the process of utilizing alternative ways of reporting news. This process reshuffles the lines of authority, giving voice to all participants of news reporting. Furthermore, Basyouni Hamada (2018), states

that the drastic growth in the network of "mass self-communicators" has resulted in an overwhelming amount of information and news content found online which is generated by other individuals and institutions besides the profession of journalism.

According to Ward (2011: 28), journalism has become more of a participatory way of communication compared to the one-way, asymmetric model of communicating that existed in the past. Citizens now have the ability to take part in producing news content. The challenge with this drastic change in media is that citizen journalists who are also known as amateurs in professional journalism are now receiving most of the public's attention. Citizen journalists are termed amateurs because they do not belong to any formal institution and therefore they do not conform to any journalism principles. Hence, this increases the public's suspicions towards the information that citizen journalists publish (Hong, 2014: 26). This, therefore, can be seen as a limitation to the purpose of journalism. The profession of journalism is considered as a profession with its own set of rules and ethics. Thus, according to Fidalgo (2013), proper news reporting cannot be easily carried out by ordinary people without the relevant qualification. This is to say that currently, every citizen is free to give their own opinion through social media which as a result causes tension with the profession of journalism and also increases the level of fake news (Gumede, 2017).

In the context of South Africa, the drastic growth in social media has brought about many positives including the high levels of media freedom. When comparing countries in Africa, South Africa can be counted as one of the countries which possess a great deal of media freedom, including the publishing of either positive or negative content about its leaders. However, this freedom seems to be restricted in some cases such as the elite sphere. For instance, government officials such as the police alter the Regulation of Gatherings Act and other regulations to formulate reasons to cease protests and make it difficult for activists to arrange and participate in protests lawfully (Davis, 2019).

I argue that with professional journalism historically being closely attached to the government and powerful corporations, it makes it hard for the public to believe that indeed the information disseminated by professional journalists is impartial and accurate as it may very well be another way that the government along with these corporations continue to manipulate the public.

Having presented the nature of journalism from a global as well as local point of view, the next subsection details the emergence of the internet.

2.2 The emergence of the internet and social media

In a small space of time, the internet has gone from being an undefined space where it was difficult to predict its opportunities, to a force that now demands a massive amount of attention. Additionally, the internet has functions such as the World Wide Web (www) and social media which enable ordinary people to send messages, publish and share information. This fusion of services and networks operate on a global scale and enable the communication on a greater possible level. The most common social media platforms are Facebook, Twitter, Myspace, Instagram, YouTube and WhatsApp (Campbell, 2014: 706).

There are numerous social media platforms and each one is different in its own way. The following is a brief description of the above-mentioned platforms;

Facebook

Facebook is a web-based, interactive network that enables users to share thoughts and information over a wide area (Kaplan, 2003). It allows a connection to all those with shared interests across borders. Facebook users can post pictures, videos, ask questions and also invite residents to public events. In essence, Facebook is a site built upon social connections with family and friends. One of its strongest components involves a news experience where its users can actively engage with news events (Philips, 2007). This component tends to be a greater value in informing those who do not typically follow news on a regular basis. The most common reasons why users of Facebook post news on their pages is to pass along information that they believe is important for people to know about. Furthermore, this is done to stimulate a discussion among friends around an event or particular issue of concern (Philips, 2007).

Twitter

Twitter is a web-based, opinion and information network where people communicate in short messages called "Tweets" (Rodriguez, 2012). An increasing number of Twitter users share useful content such as general news around their communities, the government as well as organisations and businesses of interests. In addition, Twitter enables the streaming of quick

updates from friends and family, news journalists, scholars, and experts. Twitter also empowers people to become journalists, regardless of any journalistic qualification, as it enables its users to describe and share things they found interesting about their day. Consequently, there is a lot of absurdity on Twitter, however, there is also news that is useful and informative (Williams, 2010).

Myspace

Myspace is a social networking platform that makes it easy for its users to create webpages to communicate with other users (Cashmore, 2006). Users of this site are able to upload photos and videos, create blogs, and design profiles to showcase their talents. According to Pete Cashmore (2006), Myspace has created an environment for users to keep in touch with people and also form relations with people across the world. However, the site has received some criticism from people who believe that some of its users use the site to stalk and prey on other users. In response to the criticism, Myspace created a privacy setting that allows users to specify who they would like to view their profiles.

Instagram

Instagram is a photo and video-sharing social network owned by Facebook. It is specifically made for smartphones. Furthermore, Instagram enables its users to upload videos and photos that can be modified with various filters (Newton, 2016). These photos or videos can be posted anytime and anywhere,providing that there is a connection to the internet. The users' posts can be shared publicly or with pre-approved followers. Many business owners use Instagram to promote their products and services (Sharma, 2019). Therefore, sometimes this could lead to false advertising to attract customers.

YouTube

YouTube is an extremely popular web-based platform used to upload, share and view videos. According to Dan Nakaso, there are approximately 35 hours of videos that are uploaded and viewed by roughly 2 billion people every day (Nakaso, 2013). Moreover, YouTube is great for sharing news information that is visually compelling. Country officials find YouTube useful

because they can share public meeting videos. It is also useful for training guides because videos create more of an interactive experience rather than a text document (Nakaso, 2013).

WhatsApp

WhatsApp is a cross-platform messaging and a voice over network service owned by Facebook (Metz, 2016). It allows its users to send text messages, video calls as well as voice calls using internet connection. WhatsApp also allows for images, documents and user location. One of the biggest disadvantage of this network service is that some people consider news on WhatsApp to be true, which is not always the case. This is problematic especially during sensitive periods such as elections, violent protests and religious functions because its users can create news content that is fake and misleading (Metz, 2016).

As noted above, social media is a growing sensation in contemporary society. Its platforms are increasingly used by many people as means of communication and sharing information on various topics (Trottier and Fuchs, 2014: 114). Technological advancements drive the changes in journalistic practices. These changes cause one of the most complicated challenges, one being that it has become difficult to differentiate between the different means of communication, either in terms of the way it is constructed or in the way they interact with one another. As Akinwale, Seriki and Gutura put it;

> Print, broadcast, traditional telecommunications, even mail are no longer
> distinct and separate categories- traditional media has converged with digital
> media. Telephone can be accessed over the internet, as well as mail (through
> email or instant messages), or television, radio or even newspapers
> (Akinwale et al.,2017: 20).

The internet has changed the relationship between professional journalists and the general public. Today, citizens can contribute towards the news production process (Ward, 2011 and Hermans and Vergeer, 2009). The most common way of accessing the internet is through mobile cellphones and laptops. This means that the internet has expanded our capability to seek, impart and receive information. These are the major elements which help us understand the effects of the internet on freedom of expression. The internet also enables the collaboration between the creation and sharing of information. The internet also helps create environments

that empower communities, assisting them collaborate, communicate and exchange information and views (Dubois, 2012). With the internet, it is no longer compulsory to depend on the professional journalists alone to play the role of the public's spokesperson. Thus, leading to the 'democratization' of freedom of expression (Puddephatt, 2016).

Digital media threatens our privacy in many ways. For example, cellphones that are equipped with cameras enable the taking of photos and recording of videos without one's knowledge especially in situations where one would believe to be private or intimate. The resulting videos can then be shared either simply with friends or even on a more public site such as YouTube (Ess, 2009: 19). In other words, new technological advancements can bring about development or destruction, depending on how it used. The outburst of self-generated content from blogs, videos and tweets threaten media organizations that are already finding it difficult to survive online as their revenue streams decline. Antony Puddephatt (2016) states that the media environment in which activists of freedom of expression have become comfortable with is being altered into something more unknown and harder to understand. Therefore, the regulation of such an environment is undeniably challenging.

Leanne Townsend and Claire Wallace (2016) claim furthermore that the internet provides an opportunity for researchers to gather data that would otherwise have taken time and resources to obtain. Historically, researchers would gather information through various methods such as questionnaires, in-depth interviews as well as observations. With the mere 'touch of a button', or by simply typing a few words or terms into a platform's search bar such as Google, such data is now made readily available. However, Thabani Mdlongwa on the other hand, believes that the more the world depends on search engines such as Google and Wikipedia to do research, the more the mind gets sluggish. The internet provides us with most things but orientation which is "the biggest opportunity for an old-fashioned medium: the newspaper" (Mdlongwa, 2001: 106).

Reading newspapers and listening or watching news on the television is increasingly becoming a thing of the past for the youth across the world. Attention is significantly being shifted to internet media (Akinwale et al., 2017). This is true, especially amongst the youth, but among those who are regarded as strangers to technology, there is still heavy reliance on television and radio. Today, the new and ever-growing technologies are said to be threatening the existence

16

of professional journalism (Noor, 2017). Economic concentration has long been acknowledged for this threat (Atton, 2003). Cost reduction and efficiency are important issues in contemporary journalism. Instances such as global recessions have significant effects on news production.

Cost-cutting measures in many newsrooms have led to the retrenchment of many journalists thus, newsrooms are restructured to better accommodate the growth of the internet. According to the *Daily Maverick*, the number of community newspapers dropped from 575 in 2008 to 275 in 2018 (Daniels, 2018). As part of cost-cutting measure, journalists are being retrenched, with companies serving section 189 notices which is a retrenchment process in terms of the Labour Relations Act. Furthermore, the biggest employer of journalists in South Africa, the South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC), has stated to be in debt of an amount of 622 million Rands.

In September 2018, the SABC declared that it will be serving the section 189 notices, including voluntary packages, dismissals, layoffs and early retirements (Daniels, 2018). These retrenchments are as a result of the restructuring of the SABC in order to cut costs and restore its finances. Hence, as the public increasingly move to online mediums, the financial state of professional journalism suffers. This creates a major concern for the future of journalism because as Ward (2011: 214) argues, "weakening the economics of the mainstream journalism results in layoffs for experienced journalists. Layoffs reduce journalism's ability to act as a watchdog with power".

In addition, newspaper circulation is constantly declining which places the press under more pressure. There have been continuous reports on the layoffs across all media industries especially journalism. This suggests that as people engage more with online media which is a more instantaneous and interconnected way of reporting, professional journalists seem to be at a loss on how to come up with survival strategies. Ward (2011: 189) suggests that "traditional media should adopt to survive and serve the changing media habits of the public".

Similarly, Mdlongwa (2009) proposed that in order for professional journalists to not lose their reliability, it is essential for them to come up with strategies to help them keep up with the speed of the internet whilst embracing the new media. Also, publishing companies need to try new

paths but still focus on their fundamental competence which is quality. However, as expressed by Jayeon Lee (2015), professional journalists have also begun to use Facebook and Twitter accounts as a way to inform and express their views. There is no doubt that well-established media industries are faced with many challenges, all they need to do is focus on what they know best and find a way to make technological innovations work in their favor (Mdlongwa, 2009).

The above subsection discussed that the drastic alteration of the journalism landscape is as a result of the emergence of the internet which has enabled easy access to news and information online, and also enabled ordinary citizens to produce their own news content. These enablements have led to a rising suspicion that, since anyone with access to the internet is able to contribute towards the production of news irrespective of having a qualification or not, it will ultimately lead to an alteration of ethics in professional journalism as well. The following subsection presents the emergence of citizen journalism.

2.3 The Emergence of Citizen Journalism

Citizen journalism, has for many years been misconceived as a new phenomenon of the twentieth or twenty-first century whereas citizen journalism has been around long before the twentieth century. The term, citizen journalism was coined in the 1980s by Jay Rosen. Rosen defined citizen journalism as follows: "when the people formerly known as the audience employ the press tools they have in their possession to inform one another" (Hughes, 2011: 117). Other scholars such as Thomas Haigh (2016) and Debora Cheney (2017), redefined Rosen's explanation to read as follows: "The collecting and publication of timely, unique, nonfiction information by individuals without formal journalism training or professional affiliation" (Dabbous, 2010: 19). Hong (2011) maintains that it is important to stipulate that citizen journalists do not share the same professional or educational backgrounds as professional journalists.

Since its emergence, the term citizen journalism has been faced with conceptual difficulties in terms of how to properly define the term and practice. This difficulty, in part, has to do with the fact that the term 'citizen journalism' is rather a very ambiguous term as there are two definitions attached to it (Hamada, 2018). The first and most popular definition would be the one by Rabia Noor, which defines citizen journalism as non-professional journalists who use user-generated tools such as the internet and social media as means of communication (Noor,

2017). The other less popular definition is one by Hamada which defines citizen journalism as a phenomenon that emerged from the convergence in media. Convergence in media refers to the process which involves the interconnection of communication technologies, computer networks, and media content and information. This convergence has enabled producers and consumers of news content to use social media such as blogging, Facebook, Twitter, Skype and Wikis in order to "compete to maximize their benefits and expand their control over the flow of news and information" (Hamada, 2018: 35; Baruah, 2012).

Given the above definitions, it is evident that citizen journalism can be easily presumed as referring to ordinary citizens that are not otherwise employed as professional journalists. These citizens play an active role in producing and reporting and disseminating news content. This ongoing process has been made possible through the advancement of digital technologies of the social media or social network platforms. However, Hamada's definition of citizen journalism further elaborates that citizen journalism can also be used to refer to professional journalists who have incorporated digital technologies such as social media into their journalistic routines in order to control the flow of news and information. This suggests that these digital technologies have enabled both professional journalists as well as ordinary citizens "to share the same media platforms, yet with different purposes" (Hamada, 2018: 35).

Other terms used instead of citizen journalism are: amateur journalism, participatory journalism, public journalism, do-it-yourself journalism, civic journalism, alternative journalism or networked journalism. Each term is defined in response to different purpose and focuses. South Africa, in particular, has a long history and many interesting cases on alternative journalism. Alternative media seeks to give voice to the poor, ethnic minorities, labor groups as well as LGBT identities. Alternative media takes the form of print, video, internet, audio and street art. Since the 2000s, South Africa has experienced a scarcity of alternative media due to the fact that most of it was incorporated into mainstream media, including government and political party organisations (*The Original*, 2008).

A few examples of alternative media in South Africa are 'Abahlali baseMjondolo' which is a movement made up of shack-dwellers well known for campaigning against public housing and evictions (Jacobs, 2013). Another example is that of The Western Cape Anti-Eviction

Campaign in Cape Town, a popular movement made up of opressed and poor communities within the Cape Town (Nevitt, 2010). The most emphasized part of the definition of citizen journalism is the "shift from citizens as an audience to citizens as producers of news" (Bruns, 2009: 127). Axel Bruns mentions that this type of journalism is driven by citizens who desire to transform journalism from a mass media structure to something profoundly democratic.

Citizen journalism emerged mainly as a response to the public's frustration of being side-lined in news coverage. Barry Parr, a media analyst and community journalist who started one of the first citizen journalism sites, argued that citizen journalism emerged due to the following two reasons: latent demand, meaning that a majority of communities in a metro region were simply not being covered by the big newspaper in town (Parr, 2015). The second reason being the availability of tools such as blogging, sites as well as digital cameras. With time, the media resources enabled the rise of citizen journalism.

Hong (2014) describes citizen journalists as critics of professional journalism. He explained that for many years, people had been dissatisfied with professional journalism mainly because it failed to confront the unrests of 'ordinary citizens'. Mainstream journalism was and still is condemned for being too commercialized and politicized (Chadha, 2015). Many scholars, including David Buckingham (2002) and Nic Newman (2011) suggested that this approach to news dissemination had the potential to misreport issues on public affairs and manipulate the truth. Thus, contemporary citizen journalist movements emerged after such observations (Hughes, 2014).

In addition, Bruns (2010) mentioned that what causes the boundaries between news audience and news producers to be blurred is that the audience can now participate in the online news space as users as well as producers. For instance, the public now consume news by liking or following journalists or news organizations on Facebook or Twitter. Thus, professional journalists have turned to social media as a tool to capture the public's opinions and the flow of information, especially in situations of a crisis.

According to Lee (2015, 9) journalists either individually "create their own social media pages for public consumption to promote their news products and build brands" or their employers encourage them to engage in social media to expand readership. In such cases, social media

users do not only use social media merely for communication reasons but they can also enhance communal relationships with the sources of news. This approach is helpful in understanding the perspectives of the current news users.

Furthermore, Lee (2015) states that the use of social media is not only driven by the need for information but also by social value such as social interaction and self-expression. The need for self-presentation and the need to belong have also been identified as primary needs for social media use. In brief, citizen journalism seems to be causing a wide-ranging challenge to the institutionalized and professionalized practices of traditional journalism (Atton, 2003).

What seems to be problematic with citizen journalism is that certain ethical aspects are not easily controlled or considered (Lee, 2015). Most citizen journalists like to be known as freedom activists, exercising their role to inform the public (Dugan, 2007). For example, Lawrence Mushwana, who is a South African human rights commissioner did not study journalism but she continuously uses the internet to inform the public about their rights (SAHRCommision, 2013). When citizen journalists refer to themselves as activists, this causes an upheaval given that professional journalists argue that this might cause the work they produce to be undermined by the public. Professional journalists, as a result, believe their work might be considered secondary to the content produced by citizen journalists due to the fact that the content by citizen journalists creates more participation as well as interaction with the public (Frantz, 2017).

In the realm of civic discourse and political debate, citizen journalism has been seen as an ideal form of public participation (Hong, 2014; Malherbe, 2015). For example, Daniel Malherbe (2015) stated that citizen journalism has a direct impact on one of the most important aspects of a democracy which is the election period. Thus, had it not been for the internet, former president Barrack Obama would not have been president. According to Malherbe (2015), the influence that the internet and social media had on the electioneering in the United States cannot be overemphasized.

Malherbe (2015) states that no other country in the world consumes as much information as that of the United States of America. Regarding Barrack Obama's campaign in 2008, there was a team of web specialists that were hired to carry out the campaign. One of the things that the

web team focused on was gaining online success. They did this by creating the correct platforms, a website, an email list as well as a digital distribution system. The team then fueled the campaign further by blogging, tweeting and posting on Facebook as well as uploading videos on YouTube. Furthermore, Obama's YouTube videos were watched for 14.5 million hours. This reflects the value and reach of the Obama's YouTube videos. Ultimately, Obama's 2008 campaign totally changed the way candidates in the United States communicate with the public. Candidates now communicate either through the use of social media platforms such as Twitter and Facebook or through YouTube, where candidates can upload their speeches and campaign messages.

Citizen journalism appears to maintain a definition that resonates with that of 'democracy'- it is regarded as information that is disseminated by the people and for the people. According to Ward (2011), the power of news media is sometimes abused. This abuse results in the manipulation of information and damaging outcomes on societies and countries. The less technical ways that people abuse social networks is by lying (Carty, 2018). For example, social networks allow for predators to do as they please, a predator can open an account using a fake name and a fake date of birth. This way, the predator is able to post a picture of someone else who is usually around the same age as the people they are targeting. As a result, the predator can, for instance, be thought to be an innocent 16-year- old when in fact they are a 52-year-old pedophile.

A recent study conducted by the Crimes Against Children Research Center in the United States, reported that 1 in 7 children aged 10 to 17 were victims of an online sexual solicitation. The more complicated technical ways that people abuse social networks could be hacking into user's accounts and accessing e-mail addresses. Media harm may include physical harm, harm to reputation, and social harm (Ward, 2011). This is due to the fact that everyone wants a way to make money from the public's appetite for online content. Some do this to the extent of not caring whether their news content is accurate or not and how it impacts on the people as long as it generates money for them.

Tensions are likely to exist between citizen journalism and professional journalism as the latter continues to protect their territory of news production from prospective rivals. However, based on the ideas of Hong (2014), quantitative analysis that have been conducted show that

professional journalists agreed that citizen journalists do contribute positively towards the field of journalism as they recognize the synergy between traditional journalists and citizen journalists.

The major disapproval from professional journalists' point of view is when citizen journalists are portrayed as "journalists" or "professionals" to the public (Hong, 2014). Professional journalists who are fully against citizen journalism consider it as a dangerous and useless phenomenon which is explicitly out to delegitimize the professional status of professional journalists in news coverage. Most importantly, professional journalists limit the function of citizen journalism to "information delivery" (Malherbe, 2015). This serves as a way for professional journalists to effectively uphold their power and position.

Hong states the following in the interaction between citizen and traditional journalism;

> Traditional journalism does not imagine a role for audiences as news producers. On the one hand, public journalism is a reaction to the deepening gap between journalism and the citizens; on the other hand, it reflects concerns about the participation of ordinary people in public life in general (Hong, 2013: 20).

The above quote signifies the grounds on which participatory or citizen journalism stands upon. It is clear that professional journalists provided little or no opportunity to make room for the consumers of news to participate in the gathering of information or publishing of news. A a result, the citizens or news consumers took the technological advancement as an opportunity to make their voices heard, leading to the current situation of the blurred lines observed between professional and citizen journalism. According to Lewis, Kaufhold and Lasorsa (2010), the internet undermines the core value of professional journalism since it is no longer hard to produce or publish information. Hence, creating the setting for citizen journalism to thrive.

Furthermore, Lewis, Kaufhold and Lasorsa (2010) state that professional journalists have various opinions and views for embracing or rejecting citizen journalism. Those who embrace citizen journalism regard it as a form of advancement from the way journalism has been conducted over the years. Some journalists regard citizen journalism merely as a pure expansion of mainstream journalism which is established through advancements in technology (Lewi,

Kaufhold and Lasorsa, 2010; Hughes, 2011). Those editors who reject citizen journalism view it as journalists who are agenda-driven and activists who are actually damaging journalism. They state that citizen journalism comes with problems which is mainly the inability to determine whether the information is accurate, who is behind it and why. Most editors express professional concerns of objectivity, verification and ethics (Garcia, 2015).

The above discussion has presented the emergence of citizen journalism, stating that it is a phenomenon that has existed long before the emergence of the internet. However, citizen journalism is only being popular now because of the advancements in technologies. These technological advancements have enabled the voice of the public to be heard effectively. Despite this, these advancements in technology coupled with the rapid progression of citizen journalism have been said to have led to the hazardous industry of fake news which the following subsection will elaborate on.

2.4 Fake news

Ylva Rodney-Gumede (2017) expresses the opinion that the emergence of citizen journalism has enabled the industry of fake news. He defines the fake news industry as organizations who sell news that is simply not true. The readers of these news are systematically misled and tricked by the details in these exciting stories. These stories are usually full of scandals and are highly damaging to the people featured in the news. An example of fake news in South Africa is the report on the former Miss South Africa, Ntandoyenkosi Kunene. Ntandoyenkosi was reported as caught in possession of cocaine while on a vacation in the United Kingdom. The first report appeared on a fake website: www.te1egraph.co.uk, under the headline: 'Miss South Africa 2016 arrested at London Heathrow Airport with 2kg of Cocaine'. The fake website was intentionally created to trick people into believing that the news was from a legit website-www.telegraph.co.uk. After the report was confirmed to be fake, it was subsequently removed from the internet. However, throughout the same day, the same report appeared on other social media sites (Claymore, 2017).

Another example of fake news that spread across social media in 2017 was the photograph that was taken out of context during the Westminster Terror Attacks. These attacks took place outside the Palace of Westminster in London on the 22nd of March 2017. The attacker, a 52-year-old, Briton Khalid Masood, drove a car into pedestrians on the pavement along the south

side of Westminster Bridge, injuring more than 50 people, 4 of them fatally. Afterward, he crashed the car into a perimeter fence, where he stabbed an unarmed police officer to death. He was shot by an armed police officer and died on the scene (Sengupta, 2017). Furthermore, Sengupta states that the motive of this attack was the revenge for Western military actions in the Middle East. Hence, the police treated the attack as "Islamist-related" terrorism.

Following the Westminster terror attacks, a Twitter account belonging to a Russian bot (a social media account of a convincing online persona used to influence culture and politics) shared an photograph of a Muslim woman and accussed her of ignoring the victims of the terror attacks. Below the image was the caption: 'Muslim woman pays no mind to the terror attack, casually walking by a dying man while checking her phone'. The tweet was retweeted and it was also featured in news reports across the world. This stimulated negative reactions against the woman. All the backlash only came to an end when the photographer came forward to explain that the photo had been taken out of context and that the woman was actually calling for help. This proves that social networks, mostly driven by citizen journalists can spread fake news across the globe in a few minutes, and in no time, a fake story can attract millions of viewers who may consider it as news of fact (Sengupta, 2017).

Goodman and Steyn (2017) assert that the owners of the press that are involved in a great struggle to preserve the quality of journalism from economic ruin are cast aside by fierce and deliberate efforts by government to diminish journalism as a whole. The struggle to save journalism's reputation is undergoing new urgency during this time of increasing fake news and distrust in the mainstream media. For example, when reputable news outlets like Cable News Network (CNN) and *The New York Times* disseminated 'negative' press coverage on the lifestyle of President Donald Trump during the recent 2016 United States presidential race, Trump kept on calling news organizations that he disapproved of as- "fake news". This serves as an example of how people in power can use media to manipulate the views of the public.

The University of South Africa recently experienced an incident regarding fake news, when one of its staff members was reported to have been disseminating fake news on a website called Mzansistories.com. The staff member is under investigation for capitalizing on numerous fake stories, one being the story of a six-year-old girl being raped in the restrooms of a popular restaurant-Dros (Le Roux, 2018). Gumede (2017) also points out that fake news has become an

industry of its own and that it will not be possible to stop it. However, the best way to deal with fake news is for reliable news industries to set themselves apart from the fake news industries through increased vigilance. Conformity to media ethics and professional codes is of most importance in this regard which is why the present study seeks to investigate the extent as to how citizen journalism affects the ethics of professional journalism.

According to *The Citizen* (2018), most media firms have partnered with major technology and social media corporations to step up fact-checking as well as other actions to promote fact-based journalism. However, these actions have been slightly diminished by some of the attacks on media by the United States President Donald Trump and others who tend to label any unfavorable coverage as "fake news". The role of journalists as gatekeepers has been significantly challenged in the fast-moving age of the internet, where rumors and false information can become viral and sometimes with tragic results.

Citizen journalists who are mostly active on social networks have made things worse because the networks offer an easy alternative route for non-journalists to bypass the verification processes that professional journalists adhere to. Thus, anyone can publish anything, however biased, inaccurate or fabricated the content might be. I argue that this serves as one of the major ethical effects of citizen journalism on the profession of journalism. This is because social media has brought about ethical challenges which ultimately impacts on the decline of trust in the profession of journalism.

In the United States, there have been some hopeful signs for news media such as increased digital subscriptions for the New York Times and Washington Post. However, local newspapers are struggling with a shift to digital platforms (*The Citizen,* 2018). Moreover, with fake news had extending a global reach, so has fact-checking. Fact-checking has its own limitations and some people will continue to believe false information regardless of verification efforts.

Citizen journalism is undoubtedly a strong tool that ordinary citizens turn to in order to get some views and perspectives on issues. The greatest challenge that citizen journalism faces is that it is often, misconceived as fake news (Craigie-Williams, 2018). This is due to the fact that citizen journalism is not subjected to the same scrutiny as professional journalism. With professional journalism, it is often safe to assume that the information is verified, because

editors are known for checking and re-checking for factual accuracy. However, these rules do not apply to citizen journalism because there is no formal way to monitor, regulate and most importantly, there is no way to fact check. Basically, people are essentially free to publish what they want on social media and this is the problematic relationship between citizen journalism and fake news. The following subsection details the various principles of professional journalism.

2.5 Principles of Journalism

There are numerous universal practices and principles in journalism. According to Akinwale et al. (2017: 22), there are five well-known principles of professional journalism: fairness and impartiality, truth and accuracy, humanity, dependence, and lastly being accountability. Similarly, Ward (2011: 74) states that "journalists should be honest, fair, courageous in gathering, reporting and interpreting information" (2011: 74). Enoch provides a more detail account on the long-standing ethical principles as follows:

> (a) Honesty and fairness, (b) reply to critical opinions, (c) objectivity in reporting, (d) prohibition to receive gifts, (e) respect for privacy, (f) distinction between fact and opinion, (g) not to inflame hatred, (h) not to use dishonest means to obtain information (Enoch, 2008: 77).

The following section will elaborate on each principle and coincide them with citizen journalism. In chapter five, the study will refer back to this particular section as it will assist with the analysis of the study.

Honesty and fairness

A journalist's disinterested pursuit of truth is the first principle of journalism and it is what ultimately sets it apart from all form of communication (Ward, 2011). This means that journalists' first obligation is to the truth;- they should be exceedingly careful of what they say in such a manner that they do not mislead and deceive their audience and by so doing bring about injury to the community. Truth should be a journalist's first and last consideration always. The lack of a structured verification process in citizen journalism causes doubt in terms of the accuracy of its content.

Fidalgo (2013: 12) states that one of the attempts to ensure that citizen journalists commit to being honest and fair is implemented by Dan Gillmore, a leading theorist of the concept and movement of citizen journalism. Gillmore created a 'Citizen Journalist Pledge' for the contributors of his blog- 'Bayosphere', which urges citizen journalists to agree to be precise, complete, fair and transparent in their publications and to inform and produce news that explain the facts they present, as fairly and as openly as possible. A question that follows from this is: can this same pledge be applied to citizen journalism? If yes, how effective could it be, knowing that citizens cannot be forced to keep such a pledge?

Reply to critical opinions

Professional journalists are obligated to reply to critical opinions of the public as sometimes, it is the public's right to know about issues concerning them (Holton, et.al, 2015). Very often, journalists have a strong preference in what comments or opinions they feel free replying to. This leads to professional journalists being accused showing bias. It is because of this reason that citizen journalists resort to their own ways of gathering information on issues they consider important to them. In some cases, citizen journalists overstep their boundaries and invade the concerning individual or group's privacy in search of answers. At times the truth does emerge, however, sometimes, such ways of gathering information leads to more harm than good.

Objectivity in reporting

One of the important components of journalism is objectivity. Journalists believe in the virtues of remaining completely unbiased in covering the news, but they acknowledge that doing so is extremely hard and sometimes impossible (Singer, 2011). Very often objectivity is falsely understood to mean detachment and erecting walls around journalism. Objectivity does not mean a "determination to be unmoved by an event or its effects. Rather, objectivity refers to the practice of reporting news fairly and presenting facts regardless of the views and opinions of the journalist (Ward, 2011).

Loyalty is "not to an advertiser or an employer, not to the overall profession or to the individual story nor even to the sources of information leading to that story. The primary loyalty of any journalist is to the public" (Kuhn, 2007: 20). It is hard to say whether citizen journalism is objective since by definition it is considered as - ordinary people without journalistic training

using digital tools to publish or spread instant information on their own (Glaser, 2006). This implies a great deal of the absence of objectivity in the practices of citizen journalism as they always have their own agenda whilst professional journalists do not convey their own feelings, biases or prejudices into news stories. Rather, they always use neutral words (Barnes, 2012).

Prohibition to use gifts

According to Kuhn (2007), the professional journalistic function is not to search for any other form of financial reward except that of the journalist's salary along with the knowledge that a job is well done and as a service to society. (2010) further elaborates on what is meant by the above statement; he defines 'Brown envelope journalism' (BEJ) as:

> Cash secretly given to a journalist on a reporting mission- but the review also
> includes other types of journalistic incentives such as meals and free ticket
> (freebies), and to some extent, institutional corruption (Brown, 2010: 367).

In other words, BEJ is a practice in which journalists receive monetary incentives to write a positive story or kill a negative story. This is an example of indisputable corruption in which the source tries to manipulate journalistic independence. Here, an informal contract is stipulated between the source and the reporter. The source will have some expectations that may vary from time to time. The term 'brown envelope journalism' is derived from cash incentives hidden in brown envelopes and given to journalists during press meetings.

Respect for privacy

Professional journalists have a duty to respect the privacy of their subjects but in this day and age privacy is not what it used to be (Barnes, 2012). People, with the use of social networks, jeopardize their own privacy through sharing so much of what they do and where they are on websites such as Facebook. With the emergence of social media, what was once an inaccessible conversation among groups of people can now be accessible to journalists, or to anyone (Farooq, 2015). Farooq further writes that to some professional journalists, anything ordinary people share publicly, including social media, is, just as anything that occurs in a public space. For some professional journalists, what is public and what should be published

are two different things and the act of publishing, is an intentional act that should be treated with care (Barnes, 2012).

Distinction between fact and opinion

"Facts are sacred, comments are free. Facts must not be tampered with; news must be reported with complete objectivity, without any distortion. A journalist should not mix news with personal views and must be careful enough to clearly distinguish between the two" – as said by the editor of the Manchester Guardian (Shamsi, 2005: 49). This means that professional journalists are trained to differentiate between facts and opinions and thus the main priority of a professional journalists is to report news content that is based on facts and not opinions. Furthermore, according to Barnes (2012), it is difficult to differentiate content from professional journalists and content from citizen journalists. However, those who take the time "to do any kind of analysis of blogs and websites will concur that the major difference between the two concepts under discussion is interactivity" (Barnes, 2012:18). This means that with traditional journalism, news can be controlled, while with social networks it is a free for everyone. Citizen journalism has no responsibility or accountability, people write from their own experiences.

Not to inflame hatred

Professional journalists are obligated to report news that is not offensive to the general public (Enoch, 2008). In other words, professional journalists must report news from a neutral standpoint and exclude their emotions whenever they report news that they do not necessarily agree with. Concerning citizen journalism, there is a high risk that their news content might inflame hatred based on the notion that it is a platform to voice out and express opinions. Citizen journalists write on whatever issue they see important. They take with them an original and unfiltered aspect that is not found in professional journalism. They are not able to stand back from an issue and report the facts objectively (Barnes, 2012: 18). This means that they report issues with emotion, including anger which can inflame the emotions of their readers. Ultimately, ordinary citizens can "do more harm than good to society if they are allowed to publish their thought, opinions and ideas and these are passed off as journalism in the traditional sense of the world" (Barnes, 2012: 18).

Not to use dishonest means to obtain information

The media must inform the news truthfully, accurately and fairly (Press Council, 2016). This means that it is a journalist's duty to ensure that whatever information they receive should be gathered in an honest and ethical manner. The Murdoch scandal in England is an example where professional journalists were caught engaging in unethical news reporting. Here, a 168 years old news production company- the News of the World Newspaper, closed down in 2018 due to an accusation that its employees were engaging in immoral acts in pursuit of stories including police bribery and phone hacking (Cowell, 2012). Another example of an incidence concerning the same company occurred when the company employees were reported to have used illegal methods such as hacking the phones of the royal family to get information about the Queen of England, Queen Elizabeth the second (Cowell, 2012).

Furthermore, Ward (2011: 74) states that there are two principles that are essential in journalism, namely; the "pursuit of truth and striving to be objective in the pursuit of that truth". Ward argues that the truth should serve as a goal of inquiry or as an ideal. In journalism, truth-seeking is the gathering of information and sifting through conflicting claims in the making of a story. The considerations of facts, methods and evidence is of great importance. The pursuit of truth includes truth-telling which is what follows after truth-seeking. Truth-telling is regarded as the way in which journalists present and publish their stories (Ward, 2008).

With regards to striving to be objective, Ward (2015: 127) pointed out that traditionally, news objectivity "required a precisely impartial reporting of "just the facts". Furthermore, there are two senses of objectivity that have dominated the Western culture: ontological and epistemological. Anything close to a realistic theory of truth is known as 'ontological'. Epistemological on the other hand, focuses on the processes of seeking the truth and how one should seek it. According to Hong (2014), professional journalists adopt objectivity as a way of declaring sovereignty and presenting their work as impartial, therefore making their work true, balanced and credible. Also, Holton et.al (2015: 733) agreed that "journalists have consistently valued accuracy, autonomy and objectivity".

More importantly, professional journalism is said to serve the role of a "fourth estate", acting as a custodian on the operations taking place in government (Dabbous, 2010). Fourth-estate

refers to the acknowledgement that the press or news media has significant indirect social influence on a society, especially on the political matters of a state (Malherbe, 2015). Journalists are vigilant watchdogs who keep their focus on observing those who hold political or corporate power. If it were not for their work, reliable and impartial information would not exist, including public debate on issues. Over the years, objectivity had been referred to as "the emblem" or "cornerstone principle" which is one of the identifying features of professional journalism (Lee, 2014: 25).

Objectivity is a norm that is still valued as a journalism standard but with citizen journalism on the rise, online journalists seem to be abandoning the fundamental principles of journalism towards a new paradigm of public engagement (Hamada, 2018). For many years, professional journalists have been fundamentally identified by their chief values that revolve around public service and playing the role of watching over powerful institutions and contributing towards informing society (Holton et.al, 2014).

As pointed out, the professional role of a journalist is to provide news that is objective and accurate and without distortion or manipulation. However, in some cases the authenticity of professional journalism is questioned. An example of such a case would be the issue of what is called 'brown-envelope journalism'. According to Skjerdal (2010: 396), brown-envelope journalism is the term used to describe the "activity which involves transfer of various types of rewards from sources to the reporter". For example, in South Africa, a former Cape Angus journalist, Ashley Smith once confessed to accepting money in return for writing articles that were in favour of former Western Cape Premier, Ebrahim Rasool, against his rivals in 2010. When allegations were made against Smith, he submitted an affidavit to the National Prosecuting Authority in exchange for indemnity against any possible criminal charges. Under oath, Smith stated that the assistance he gave to Rasool and his allies through his articles was not related to matters of interest to the provincial government but to the political survival of Rasool within the African National Congress (ANC) (Williams, 2010).

However, as a disadvantage, journalists all across the globe have sometimes experienced difficulty of obtaining objectivity. According to Dabbous (2010), critics of professional journalism became more popular during the last decade of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century. Critics reflected on journalism as a profession stating that

in some countries, news reporting is not fully independent instead it is controlled by government intervention (Cheney, 2017).

Where the news media appears to be independent of the government, it operates as a private industry which is mainly motivated by profit thus making them susceptible to bias (Skjerdal, 2010). It is this very argument that the study aims to explore in order to provide information as to why the public has resorted to the use of social media in order to tell their stories as well as advocate for any social injustices as will be later reflected in the case of the #FeesMustFall movement. On the other hand, those who are not well equipped as to how social media operates, such as the miners that participated in the Marikana protests, prefer to not involve professional journalists at all as it will be shown later.

In some cases, publishers and corporate executives manipulate the manner of reporting news by using the powers they have over the journalists (Riaz, 2011: 109). Governments have numerous policies that dictate to journalists on what they can write and publish. In some nations such Finland, Denmark, Netherlands, and New Zealand, government guarantees freedom of the press while in other nations, journalists are severely restricted on what they can publish. For example, in South Africa, the traditional newspaper industry was accused of either passively or actively conspiring with the government under the apartheid era (Lloyd, 2013). The state was in control of the national broadcaster, the South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC), and operating it as a propaganda arm of the government (Lloyd, 2013). However, the status quo was challenged in the 1980s through the launch of a number of anti-apartheid newspapers funded by foreign countries. Thus, alternative or anti-apartheid press were formed by professional journalists who were infuriated by the traditional media for not fully reporting on the brutality of apartheid (Lloyd, 2013: 12).

According to John Idumange (2013), professional journalists were once determined to hold back from engaging with social media. This is because the level of mistrust and skepticism about social media was once very high. However, in the present day, social media cannot be ignored as a crucial tool for reporting news. If social media platforms are being read as news, it means that social media users have become journalists (Burkholder, 2009). Therefore, should they be required to abide by a code of ethics that is similar to traditional or professional journalists? This idea was once considered outrageous since social media is a noncomforming

(Burkholder, 2009). However, because of the increased social, political impacts and greater participation of social media, the call for a code of ethics is much more feasible.

I argue that with the transition that we witness in journalism today, extra precaution needs to be taken in order to preserve the profession of journalism in terms of being a source for accurate and impartial news content. Some scholars have attempted to provide such an effort of how this may be done. John Idumange suggested ten best principles of social media practice that professional journalists should adhere to when engaging with people online:

> (1)Traditional ethics rules still apply to the social media, (2) Assume everything you write online will become public, (3) Use social media to engage with readers, but professionally, (4) Break news on your website, not on Twitter, (5) Beware of perceptions, (6) Independently authenticate anything found on a social networking site, (7) Always identify yourself as a journalist, (8) Social networks are tools not toys, (9) Be transparent and admit when you are wrong online, (10) Keep internal deliberations confidential (Idumange, 2013: 3).

The above-mentioned rules or principles clearly state that the traditional ethics within professional journalism should not be compromised as the professional journalists become more accommodative of technological advancements. Rather, these principles can serve as guidelines for the regulation of citizen journalism. The following subsection presents the policies found in professional journalism.

2.6 Policies and regulations found in professional journalism

The enduring issue regarding policies and regulations in professional journalism is that the profession does not have a universally agreed upon system of regulation or policy. This means that professional journalists across the globe, are not legally obliged to follow a certain set of rules as we see in professions such as lawyers and doctors (Ward, 2011).

Spinello and Tavan define policies as follows:

> Rules of conduct ranging from formal laws to informal, implicit guidelines for action. Policies recommend kinds of actions that are sometimes

34

contingent upon different situations. Policies have the right level of generality to consider in assessing the morality of conduct. The word "policy" is intended to suggest both that there can be justified exemptions (policies are not absolute rules) and a level of obligation (policies are not mere suggestions) (Spinello and Tavani, 2001: 98).

The above quote demonstrates that policies can either be formal or informal, depending on different situations. Policies can be seen as guidelines and a form of assessment of the morality of an action. Mohamad Chehab (2017: 5) suggests the following definition of policy: "Policy is a law, regulation, procedure, administrative action, incentive, or voluntary practice of governments and other institution". This definition clarifies that a policy is a plan or course of action that is voluntary adopted by an individual, government or institution. According to Spinello and Tavani (2001), a policy is adopted as a way of setting expectations as well as maintaining a level of accountability between the stakeholders.

The study uses The Society of Professional Journalists (SPJ) Code of Ethics as a reference point throughout its discussions. The SPJ Code of Ethics is one of the earliest attempts that were made in pursuit of the regulation of journalism (Ward, 2011). The SPJ Code of Ethics was founded in 1909 at DePauw University in Greencastle, Indiana (Meyer, 2011). The Code of Ethics is made up of professional journalists that are dedicated to preserving a free press.

According Ward (2011), the SPJ Code of Ethics' main mission includes the promotion of a free flow of information, to protect the freedom of speech and of the press. Furthermore, the Code's mission is to stimulate high standards and ethical behaviour in the practice of journalism which ultimately leads to excellence among journalists. It is important to note that the SPJ Code of Ethics is not a set of rules, rather a guide that encourages all who engage in journalism to take responsibility for information they provide. After months of study and debate, the SPJ Code of Ethics was adopted by the South African National Convention in 1996 (Meyer, 2011). The code is applied in classrooms and newsrooms as a benchmark for behaving ethically. Mainly, the code is used as a point of reference for consultation when attempting to make an ethical decision on how to act (Ward, 2011). Thus, the study will later encorporate the SPJ Code of Ethics in order to gain a clear understanding on the underlying ethics of professional journalism. Furthermore, the study will aslo refer back to SPJ Code of Ethics in its analysis chapter.

The advancements in technology have always had an effect on the practice of professional journalism (Hong, 2014). This means that as technology becomes more and more advanced, the traditional practice of journalism transitions to embrace these advancements. As mentioned before, producers and consumers of news content use social media such as blogging as a form of journalism (Hamada, 2018; Baruah, 2012). The following is one of the earliest codes for bloggers by Rebecca Blood. The code was published in the Weblog Handbook in 2002 and reads as follows:

1. Publish as fact only that which you believe to be true. If your statement is speculation, say so.

2. If material exists online, link to it when you reference it. Linking to referenced material allows readers to judge for themselves the accuracy and insightfulness of your statements.

3. Publicly correct any misinformation.

4. Write each entry as if it could not be changed; add to, but do not rewrite or delete, any entry.

5. Disclose any conflict of interest.

6. Note questionable and biased sources.

(Burkholder, 2009).

Shortly afterwards, Jonathan Dube, an editorial director for Canadian Broadcasting Corporation (CBC) also created a blogger code of ethics. Jonathan Dube is also an award-winning print journalist who invented cyberjournalist.net (Burkholder, 2009). Cyberjournalist.com is a news and media website about how technology is transforming journalism. The principles in Dube's blogger code of ethics were adopted from the code of ethics used by the Society of Professional Journalists with its principles of fairness, accountability and the minimization of harm. Before going into detail regarding the SPJ Code of Ethics, the study will present a brief background of the policies and regulations in South Africa.

According to McChesney (2012), journalism refers to the production and distribution of reports on recent event. Furthermore, journalistic media includes newspapers, radio, television, and the

internet. For the purpose of this study, journalism will be refered to as 'the media'. Subsequently, in August 2007, the administrative system of accountability for journalistic ethics in South Africa, the Press Council of South Africa (PCSA) was launched (Lowen, 2007). According to Lowen (2007:1), the then mission of the PCSA was stated as: "a media regulatory body aimed at ensuring adherence to high standards in newspaper journalism". Since then, the primary aim and objective of the Council has been stated as follows: "to promote and to develop ethical practice in journalism and to promote the adoption of adherence to those standards by the South African print and online media" (Reid and Isaacs, 2015).

Ever since its formation in 2007, the PCSA has always been placed under scrutiny by the ANC, more especially since 2010 (Reid and Isaacs, 2015). The following is a short summary of how the Council has progressed over the years: From late 2010 to mid 2011, a "revised press code, constitution and complaints procedure were adopted" (Reid and Isaacs, 2015: 6). Following this internal review, the Print and Digital Media South Africa (PDMSA) and the South African National Edistors Forum (Sanef) which are the two media representative bodies, established the Press Freedom Commisssion (PFC) in July 2011. Moreover, the Press Freedom Commission comprises of nine independent commissioners from outside the media industry. The commission is chaired by former Chief Justice, Pius Langa (Reid and Isaacs, 2015). Furthermore, Langa performed an assessment of the system of press regulation until April 2012. The PFC released its final report presenting its recommendations for the revision of the press regulatory sytem. Again, in October 2012, the PCSA released another report, where it presented the new press code, complaints procedure and constitution. This was done after incorporating selected recommendations of the PFC (Reid and Isaac, 2015).

The fundamental alteration to the press regulatory system was that after the reviews, the press accountability mechanism moved from being classified as self-regulatory, to a sysytem of independent co-regulation. This means that the system of regulation included both the public and press participation. Furthermore, greater emphasis is put on public membership with an exclusion of the government (Reid and Isaac, 2015).

According to Joe Thloloe (2018), the PCSA has participated actively in the lawmaking process. This includes its numerous presentations to the Parliament and other organs of government as well as working alongside the South African National Editors' Forum. However, the PCSA

does not incorporate a vigorous approach to the current media system (Thloloe, 2018). Furthermore, Thloloe (2018) states that instead of the PCSA focusing on the collectivity of media regulation, including a vast range of the principles and ethics of media, the PCSA seems to place greater emphasis on the 'accountability'section of media regulation. Thus, as it currently stands, it cannot be used as a long-standing media regulation system.

In 2012, South Africa called for a full policy review of the communications environment. The Department of Communications did this with the purpose of putting in place a national integrated Information and Communication Technology (ICT) policy (Seery and Seeber, 2012). Most recently, the ITC policy has been structured into a programme which increases pro-diversity and popular access to media, broadcasting and telecommunications in South Africa (Freedom of Expression Institute, 2019). Furthermore, a critical component of this programme is dedicated to advocate for enhanced public broadcasting, support for community journalism as well as social media. The programme aims to extend and expand platforms for greater public freedom of expression and engagement. Also, the programme contributes to efforts dedicated to promoting relevant and progressive communication through legislative and policy development within South Africa.

The above subsection has shown that even though the profession of journalism does not have a universal law or policy, there are however, commonly agreed-upon values and ethics which guide and inform policies concerning professional journalism. These policies also show great consideration for the transforming nature of journalism in South Africa. The following subsection elaborates on the ethics in journalism.

2.8   Ethics and journalism

It is, first of all, important to define what ethics is before continuing to ethics in journalism. Ethics, according to Ward (2011: 13), is from the Greek word "ethos" which means "character", "nature" or "disposition", that is to say how someone is disposed to act. Ward continues to state that "something is considered "ethical" because it raises questions about the correct thing to do, apart from self-interest and what is required legally".

Singer offers the following definition for ethics: "We understand ethics as the liberal arts discipline that appraises voluntary human conduct insofar it can be judged right or wrong in

reference to determinative principles" (Singer, 2011: 220). Ethics is individualistic as it requires individuals to adopt certain values as part of their personality. This includes using certain norms to help them in situations of decision-making. Ethics is also social because it is not about every individual creating their own guidelines of behaviour apart from others. The proper behaviour is one that honours rules of honest communal interconnection, including rules that apply to humans in general (Ward, 2011).

Media ethics is a subdivision of applied ethics which deals specifically with the ethical principles and standards of journalism. This includes broadcast media, film, theatre, print media, the arts and the internet (Froehlich, 2004). Media ethics is concerned with encouraging and guarding values such as the universal regard for life and the stipulation of legislation and legality (Dugan, 2007: 806). In news coverage in particular, journalism ethics includes such principles as impartiality, objectivity, freedom of speech, privacy as well as seeking the public interest.

Journalism ethics on the other hand, is a distinct subfield of media ethics in that it addresses behaviour (Ward, 2010). The "major task of journalism ethics is to determine how existing norms apply to the main ethical issues of the day" (Ward, 2011: 58). Main issues concerning journalism ethics are accuracy and verification, deception and fabrication, graphic images as well as image manipulation. The study will employ both media ethics and journalism ethics in

According to Ward (2011), there are over 242 codes of ethics in journalism that differ from country to country. Spinello and Tavani (2001) argue that ethical issues surfacing online are not so different from ethical issues offline. Therefore, it makes sense for most plausible norms of conduct online to be the same as norms of conduct offline. Having this in mind, the study will discuss the key objectives of the SPJ Code of Ethics and further elaborate on the ethics under each objective. This is done to provide a framework of the ethical factors and effects that the study will later use to evaluate the role that the professional and citizen journalists played in the reporting of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement.

The SPJ Code of Ethics describes the kind of values and ethics that inform the profession of journalism, particularly in South Africa (SPJ, 2014). The SPJ Code of Ethics has two proactive objectives:

"Seek truth and report it" and "act independently". There are two restraining principles: "minimize harm" and "be accountable". These are the most general principles possible and they will have to be interpreted and applied to cases, under the objective stance (Ward, 2011: 73).

In the first objective, "seek truth and report it", the Code illustrates how the public expects professional journalists to be honest, fair and courageous in gathering, reporting and interpreting information (SPJ, 2014). Following this statement, here are a few guidelines on how journalists can achieve this objective: journalists should test the accuracy of information from all sources and exercise care to avoid inadvertent error. Deliberate distortion is never permissible.

Another way could be to identify sources whenever feasible. This is because the public is entitled to as much information as possible on the reliability of the sources. Journalists should also make sure that headlines, photos, audios and videos do not misrepresent (SPJ, 2014). They should not highlight or oversimplify incidents out of context. Journalists need to avoid undercover or secretive methods of gathering information unless traditional open methods fail to yield information which is vital to the public. Journalists must also avoid stereotyping by gender, age, race, religion, disability and social status. Lastly, journalists should give voice to the voiceless as well as official and unofficial sources of information equally (SPJ, 2014).

The second objective is "act independently". Here, objectives should be free of obligation to any interest other that the public's right to know. Therefore, journalists should be vigilant and courageous about holding those with power accountable (SPJ, 2014). The third objective is to "minimize harm". This objective requires journalists to show compassion for those who may be affected adversely by news coverage. Journalists should be sensitive when seeking or using interviews or photographs of those affected by tragedy or grief. The last objective of the SPJ Code of Ethics is "be accountable". According to this objective, journalists are accountable to the readers, viewers, listeners and each other. Thus, journalists should clarify and explain news coverage and invite dialogue with the public over journalistic conduct (SPJ, 2014). Lastly, journalists should encourage the pubic to voice grievances against the news media.

According to Herman Wassermen (2014), South Africa's media ethics consists of a more self-regulatory system. This means that participants of media, be it professional or non-professional, are guided by a system of conscious personal management which involves the process of an individual guiding their own thoughts, behaviours and feelings in order to reach goals (Baumeister, Schmeichel and Vohs, 2007). Furthermore, this system has been set up in alignment with the democratic values of transparency and accountability. However, in substantive terms, there is still much contestation, negotiation and disagreement regarding what the role of media or journalism in contemporary South Africa should look like and how it should contribute to the deepening of democracy as well as how it should contribute towards overcoming the continuous marginalisation of communities in South Africa.

In response, Gerald Davis (2013) states that the simple reality is that the internet and the emerging digital media has massive potential, but unless we deliberately set about ensuring that these tools work for democracy, it will simply reinforce the same power dynamics and anti-democratic tendencies of the Apartheid era. In addition, with the continued awareness of ethics in media, Africa has resulted in self-regulation institutions of media. An example of such an institution would be the Media Institute of Southern Africa (MISA) which is noticeable in various countries including Swaziland, Zimbabwe, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia, and Botswana.

MISA is an institute that advocates for the unhindered endowment of freedom of expression, access to information and a free, diverse and independent media (MISA, 2016). MISA has an initiative whereby; annual awards are given out as a forum of promoting ethical media standards. The most widespread self-regulation systems of media in South Africa are the Broadcasting Complaints Commission and the Broadcast Monitoring Complaints Commission (Berger, 2009).

Despite the above-mentioned institutions, Hilda Mupfurutsa (1999) renders that in Africa, the commonly stipulated values of journalism are ineffective and obsolete. He suggests a development and adoption of an African ethic that is useful to African journalism. Shayne Bowman (2003), likewise, suggests a different kind of journalism built on an indigenous ethical standard that will consider the diverse elements that make the execution of Western ethical standards an unrealistic hope or wish that cannot be achieved. Hence, Terje Skjerdal proposed

"Afriethics" for journalists in Africa; "comprising an ethical system which is essentially communal-oriented in contrast to the supposedly individualistic-minded professional norms of the North" (Skjerdal, 2010: 390). This suggests that even though there are institutions that are concerned about the ethics in journalism, the values and ethics that we see today do not fundamentally reflect the African culture.

2.9 The gap in the literature

The literature reviewed above point out that the rise of social media has indeed presented challenges to the ethics of journalism. The major challenges to this alteration of the nature of professional journalism are the implications that citizen journalism have on the identity of the profession of journalism, especially its ethics. Additionally, other scholars, including, Clifford Christian, Kim Rotzoll and Mark Fackler (2001) believe that there is a scarcity of literature dealing with the ethics in journalism specifically, online journalism. The study's view is that existing literature focuses predominantly on the ways that technological advancements have changed the profession of journalism over the years with little emphasis on how the extensive growth and spread of citizen journalism affects the ethics of professional journalism. Thus, through the analysis of the impact of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall Movement on the practice of professional journalism in South Africa, the study aims to address this gap by exploring the effects of citizen journalism on the ethics of journalism.

2.10 Conclusion

The chapter has presented an overview of the nature of journalism. It has given a general background information on the evolution of professional journalism, including the emergence of the internet and how it has led to the emergence of citizen journalism. The chapter has also examined the principles of professional journalism as well as the policies and ethics found in journalism. What is clear from this chapter is that citizen journalism, through social media is deteriorating the ethical practices of the profession of journalism. This is evident in the review above, that there is no definite system that guarantees that the traditional principles and ethics of journalism can be properly applied to citizen journalism. The next chapter presents the methodology of the study.

<center>**Chapter Three**</center>

<center>**Theoretical Framework**</center>

3.1   Introduction

The current chapter discusses the theoretical framework of the study. The study uses the ethical theory of consequentialism as its theoretical framework. The first section consists of the definition and meaning of the ethical theory of consequentialism. The second section consists of the different approaches of consequentialism including, utilitarianism, ethical egoism, ethical altruism, and rule consequentialism. The fourth section discusses the strengths and limitations of the chosen theoretical framework. The last section presents how the theory is going to guide the study.

3.2   The ethical theory of consequentialism

The study intends to offer an ethical critique of the effects of citizen journalism on the profession of journalism. In doing so, the study explore and explains events of the two cases by looking at the consequences of the actions and activities that took place as ordinary citizens transition from news and information consumers into both consumers as well as producers of news content. Consequently, the following section discusses the ethical theory of consequentialism, its relevance to the study as well as its strengths and limitations.

3.3   Definition and meaning of consequentialism

Consequentialism, also known as 'result-based ethics' is an ethical theory that is based on two principles. The first principle states that "whether an act is right or wrong depends only on the result of that act" (McNaughton, 2011: 17). The second principle identified by David McNaughton states that "the more good consequences an act produces, the better or more right that act" (McNaughton, 2011). This means that consequentialism is an ethical theory that assesses the rightness or wrongness of actions according to their consequences. Consequentialism is an example of a teleological theory. The name "teleology" originates from the Greek word "telos" which means "an end". Therefore, teleological theories state that

decisions which influence actions have to be formed on the basis of an evaluation of a corresponding outcome (Baumane-Vitolina, Cals and Sumilo, 2016: 111).

Robert Audi expands on the above definition, stating that according to the theory of consequentialism, "an act is morally right if and only if it produces at least as much good (utility) for all people affected by the action as any alternative action the person could do instead" (Audi, 1995: 824). In this regard, "no act is to be judged as good or bad in itself but its wrongness or goodness is dependent on the consequences of the action" (Brown, 1995: 41). Lars Bergstrőm (1996: 76) notes that "since consequentialism stresses the way people are affected by our actions, what matters is the welfare or the preferences of everyone to whom our actions make a difference".

Similarly, consequentialism has also been defined as a moral theory that states the following: "an action is morally right if and only if it produces at least as much good (utility) for all people affected by the action" (Barnes, 2012: 21). This means that the right act in any situation is the act with the best consequences. Since this study is concerned with the ethical effects of citizen journalism on the profession of journalism, the ethical theory of consequentialism is the appropriate ethic to assess the implications of the coverage on the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement.

3.4   Approaches of the ethical theory of consequentialism

The theory of consequentialism takes different forms and approaches, each pioneered by certain individuals namely: Jeremy Bentham, John Stuart Mill, Henry Sidgwick, Auguste Comte and Peter Singer amongst others. Jeremy Bentham and John Stuart Mill are well-known for their utilitarian version of consequentialism. Jeremy Bentham, the famous philosopher of the eighteenth century is believed to be the developer of utilitarianism, which is one of the most common forms of consequentialism. The theory was further elaborated by John Stuart Mill, a popular philosopher of the nineteenth century (Deen, 2011).

3.4.1 Utilitarianism

The simplest and popular form of consequentialism is classical utilitarianism. Utilitarianism holds that "the greatest happiness of the greatest number is the foundation of morality and

legislation" (Alexander 2000: 899). This conveys that the ethically right decision to make in a given situation is one that will induce most happiness and reduce unhappiness for the largest number of people. Jeremy Bentham developed the principle of utilitarianism primarily from a hedonistic viewpoint, stating that what is most valuable to humans is happiness. Therefore, what mostly motivates us is experiencing pleasure and less pain (Alexander, 2000).

Bentham further argued that individuals are driven by their fears as well as their interests. Their interests, however, take priority over their fears and their interests are carried out according to how people perceive the outcomes that might affect their interests (Alexander, 2000). Therefore, utilitarianism is a form of consequentialism which examines an act by asking if the outcome of an act leads to happiness or pleasure.

John Stuart Mill expanded on the theory of utilitarianism, stating that Bentham's definition is too narrow (Burkholder, 2009). Mill coined this expansion 'hedonistic utilitarianism'. His aim was to provide modifications to utilitarianism which were aimed at discerning other conditions that are worthwhile in human existence. For instance, Mill advocated a hierarchy of pleasures which places certain kinds of pleasures above other pleasures. Moreover, he sought to show that utilitarianism is compatible with moral rules and principle relating to honesty, truthfulness and justice (Alexander, 2006; Burkholder, 2009). In relation to the current study, almost all journalistic organisations around the world use utilitarian principles as basis for their objectives. This is because the principle explicitly states that the general public is of greatest important. Therefore, professional journalists are fully mindful of the consequences of their work, which is to produce content that is fair and transparent. Professional journalists are also fully aware of the harmful effects that certain information can produce.

3.4.2 Ethical egoism

Another form of consequentialism is ethical egoism pioneered by Henry Sidgwick states that as long as the action is good to the person who carries out the action, the act is right (Kernohan, 2012). Andrew Kernohan states further that egoism supposes that the only obligation is to cause the best consequence for oneself. This means that the consequences for the individual agent are taken into consideration more than any other result. Moreover, Jeffrey Haigh, Scott Wood and Andrew Stewart (2016: 76), write that egoism prescribes "actions that may be beneficial,

detrimental or neutral to the welfare of others". Haigh et al., 2016 argue that considering that egoism holds that morality rests on self-interest, it has the potential to develop the general welfare of a society because people have an idea of what actions could yield the best consequences for themselves.

3.4.3 Ethical altruism

Ethical altruism is a form of consequentialism advocated by Auguste Comte which states that as long as the action is good to everyone else, the act is right (Scheffler, 1988). It is an ethic that prescribes that individuals take actions that have the best consequences, excluding their own interests (Von der Pfordten, 2012). On this notion, Comte summed up the phrase "Live for others" which means that individuals have a moral responsibility to serve, benefit or help others, if need be, at the sacrifice of self-interest. Additionally, Dietmar von der Pfordten (2012) declares ethical altruism as a principle of unselfish concern for the welfare of others.

In essence, ethical egoism and ethical altruism oppose one another as the former suggests that one ought to do what is in their own self-interest, while the latter holds that one has an obligation to help others. I argue that most of the challenges that arise from citizen journalism could be attributed to negative account of ethical egoism because the general public often act in their own narrow self-interest and disregard the effects of their own actions on others, in this case, professional journalists.

Hamada (2018) expresses that citizen journalists can be considered to be in competition with professional journalism in terms of both being in pursuit of increasing the number of readership or 'followership' online. This ultimately leads to higher level of news manipulation. This is mostly done to serve the financial and political interests of the employer of the professional journalist. Hence, the "downwarding and devaluing of editorial functions in some cases and creeping corruption are deeply worrying tendencies" (Enoch, 2008: 75). On the other hand, citizen journalists who uphold positive values of ethical egoism, inherently, uphold virtues of reason, justice, honesty and integrity (Singer, 2008). This means that the individual is fully aware of their actions through social media and applies self-regulation.

Ethical altruism would point out to the profession of journalism, whereby journalists are guided by certain codes of ethics as their moral rules of how they should report the news. One of these

rules is to serve the general public by distributing news that are true and can be accounted for. When professional journalists properly follow these rules, their actions ultimately have the best consequences. In contrast, citizen journalists who consider themselves activists, follow the ethical practices of professional journalists whose number one priority is to produce news that is objective.

3.4.4 Rule Consequentialism

The last form of consequentialism that the study explores is Rule Consequentialism. Rule Consequentialism states that acts are deemed good or bad depending on the moral rules. These moral rules are chosen based on their consequences. This means that when an individual makes a moral choice, they need to ask themselves if there is a proper, suitable rule to apply. The rules that generate the best outcomes and the rules that can be easily adopted by most people should be the ones that are applied (Riaz, 2011).

Rule consequentialism holds that "an act is right if and only if it results from the internalisation of a set of rules that would maximise good if the overwhelming majority of agents internalised this set of rules" (Hooker, 2003). For journalism, this appeals to the different policies or codes that have been formulated such as the SPJ Code of Ethics. These policies are formulated with the idea that if most professional journalists adopt these rules then the profession of journalism would not come into disrepute. On the other hand, I argue that citizen journalists should become more aware of means to achieving proper self-regulation and apply it whenever they interact online.

Having discussed the different approaches of the ethical theory of consequentialism and how these inform the study, the next sub-section presents the strengths of consequentialism.

3.5 The strengths of the ethical theory of consequentialism

Consequentialism uniquely possesses certain advantages. According to Anne Stubbs (1981), only consequentialism renders a rational method of moral assessments. This means that if a person asks questions such as: What are the consequences of my actions? Then that person is considering the moral issue in a rational manner. Consequentialism, especially utilitarianism, distinctively gives us a systematic way to justify the acceptance or objection of actions.

Consequentialism alone, provides us with a standard of assessment which is external to subjective feelings (Stubbs, 1981). Thus, our judgement is rational. This means that consequentialism is supported by reasons that have to do with facts about consequences and not an appeal to 'inner sentiments'- which may differ from one person to another or from time to time. This also makes our judgement objective.

Furthermore, consequentialism puts forward a single standard. For instance, the utility principle needs to be applied in all cases of moral decisions, either from an agent or spectator. Stubbs states the following:

> Even where secondary rules are admitted, the ultimate justification
> for any moral judgement or decision will be in terms of this standard:
> we thus have a moral monism; every wrong action will be wrong for
> the same reason and every right action will be right for the same
> reason (Stubbs, 1981: 173).

Richard Holton (2015) described consequentialism as consisting of different forms and approaches in an attempt to defend its tenet thus making a flexible theory with a significant level of internal pluralism. Further, its shape-shifting tactics have made it difficult to breach the defenses of consequentialism. Hence, this could be the source of its continued resilience. Holton (2015) adds that consequentialism often receives preference because it is mainly concerned with making the world a better place as it requires the production of the best overall state of affairs. As such, we are morally obligated to improve society and make it better whenever we can. As long as the consequences of an action promote good and make the world better, then such actions are morally right and such should be embraced.

One of the most persuasive defenses of consequentialism is that it is embedded in other ethical theories. For instance, if one was to consider virtue in deciding whether an action is morally right, how would one decide in any given case which of the actions available to him or her are for example, brave, kind or wise thing to do unless he or she pays some attention to the consequences of what they do? (Holland, 2014: 109). Crystal Lombardo (2015) also confirms that consequentialism particularly, utilitarianism, stimulates a happier world because it promotes the happiness of the majority at all time. Thus, this approach can be of use because it

makes people think about the consequences of their actions (Barrat and Berger, 2007). As long as the consequences of an action promote pleasure and make the world better, then such actions are morally right and should be embraced.

Lombardo (2015) also adds that utilitarianism has a strong sense of purpose. For instance, when a person looks at every decision they make through a utilitarian view, every decision becomes important because others have to think of the things they do in a broader picture which affects more than just themselves. Furthermore, he states that in life, we are often faced with difficult choices. Our choices are mostly preceded by our emotions and desires. However, utilitarianism assists us making logical and rational choices.

Lastly, Lombardo (2015) argues that humans are 'pleasure-pain creatures'. From a young age, humans are conditioned to like or fear things by the feelings that they cause in or on us. For example, when you burn yourself, you feel pain thus you learn that hot things are bad. Similarly, when you laugh, you feel a sense of happiness, so you learn that funny things are good. Therefore, utilitarianism simply expresses the basic human functions which makes this theory easy to apply in everyday situations. Although the theory of consequentialism comprises of various strengths, any theory is susceptible to criticism, misunderstanding and misuses.

With regards to journalism, ethics play a vital role in the profession as they create guidelines for journalists to follow (Howell, 2014). Ethics entail what is right, responsible, just, impartial and fair (Shodhganga, 2015: 73). Ethics in journalism involve; fairness, objectivity, truth and accountability as the key components of responsible journalistic practice. Furthermore, the ethical theory of consequentialism is applicable to journalism as it considers the advancement of the society at large. According to consequentialism, what is ethical is that which creates the greatest good for the largest number of people (Shodhganga, 2015: 73).

Therefore, consequentialism encourages thoughtful and responsible behavior. In this case, citizen journalists seem to be deteriorating these fundamental ethical principles of the profession of journalism as it drives an environment where speed overrides quality of news content. Hence, this theory is important in evaluating the ethical effects of citizen journalism on the profession of journalism. I maintain that although one cannot always be accurate, it is

reasonable and advisable to invest time in assessing all the possible outcomes of an action. In this situation, this would be required of the citizen journalists.

Despite its strengths, there are many arguments against consequentialism. Thus, the next section looks at some of the weaknesses and limitations of the ethical theory of consequentialism that have been identified by scholars.

3.6 Limitations of consequentialism

Based on the claim commonly summed up in the following slogan; an act is right if and only if it causes "the greatest happiness for the greatest number", consequentialism is critiqued on the basis that the above maxim is misleading because it is possible for an act to promote satisfaction for the majority of people yet still fail to maximize the overall good in the world if the minority of people whose happiness is not increased, lose much more than the greater number of gains (Holland, 2014). Another main problem with consequentialism is that it has the potential to justify clearly immoral actions as moral simply because it appears to be fruitful for the greatest number of people.

According to Peter Singer (2011) and Charles Ess (2009), consequentialism is often challenged because it is hard and sometimes impossible to know beforehand what the outcome of an action will be. Also, it is hard to compare and measure "happiness". How does one differentiate between happiness that will only last few minutes with happiness that will last over a number of years? How far into the future must we consider? And what if everything cannot be measured solely in terms of pleasure or pain? The difficulty here is that consequentialists and utilitarians do not appear to have a satisfying justification for telling us where in time to draw the line the point after which we no longer need to worry about the outcomes of our choices.

Another difficulty in the question of how far into the future must we consider is that the further we seek to predict, the less accurate or reliable our predictions can be. Yet, some of those future consequences may be some of the most important for us in our lives. In view of this, Ess writes that: "Much of the anguish we face in ethical decisions turns on our effort to approach them in a consequentialist fashion- only to realize that we cannot be very certain at all about some of the most important possible outcomes of our actions" (Ess. 2009: 175). Thus, where one draws the line can make a significant difference in the possible consequences of an act. In the worst-

case scenario, the chances of realizing what may potentially be the most decisive consequences of our actions become increasingly small the further into the future we seek to predict those consequences.

It is difficult to consider the interest or welfare of a great number of people when the matter requires a moral decision concerns your loved ones (Ess, 2009). For example, it is very hard to make a utilitarian decision if your own loved ones are in danger. This is when favoritism comes into play because your instincts will overwhelm you and consequently, you will end up making a decision that favors your loved ones. Critics of consequentialism, especially deontologists believe that there are some aspects of human existence that cannot be assigned 'measurable' values (Alexander, 2000; Kanbur, 2017).

Since utilitarianism, affirms that the best action is the one that promotes the largest number of happiness, this suggests that the theory ignores the manner in which that happiness is distributed between groups of people. It appears to accept acts that make a majority of people happy and a few people very unhappy. This means that consequentialism does not consider the 'fairness' of the result. Based on these difficulties and limitations, critics of consequentialism find that they cannot fully rely on consequentialism alone. They want to resort to a consequentialist approach for certain kinds of decisions such as identifying the stakeholders who will be affected by a particular decision but when such information is not available, people might resort to other theories such as deontology for ethical decision-making.

Rule consequentialism ignores things that are regarded as ethically relevant (Sinnott-Armstrong, 2003). It is observable from this statement that consequentialism is interested only in the end result of an action. This means that the intentions or character of the person performing the act is irrelevant. Regarding journalism, the theory implies that it is irrelevant whether professional journalists or citizen journalists are using social media, so far as the content on that particular social media platform produces good consequences such as a fair coverage of a certain event. An example of these good consequences could be carried out through the use of a live video that covers an entire event, from the beginning until the end. Thus, this eliminates the possibility of mirepresentation. In doing so, the action can be considered right.

According to Walter Sinnott-Armstrong (2003: 63), consequentialism is "inconsistent with human rights". This means that if an act violates a person' right but produces the overall happiness for a large amount of people, that act is considered right.In relation to journalism, citizen journalism is seen as a tool that advocates for people's right to right to freedom of expression, however, citizen journalism can also violate human rights. For instance, an individual can take a video of a person without their consent and broadcast it online, this ultimately violates the person's right to privacy.

Another limitation of consequentialism, rule consequentialism in particular, is that it makes it easy for one to be bias towards a particular group (Hooker, 2003). In other words, choosing different groups of people may yield different outcomes. In addition, an act that generates a good result for one group, may, coincidently generate a bad result for another group, or for society in general. In relation to journalism, when professional journalists report on events, there are certain ethical codes in which they are supposed to adhere to. For instance, the SPJ Code of Ethics stipulates that journalists should seek the truth and report it (Cohen, 2017). This means that professional journalists should be honest, fair and courageous in gathering news content. The following chapter presents the detailed analysis on the consequences of the actions of citizen journalism on the profession of journalism with specific reference to the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the theoretical framework which underpins the study. It has discussed the ethical theory of consequentialism and demonstrated that the theory is appropriate and sufficient for evaluating the effects of citizen journalism on professional journalism. The chapter noted that the evaluation of the consequences of an action is ideal in dealing with challenges found in the current nature of journalism. It has further presented the strengths and limitations of consequentialism, stating that even though the ethical theory sometimes yield results that are not ethical concerning the assessment of the rightness and wrongness of an action, it does, however, provide an ethical lens which can help us to understand the effects of citizen journalism on the profession of journalism. The next chapter gives an analysis of the factors that led to the ethical or unethical reporting by professional and citizen journalists in the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement.

Chapter Four

Methodology

4.1   Introduction

The preceding chapter discussed the theoretical underpinnings of this study. The chapter considered the extent body of literature as it relates to the essence of the study. The literature was presented initially from a global perspective and narrowed down to a South African perspective. The chapter discussed the nature of journalism stating that in order for an individual to qualify as a journalist, there are certain skills that they have to acquire from a certified institution (Hong, 2014). Traditionally, journalists were obligated to serve an existing form of authority whereas today, professional journalists are known to serve the public and always report in the best interest of the public (Ward, 2011). However, the chapter also expressed that the traditional approaches of journalism still remain, where official institutions use propaganda to manipulate the news. Furthermore, the chapter discussed how the practice of journalism has transformed from operating under strict state rule to a more self-regulatory system (Meyer, 2011).

The chapter stipulated that the major transformation in the profession of journalism is largely due to the emergence of the internet. Under the emergence of citizen journalism, the study discussed that citizen journalism is not necessarily a new phenomenon. Rather, citizen journalism is a phenomenon that has been significantly enhanced through the advancements in technology, specifically the internet and social media (Hughes, 2011). The chapter also briefly explained the relationship between citizen journalism and of fake news. Here, the chapter discussed how citizen journalism has enabled the industry of fake news (Gumede, 2017). Furthermore, the chapter provided examples of fake news, globally and locally. The principles of professional journalism, including truth and accuracy, fairness and impartiality, and accountability amongst others were stated as well as briefly elaborated on (Akinwale, et al, 2017).

The literature discussed the policies and regulations of professional journlaism. It stated that the profession of journalism does not have a universal law that applies to all professional journalists around the world. Instead, professional journalism is governed by universally agreed

upon codes and ethics which differ from one country to another (Ward, 2011). One of the common code of ethics that the chapter detailed on, was the Society of Professional Journalists Code of Ethics. The chapter used this code as a frame of reference to understand the common ethics found in the profession of journalism. Lastly, the chapter established the gap in literature concerning journalism, stating that the currently available literature does not put any emphasis on the effects of citizen journalism on the ethics of journalism. Hence, the study mentioned that this is the gap the study seeks to fill.

The current chapter provides a comprehensive discussion of the research design and methodology that was used for this study. It provides a justification for the use of the chosen method as well as the limitations encountered in the use of the method. The chapter will also present the cases of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement which the study will base its analysis on. This will be followed by a conclusion of the chapter.

4.2   Research design and structure

According to Norman Denzin and Yvonna Lincoln (2005), a research methodology or strategy is determined by the nature of the main research question and the topic under investigation. As a result, the research method used in an investigation should serve as a tool to answer the research question. Since the study aims to explore and also evaluate the effects of citizen journalism on the profession of journalism, the study will use the exploratory research design as well as the evaluative research design. Accordingly, the study is guided by the following research objectives: to define the profession of journalism, to define citizen journalism, to explore how the professional and citizen journalists reported on the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement, and lastly, to evaluate the effects of citizen journalism on the ethics of journalism using the ethical theory of consequentialism.

The reasearch design of the study is divided into two. Firstly, the study uses an exploratory research design in answering the main research question which is: what are the ethical effects of citizen journalism on the profession of journalism in the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement? As well as the first and second sub-questions. The first sub-qustion is: what is the profession of journalism? The second sub-question is: what is citizen journalism?

According to Brian Van Wyk (2012), an exploratory research design is a technique that assists to "open up" the research problem and search for the underpinnings surrounding the problem. Furthermore, this technique is classified as "exploratory" because it generally provides information and insight to the research probem. Thus, as the term suggests, an exploratory research design deals with exploring the phenomenon (Reiter, 2017). The signifance of using an exploratory design research is that it enables an investigation of a problem or phenomenon which is not clearly defined (Bhat, 2019). Therefore, its use encourages a better understanding of the existing problem. An explortaory research design also seeks to provide new explanations that have been previously overlooked. In this study, the exploratory research design is used for the main research question in order to "open up" the research problem and also explore the phenomena of professional journalism and citizen journalism. Hence, the same research design is used to answer the above-mentioned sub-questions in order to explore both of the types of journalism individually.

Van Wyk (2012:6) continues that an exploratory research design uncovers "possible avenues for reaching decision makers' objectives". Since the study seeks to explore the roles of both professional and citizen journalists in the reporting of the events that took place, it is appropriate to use the exploratory research design to uncover the possible avenues behind the objectives for their actions. This means that the study will be able to find out what objectives or motivations led the different types of journlaists to report the way they did. Furthermore, an exploratory research design "is used in cases where the problem must be defined more precisely" (Reiter, 2017: 18). Bernd Reiter continues to state that inorder for the problem to be precisley defined, the researcher needs to "focus in collecting either secondary or primary data, using an unstructured format or informal procedures to interpret the data" (Reiter, 2017: 18).

 The study takes on an evaluative research design to provide answers for the following remaining sub-questions: how did the professional and citizen journalists report on the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement? As well as: how does the ethical theory of consequentialism assist in evaluating the effects of citizen journalism on the profession of journalism? The evaluative research design will be useful in answering these questions as it will be used to depict the main causes and reasons for the positive and negative effects of citizen journalism. The section on the ethical theory of consequentialism will be discussed in detail in the theoretical framework chapter which is the next chapter. Furthermore,

an evaluative research allows one to "provide means to judge actions and activities in terms of values, criteria and standards" (Stern, 2004: 10). In doing so, the study is able to provide an explanation of "what happens and what would have to be done differently for different outcomes to be achieved" (Stern, 2004: 10).

Turner, Miller, and Moses (1989) define an evaluative research as follows:

> A systematic process that produces a trustworthy account of what was attempted and why; through the examination of results…it answers the questions, "What was done?" "To whom, and how?" and "What outcomes were observed?" Well-designed evaluation permits us to draw interferences from the data and addresses the difficult question: "What do the oucomes mean?" (Turner et al., 1989).

The above quote provides a brief and comprehensive explanation of what an evaluative research design is made up of, how it should be used as well as the significance of using an evaluative research design. One of the fundamental purposes of an evaluative research is to identify the consequences of a particular phenomenon. Hence, the study uses a case study approach to identify the consequences of the actions carried out by the professional and citizen journalists.

As mentioned before, the study uses a desk-based research approach along with the case study approach. For the purpose of clarification, the study will explain both the desk-based research approach and the case study approach individually. The following subsection provides a detailed explanation of what a desk-based approach entails and why it was chosen as the methodology of the study. This is followed with a detailed explanation of the case study approach as well as the justification for its use in the study.

4.3 Desk-based research approach

According to John Creswell (2009), another name for desk-based research is secondary research. Creswell (2009) defines secondary research as research that is carried out through a review of previous research findings. Sarah Boslaugh (2007) states that a secondary research requires the researcher to search for relevant literature which already exists. This means that the research conducts a review of what other authors and scholars have said regarding the topic

under investigation. In other words, secondary research is the gathering of information from previously published, primary research (Douglas, 2015; Bhat, 2019). As a point of clarification, the study provides a differentiation between the two types of research methods. A primary research method is a research method that is based on principles of the scientific nature (Driscoll, 2010). Furthermore, the ultimate goal of conducting a primary research is "to learn about something new that can be confirmed by others and to eliminate our own biases in the process" (Driscoll, 2010: 154).

The three common ways of conducting primary research are observations, interviews and surveys. According to Danna Driscoll (2010), observations include the activity of examining, inspecting, and measuring the world that we live in with much scrutiny. This includes observations of people and other measurable events. Interviews can be described as the activity of asking participants questions in a one-on-one setting (Driscoll, 2010). Lastly, a survey is done through asking participants about their opinions and behaviours through the use of a short questionnaire (Driscoll, 2010). Secondary research on the other hand, gathers information from sources like case studies, magazines, books and newspapers, journals, libraries and dissertations.

According to Adi Bhat (2019), secondary research can be divided into two methods: online research and literature research. Concerning the online research, it can be defined as one of the fastest ways of gathering information on any topic. This is because a lot of information is readily available on the internet and it can be easily downloaded (Driscoll, 2010; Bhat, 2019). It is very important to note that when using this research method, the research must be vigilant about the authenticity and genuiness of the source websites that the information is gathered from (Bhat, 2019).

Concerning the literature research, it is considered one of the most inexpensive method of research (Smith, 2008; Bhat, 2019). Moreover, literature research is considered a method that is useful to discover hypothesis. Furthermore, there is a significant amount of information available in libraries and online sources. Sources also include literature such as documents from government agencies, books from the library, specific-related articles, and annual reports (Bhat, 2019).

In the current study, the desk or secondary research approach was used to conduct a review of available literature on the phenomena of professional journalism and citizen journalism strictly from an ethical perspective. Then, I used the theoretical framework of consequentialism to evaluate the consequences of the actions and activities of citizen journalism on the profession of journalism. Since the study is entirely desk-based, I engaged in a step by step process for generating data. Having established the research problem and formulated research questions, I relied heavily on secondary data. Secondary data was obtained through the use of books, case studies, journal articles, magazines, and newspapers, documents from government, dissertations, and the internet. Throughout this process, I was able to evaluate the quality of the sources and ascertain whether the sources were of scholarly value or not.

Much of the secondary data was obtained from internet search engines. GoogleScholar in particular, helped me to locate reports, legislations and policies that are specific to South Africa. Searching the databases helped me to engage in more advanced searches such as locating relevant books and articles for my study. The databases also helped me develop new insights from previous analyses made by different scholars which made me able to verify and confirm previous results. This was advantageous because it served as a time saving strategy. I was able to generate relevant literature through the development of key words or terms that guided my search. The key words were: Professional journalism, Citizen journalism, Internet, Social media and Media ethics. Other advantages of a desk-based research approach that I experienced was the flexibility and ease of adapting change to the research ideas. Furthermore, the use of this approach was advanatageous in terms of the cost-effectiveness and convenience it provided (Boslaugh, 2007).

According to John Dudovskiy (2019), limitations to the use of a desk-based research is that the study produces a lot of descriptive and interpretive information. This can sometimes serve as a disadvantage to the study because such information is judgemental and subject to bias. This is mainly because the information is formed on opinons and views of other scholars. Other limitations I encountered was that even though the literature provided insights to the topic of investigation, the literature was mostly inconclusive. In other words, the information I obtained did not yield conclusive results which makes it challenging to generalise the findings (Bhat, 2019; Dudovskiy, 2019). As a result, the findings can not be applied practically. Finally, another limitation I experienced was that when using secondary data, scholars sometimes give different

definitions for the same problem, making the estimation of the final research result confusing. As a result, I chose to use definitions that appeared more frequently in the literature and I based my arguments on them. Lastly, another challenge I experienced was that some of the literature was dated. The next section deals with the case study aspect of the research design.

4.4 Case study approach

According to Yin (1994), a case study represents research that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-time context and it includes a method comprehensive with the logic of planning, data gathering and analysis. Furthermore, Zetty Zainal (2007: 1) states that a case study "allows for the exploration and understanding of complex issues". This means that through the use of a case study, the researcher is able to go beyond the qualitataive and quantitative statistical results. Hence, providing an understanding of the behavioural conditions through the actor's perspective (Zainal, 2007). Moreover, Zainal (2007: 1) states that a case study helps "explain both the process and outcome of a phenomenon". This means that by observing the actions of the stakeholders within a case study, one is able to form a construction and analysis of the case under investigation. This ultimately guides the analysis of the topic under investigation (Zainal, 2007).

The use of the case study approach is well suited for 'how' and 'why' research questions, when the investigator has little control over events and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context (Yin, 2014). For the current study, I used a case study approach to answer the 'how' sub-questions of the study which reads as follows: how did the professional and citizen journalists report on the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement? And how does the ethical theory of consequentialism assist in evaluating the effects of citizen journalism on the ethics of journalism?

Robert Stake (2009: 25) states that "case studies are likely to continue to be popular because of their style and to be useful for exploring phenomena". Furthermore, using a "storytelling" approach assists in presenting the genesis of ideas, explore what happened and investigate particular phenomenon and present outcomes in their complexity. According to Julian Reis (2009), one of the strengths of using a case study approach is that it enables a thorough investigation and exploration of an event. Reis (2009) also states that a case study approach provides an in-depth and very detailed study of a person or event. Consequently, the case study

approach has the ability to give insight into phenomena that cannot be otherwise learned (Singh, 2014).

Some of the common limitations of using a case study approach are that when conducting a case study, it is very possible to form a bias (Reis, 2009; Singh, 2014). This is because when researchers consider various aspects of their lives, they tend to focus on issues that they believe to be most important. Hence, this forms a prejudice and can make the researcher unaware of other possible options. In this study, the limitation I came across using the case study approach was that as an evaluation tool, the case study could not allow for a generalisation of the phenomena under investigation.

The following subsection presents the case studies which form the basis of this study. Each case study is presented with a description of the role of the professional journalists as well as the role of the citizen journalist in the reporting of the events in each case study. The first case study is on the Marikana massacre which took place in August 2012 and the second case study is on the #FeesMustFall movement which took place in October 2015. Both of these case studies are significant as they serve to show the different types of journalism, including its strengths as well as the challenges presented throughout the practices of journalism.

4.5   Case study 1: The Marikana massacre

The Marikana massacre was a 'televised massacre' (Bell, 2017). The shootings which took place in Marikana, a mining town in the North West province of South Africa, on the 16th of August 2012, was the most lethal use of force by South African security force against civilians since the Sharpville massacre of 1960 (Boetger and Rathbone, 2016). In South African media, the shootings were reported as equivalent to a massacre (Stupart, 2012). On the 16th of August 2012, 34 striking mineworkers were killed and 78 were injured when members of the South African Police Service (SAPS) opened fire on them in Marikana. The massacre took place in the context of a strike over low pay at a mine owned by Lonmin, British multinational mining company (Duncan, 2013).

Jane Duncan (2013) continues that the mineworkers persistently avoided the formal procedures for protected strikes set out in the country's Labour Relations Act. They also deliberately avoided to be represented by the Congress of South African Trade Unions (Cosatu), and the

aligned National Union of Mineworkers (NUM). The workers deliberately excluded the trade unions because they felt that the formal bargaining system had let them down. Consequently, the workers engaged on an unprotected strike action.

The Farlam Commission presents three reasons why the workers decided not to engage the trade unions; Firstly, Rock Drill Operators (RDOs) came from different units, hence, they belonged to different unions. Secondly, NUM had already announced that they were unable to take the demands of the RDOs forward to management. Thirdly, between 2006 and 2007, the workers had made a similar request to NUM and the union never returned with any feedback. This is why the workers felt let down by the trade unions (Farlam Commission, 2015).

The following section presents the "processes of collective bargaining and the background facts which appear to have given rise to the unrest at Marikana" as stipulated in the report of the Farlam Commission. Formally, the processes of collective bargaining are inserted in a set of entangled laws of the Labour Relations Act No.66 of 1995. This Act administers the organisational rights of trade unions and encourages as well as facilitate collective bargaining at the workplace. It also deals with lockouts and strikes and alternative dispute resolution (South African Department of Labour, 1995).

- On the 7th October 2011, the former mineworkers' representative trade union (NUM) entered a collective agreement, regulating wages and other conditions of employment (Farlam Commission, 2015).
- On 18th of October 2011, the Lonmin management autonomously awarded an additional wage increase of 18% to the one category of its workers which were the supervisors of the mining work teams (Farlam Commission, 2015).
- In January 2012, RDOs were angered by the decision of the management and therefore embarked on an unprotected strike. According to the Farlam Commission, this strike was "characterised" by high levels of violence and intimidations which were mostly directed at the NUM and its member (2015: 46).

Following the strike, Lonmin management decide to award the RDOs monthly allowances ranging from R250 to R750. The RDOs did not accept this award and decided to on the 9th of August to go on an unprotected strike as a demonstration of their demand for a wage increase

of R12-500. A Lonmin rock driller's gross salary came to just over R8 200, leaving them with a monthly take home of R5-600 after tax and deductions. The Lonmin miners were the worst paid workers out of the three large platinum companies. RDOs at Impala were paid 10% more and the workers at Anglo also earn 23% more (Duncan, 2013). As Marinovich notes, "the real grievance was that they were underpaid; they needed a wage they could live off" (Marinovich, 2017: 27). Thus, being underpaid was the RDOs reason for going on strike.

According to an official account, the protesters were armed strikers advancing rapidly on the police, who then had no choice but to shoot in self-defence as they came under threat (Higginbottom, 2018, Duncan, 2013; Marinovich, 2017). There was also an issue of the miners having used 'muti' (traditional medicine) to defend themselves against police's bullets" (Duncan, 2013). According to the Institute for Security Studies (ISS) 2018 report, the police were strongly aware of the use of muti by some of the strikers and many believed the strikers would not act rationally because of the muti.

The following timeline outlines the events that took place during the Marikana workers' strike in 2012:

- 9th August: Approximately 3000 mine workers gathered outside Lonmin, by the Wonderkop Stadium. The miners had rejected the allowances offered by the management and decided not to go to work the following day. Instead, they conducted a march in support of their demand of a salary increase (Farlam Commission, 2015). Mr Barnard Mokwena, a Lonmin's Executive Vice President for Human Capital and External Affairs heard about this gathering. Along with this report, were 'strong rumours' that the workers were apparently planning to initiate a dangerous strike action the following day.

  Following this, Mokwena drafted an internal communique reminding employees that Lonmin had collective bargaining structures in place and that no demands apart from these structures shall be tolerated. The communique stated the following: "(a) that the planned work stoppage on 10 August 2012 amounted to unprotected industrial action and that any gathering of workers would be in breach of the Regulations of Gathering Act (Farlam Commission, 2015: 56). Furthermore, on the communique, Mokwena also

stated that; "the SAPS would be called in to assist and that management would not hesitate in dismissing workers who participated in the industrial action" (Farlam Commission, 2015: 56).

- 10th August: The Lonmin RDOs at the Marikana plant embarked on an unprotected strike (Duncan, 2013:11). Approximately 600 to 1500 workers began to gather at the Wonderkop Stadium. This number steadily grew to 3000 workers. A few hours later, Lonmin manager, Mr Blou contacted the Lieutenant General Mbambo, the North West Provincial Commissioner of SAPS. Mr Blou urged Mbambo to aid the company with the Public Order Police (POP). Mbambo reassured Mr Blou that they would provide the necessary assistance to Lonmin.

  Approximately two hours later, the SAPS arrived at the scene with four 'Nyala' armoured vehicles and several soft skin vehicles 'Nyala' is the South African nickname for an RG-12 vehicle. An RG-12 is an originally deisgned police 'public order' vehicle. The SAPS began escorting the workers from Lonmin security (Farlam Commission, 2015:58).

- 11th August: There was a confrontation between the National Union of Mineworkers and the workers (Duncan, 2013:11). According to the Farlam Commission (2015), the workers marched to the NUM offices and threatened to burn down their offices. Here, there were some shootings between the security guards of the NUM offices and the strikers. Consequently, two security guards were shot. The SAPS were not present at this scene.

- 12th August: There was a confrontation between the Lonmin Security and the workers at the Wonderkop traffic island. Another confrontation between the strikers and the Lonmin Security at the Wonderkop hostels took place. One innocent Lonmin worker, on his way to work was caught in the cross-fire (Farlam Commission, 2015).

- 13th August: The attacks continued. One innocent worker was killed, two police officers were also killed and Lieutenant Baloyi was assaulted by the strikers (Farlam Commission, 2015).

- 14th August: The SAPS conducted a plan of operation to put the violence to an end. The plan entailed the SAPS negotiating with the strikers to voluntarily lay down their weapons and dispersing from the 'koppie' which is an Afrikaans name for a small mountain where the strikers gathered.

- 15th August: There were conversations between the Lonmin management and Lieutenant General in which the final decision was that the following day was going to be the D-Day for a decision to be made. This meant that either the strikers will voluntarily lay down their weapons and vacate the koppie or face the consequences of being forced to do so by the police (Farlam Commission, 2015).

- 16th August: The first police shooting at the koppie was called Scene 1, the SAPS carried out the operation plan that was set on the 14th of August. The police had sent out two officers to work as their spies and take footage of the events. At some point in time, these police officers were caught and their commanders instructed them to withdraw from the place. Consequently, the video recording was stopped. During the course of the day, there was no formal acccount as to what exactly happened. The statistics at the end of the day amounted to the death of 44 people, more than 70 persons injured and approximately 250 people being arrested.

- 19th September: Lonmin finally resolved the issue with the workers.

In the aftermath of the massacre, former President Jacob Zuma, the then president, appointed a Commission of Enquiry into the massacre, overseen by Justice Ian Farlam. The work of the Commission began on 1st October 2012 (Duncan, 2013). There were two killing sites that were designated as Scene 1 and Scene 2 respectively by the Farlam Commission. Scene 1 was identified as the 'small kraal' (small cattle enclosure), where the group of strike leaders moved

away to when they dispersed from their main assembly point called 'the mountain'. Here, the police laid barbed wire to channel the strikers in a certain direction, towards the police lines (Higginbottom, 2018). The shooting took place when the commander at the scene, Brigadier Caltz, radioed "Engage! Engage! Engage!" (Marinovich, 2017: 15; SAHRC, 2014: 407).

There are three explanations for the police shooting. One explanaion was that the police were legitimately responding to an assault on them. A second explanation from the South African Human Rights Commission is that the police misperceived the degree of threat, and although not an intentionally prepared act, the shooting was nonetheless "massively disproportionately, indiscriminate and unlawful" (SAHRC, 2014: 391). However, a third and more straightforward interpretation of the evidence is that the real police plan was imbued with murderous intent (Mpofu et.al, 2014: 15). The police 'tactical plan' evolved through many versions over four days from Monday 13th August to Thursday 16th August 2012. The stated intention was to disarm the strikers as they left their assembly point (Higginbottom, 2018).

Scene 2 was identified as the 'small koppie' (small hill), 800 meters away from the first shootings. This site was were the second massacre of 17 more miners took place, around 19 minutes later after the first shootings (Higginbottom, 2018). The police commanders claim that they did not know of the first massacre until after another 14 minutes because their radios stopped working in that critical period (Marinovich, 2017: 181). This extraordinary claim was necessary to avoid culpability for the second massacre, which would not have happened had the commanders ordered their 800-armed officers to stand down which they did not (Higginbottom, 2018). Hundreds of miners were fleeing and the police chased them down, catching up with the strikers as they sought to hide in the crevices between the boulders. The police fired 295 rounds of ammunition at individuals and small groups. Wht happened at Scene 2 was so indefensible that the police tried to hide it (Higginbottom, 2018).

The Farlam Commission found that the commander at the scene, Major General Naidoo, "participated in a chaotic free for all which cost 16 people their lives without exercising any command and control" (Farlam Commission, 2015: 312). The police who actually fired were not brought to give evidence, and were not subject to cross-examination (Higginbottom, 2018).

4.6 The role of professional journalists in reporting the Marikana massacre

According to a study done by Jane Duncan, a content analysis of a representative coverage sample from South Africa's mainstream newspapers was made. The coverage on the Marikana massacre was reported to be "heavily biased towards official accounts of the massacre, and that it overwhelmingly favoured business sources of news and analysis" (Duncan, 2013: 1). Another study conducted by Rodny-Gumede attested to the above-mentioned conclusion that the coverage by professional journalists was "bias towards official explanations of what happened and who was to blame in the days leading up to the massacre and a week afterwards" (Rodny-Gumede, 2015: 1). Furthermore, official sources such as specific publications, for instance, were most likely to be the primary definers of news content. According to Hall et al (1978), primary definers are those sources that define the events from the initial stage, providing information on the issues related to a story. These sources are influential in developing the public's perception of events.

Rodny-Gumede (2015) states that the coverage on the massacre consisted of 'embedded' journalism, sensationalised coverage as well as polarisation of views and stakeholders. Furthermore, 'embedded' journalism refers to the attachment of news reporters to military or armed conflictst. Therefore, professional journalists focused on presenting the coverage in a manner that is shocking and which created a division between the parties involved, namely, the strikers and the police. Additionally, she proposed three, very important questions to be considered in relation to what she considered as constituting bias in the coverage of the event:

1. Did South African journalists simply not do their job properly in the days leading up to the massacre and the subsequent week?
2. Do South African journalists have a poor understanding of conflict reporting?
3. What, if anything, changed as the truth of the massacre started to emerge?

(Rodny-Gumede, 2015: 1)

Regarding the above questions, Rodny-Gumede (2015) states that professional journalists engaged in pack journalism and as a result, the coverage of the events of the Marikana massacre was rather limited, if not distorted. Rodny-Gumede (2015) define pack journalism as a characterisation of news reporting where journalists from variuos news firms work together to report on the same story. Also, the journalists conformed to 'war reporting'. This means that

the journalists put significant emphasis on the violence and suffering and neglected the factors that led to the events. Furthermore, this type of reporting polarises view points and oversimplifies the underlying causes of conflict. Lastly, Rodny-Gumede (2015) asserts that despite the time that had passed since the massacre took place, the underlying issues of conflict remain neglected.

Furthermore, Duncan, Rodny-Gumede, and Higginbottom provide the following reasons as to why the coverage was not fair; Firstly, the coverage as from 12th August to 23th August, reveals that much of the focus was on the violence displayed by the strikers, with constant reference to the strikers using muti instead of placing focus on the actions of violence as a whole (Duncan, 2013; Rodny-Gumede, 2015; Higginbottom, 2018). In addition, the voices of the miners were scantily featured independently of the major trade unions involved. This was important because a majority of the miners had expressed that they did not feel adequately represented by the trade unions.

Duncan (2013) also states that the failure of professional journalists to interview the miners sufficiently led to an editorial failure in the early press coverage as it failed to fully reveal the extent of the police violence against the miners. As a result, the version of events stated by the police stood largely unchallenged in the aftermath of the massacre. A group of academics took it upon themselves to find out the full version of events by interviewing the miners and revealing the information to the public. The chapter will later elaborate on this point. Duncan (2013) also noted a problem with the way the mainstream media portrayed the dominant themes leading up to the massacre, such as the miners being portrayed as inherently violent and irrational individuals.

Professional journalists reported extensively on the events leading up to the Marikana massacre and they continued to report on the aftermath (Sosibo, 2012). The very crucial question, even before the Farlam Commission completed its work was: "what if these processes fail to deliver justice? Undoubtedly, many want journalists to continue the search for the truth. But will journalists be up to the task of holding the police to account when failing institutions are unable or unwilling to do so?" (Duncan, 2013: 1). The public entrusted professional journalists to answer these questions along with finding out what exactly happened and who was responsible if the criminal justice system failed to do so. Duncan's study examined whether journalists were

likely to rise to these challenges, basing her study from the press coverage, with the exclusion of online newspapers on the Marikana massacre.

Andy Higginbottom (2018) stated that the public's understanding of the massacre was developed by the agenda-setting press, which is the mainstream media. Furthermore, this construction strongly relates to practices of power in society. It is very important to note the professional journalists' press reports throughout the critical period leading up to the massacre and in its aftermath. This is because it was during this time that the media assisted in constructing the publics' perceptions of the massacre. This includes the causes that led to the turnout of events as well as how the blame was allocated.

The representative sample of South African newspapers from Duncan's study included the following newspapers: The Star, Business Day, Beeld, The New Age, The Sunday Times, City Press, Mail and Guardian. Other newspapers were Die Burger, The Sowetan, Financial Mail, and Sunday Independent. Multiple newspapers had different sources which were grouped into categories consisting of independent experts, official sources, commentators, political parties and Parliament, Lonmin mine management and owners, the police, the government, worker organisations, and the workers.

The following are the representative sources used in the articles ranking from the largest to the smallest: the business voice came out on top providing 27% of sources with the mine workers' voices amounting to only 3% of sources. This is the lowest out of all the sources categories. Furthermore, "only one miner was quoted speaking about what actually happened during the massacre, and his account was that the police shot first" (Duncan 2013: 3). Therefore, this means that out of 153 articles which reported on the massacre, only one showed any efforts from a professional journalist to obtain information from the miners on the events of the massacre.

The articles that were analysed were again examined for who the primary definers of the story were. According to Hansen (1998), evaluating the primary definers of a story assists in assessing how social power is articulated through the media. The results were as follows: the voices from business and official accounts were intensively the primary definers of events, followed by the Lonmin mine management and owners 28% and 13% respectively. This time

around, the workers had an even smaller share of the primary definer press space than they did as sources, with a mere 2%.

With most of the press reporting coming from business and official sources, this means that most of the press coverage did not fully represent the nature of events. For example, a majority of the newspaper articles only cited the police's version of events (Duncan, 2013). Furthermore, most of the emphasis was placed on the fact that the strike was illegal. Not much attention was placed on the reasons why the miners opted for an unprotected strike.

Other dominant narratives of events pursued by journalists were that the strikers attacked the police because they believed that smearing 'muti' on their bodies would make them invincible to bullets and that this led to the miners charging on the police on the day of the massacre (Rodny-Gumede, 2015). Furthermore, this version of events was fully endorsed by the police in support of their assertion that they fired at the miners as means of self-defence. Thus, the police stuck to this view as part of the their testimony to the Farlam Commission. The *City Press* quoted a police spokesperson providing the answer as to why the strikers advanced on the police: "…we were dealing with people who looked possessed, or believed the bullets would not work on them" (Ledwaba, 2012: 4). Such narratives constructed the miners as irrational and as predisposed to violence and superstitious beliefs.

The public's initial perception of the massacre was constructed by the television footage which was shot behind the police line (Duncan, 2013). This footage showed armed strikers charging on the police, which supported the police accounts that they were attacked first and they acted in self-defence. Moreover, the professional journalists also covered the story from behind the police line. This means that the accounts from the journalists largely backed up the police accounts.

A few days after the massacre, Professor Peter Alexander from the University of Johannesburg (UJ) and his team decided to conducted interviews on the massacre. During this time, they found that many miners who were present that day had a different account on what really happened. Those who were interviewed mentioned a second 'kill site' (Scene 2), where the workers were allegedly killed in a far more premeditated manner by the police (Higginbottom, 2018). In addition, no professional journalists were visible at this site. Also, it was clear that

the journalists did not conduct an inspection of the entire massacre site. Had they done this, they would have quickly realized that there was a second site. Duncan (2013: 7) states that "it was here that eyewitnesses alleged that miners were chased by the police and shot at point blank range, and others who were lying down and pretending to be dead were crushed by police vehicles".

According to Lucas Ledwaba (2013: 7), the strikers "were operating in a climate of fear and suspicion, especially towards those who were not one of them and this included journalists". Additionally, strikers "viewed journalists as being, in a way, an extension of officialdom and law enforcement" (Ledwaba, 2013:7). Ledwaba also states that what made matters worse was that two policemen disguised as journalists were also caught filming the mineworkers until miners identified and confronted them. At the end, Ledwaba states that through patience and persuasion, they eventually managed to gain access to the miners but this did not necessarily gain their trust. However, the miners did expect the journalists to be more sympathetic to their plight.

On the day of the massacre, the police declared the area where the miners were gathered (Scene1), an operational area (Marinovich, 2017). This forced journalists to stay behind the lines for much of the day. Furthermore, immediately after the massacre, a majority of miners who survived the massacre were arrested. This ultimately made it difficult to find miners to interview. However, it became evident from the UJ team's interviews that communication with the miners was not impossible. Hence, this suggested that the journalists might have overstated the difficulties they faced in accessing the alternative account.

Admittedly, the reporting conditions of the Marikana massacre were extremely difficult but the failure of the press to ask the workers themselves for their version of events resulted on the journalists entirely missing the alternative account, which suggested a more premeditated attack on the miners. According to Duncan (2013), there were clear traces of problems in the press coverage of the massacre.

4.7 The role of citizen journalists in reporting the Marikana massacre

As stated in chapter two of the study, citizen journalists communicate or initiate public participation on news through social networks such as Twitter, Facebook, and YouTube among others. In the case of the Marikana massacre, there was no evidence of the use of such network tools by the miners. According to Marian Walton, instead of the strikers relying on Facebook 'Likes' or YouTube clips, the miners "drew on oral traditions of villages in the Eastern Cape and of the union movement (Walton, 2014). Sharing experiences, traditional rituals, and the threat of violence, both internal and external, further strengthening the strikers' unity". In other words, the strikers did not believe that they could get their message across through the use of social media. On the other hand, there were two policemen that were caught filming the mineworkers. During this time, these policemen took up the role of being citizen journalists. However, depending on the intention, it is possible that the police took the footage with the intention of keeping it as evidence of what really happened.

In addition, strike leader, Mgcineni 'Mambush' Noki enforced the rule that "no walking around or talking on phones" (Davies, 2015). On the day of the massacre, some journalists were allowed to take photographs and 'interview' the crowd using megaphones. This was only done when allowed by the strike leaders. The strikers preferred anonymity and even Noki was initially known to the journalists only as the 'man in the green blanket'.

It can be said from the above report that in the case of the Marikana massacre, citizen journalism was featured at a minimum.

4.8   Case study 2: The #FeesMustFall Movement

The #FeesMustFall movement was a protest led by students that began in mid-October 2015 in South Africa. The aim of the movement was to stop the increase of student fees as well as to increase government funding on universities (Sesant, 2015). According to Sesant (2015), the protests first began at the University of Witwatersrand, spread to the University of Cape Town and Rhodes University and rapidly spread out to other universities across the country.

The chief financial officer of the University of Witwatersrand, Linda Jarvis, released a statement stating that there were numerous causes for the high increase in fees including the

rand-dollar exchange rate that had fallen by approximately 22% which resulted in an increase in the amount of money that the university pays for all library books, journals, electronic resources and research equipment. Another reason was the salary increases for the staff which are set at 7% on a 3-year cycle as well as the generic inflation which increases the university's utilities (Genevieve, 2015).

According to Belinda Bozzoli (2015) and Munusamy Ranjeni (2015), a number of background factors led to the protests. These factors included a lack of funding for the poorer students to attend universities, the high incomes for university managers. The lack of social transformation to broader socio-economic, the decline in government funding for higher education, as well as racial inequality issues.

The following timeline pertains the events surrounding the #FeesMustFall movement in 2015:

- 14th October: The University of Witwatersrand announced that fees would increase by 10.5%. In response, students started protesting. This led to a lock down and sit-in of the university by students and some staff members. Hashtag #WitsWillFall and #WitsFeesMustFall started trending on Twitter and went viral (Lenyero, 2015).

- 17th October: Due to the protests, the University of Witwatersrand agreed to suspend the fee increase and renegotiate. Also, the university decided not to seek disciplinary action against participating students or staff members. News organisations reported on the movement and the hashtag #FeesMustFall went viral on social media (Rahlaga, 2015).

- 18th October: Following the protest, messages started circulating on Facebook about a possible complete shut-down of the Rhodes University campus.

- 19th October: Negotiations between students and the University of Witwatersrand began. On the same day, similar protests had spread to the University of Cape Town and Rhodes University. Students started to block vehicles from accessing the various

campuses by placing rocks, dustbins and benches on the roads leading to the campuses (Genevieve, 2015).

Riot police were called to forcibly evict the protesters with over 25 students being arrested that night. Over a thousand students gathered at the Rondebosch police station and held an all-night vigil for the release of the students. University of Pretoria initiated plans to lock down three of the university's campuses. The hashtag #National Shutdown started trending on Twitter and went viral.

- 20st October: Students assembled at the University of Cape Town and marched to the local police station to demand that the students that were arrested the previous night be released. The Cape Peninsula University of Technology students started protesting and locked down the campus. Students at the Fort Hare University also started protesting and locked down the campus. They refused to disperse or write exams until the management of the university had dealt with concerns over fee increases.

Students at the University of Stellenbosch handed over a memorandum of grievances to the university management outlining their complaints whilst students at Rhodes University continued their protests. At the University of Witwatersrand, students rejected a proposed compromise by the university to cap the fee increase at 6%, instead, the students demanded that there be no increase in fees.

- 21 October: Students from the University of Cape Town as well as the Cape Peninsula University of Technology gathered together to form a crowd of approximately 5000 protesters and marched towards the South African Parliament. The march coincided with the meeting of the National Assembly which was attended by both Higher Education Minister Blade Nzimande and President Jacob Zuma. Nzimande tried to address the crowd but was repeatedly booed by the crowd whilst President Jacob Zuma left the Parliament buildings from a side entrance.

Protestors broke through the gates of the parliamentary precinct and began to stage a sit-in protest. Riot police soon moved in to disperse the crowd using stun grenades, tasers, coloured gas, riot shields and truncheons. Afterwards, the police cleared the protesters and shut the gates. The police, subsequently, warned the protesters that they were violating the National Key Points Act (an act of the Parliament of South Africa that provides for the

declaration and protection of sites of national strategic importance against sabotage) and that if they do not disperse within 15 minutes, they will be arrested. The protesters did not leave and the police arrested a number of them.

- 22th October: In Johannesburg, students marched to the ruling ANC's headquarters at Luthuli House where students handed over a memorandum to the ANC Secretary General Gwede Mantashe. Meanwhile, protests continued in Cape Town with students gathering at the central magistrate court to witness the court appearance of the 29 students who were arrested during protests outside the Parliament the day before.
- 23rd October: Students in other countries such as the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia and China showed support by protesting in their own countries. For instance, in the United Kingdom, a group of close to 200 students gathered at Trafalgar Square in front of South Africa House (the High Commission of South Africa in London) to show support of protesting students in South Africa (Mkhize, 2015). Articles were written, commissioned and edited by the students involved in the protest (*Cape Argus,* 2015).

On the same day, President Jacob Zuma announced from within the Union Buildings that there would be no increase in university fees in 2016. The President also established a Commission of inquiry into Higher Education and Training. The 2015 protests ended after this announcement was made. The protests in 2016 began when Nzimande announced that there would be free increases capped at 8% for 2017, however, each institution was given the freedom to decide by how much their tuition would increase (Norimitsu, 2015).

4.9   The role of professional journalists in reporting the #FeesMustFall movement

In the above narrated case study, one can notice the continuous referral to various hashtags trending on Twitter. This gives us an idea that almost all the coverage of the events of the #FeesMustFall movement was reported on social media such as Facebook and Twitter. According to Adrian Baillie-Stewart (2017), it is important to note that among the changes taking place in digital media, there is a significant growth of news organisations including the use of social networks such as Twitter in their news reporting practices.

In addition , Baillie-Stewart (2017: 30) also states that "Twitter is of prime importance to journalism. Increasingly so, journalists are using Twitter (and Facebook) as professional tools".

This means that social networks such as Facebook and Twitter have been formally recognised as high-profile social networks that are popular sources of news. Moreover, professional journalists view Twitter as event-driven, with a broad spectrum of unrelated users being able to "tweet side-by-side". Also, Baillie-Stewart (2017: 31) states that "Twitter strongly aligns itself with journalism and journalistic products such as "latest stories….and news".

Doreen Zimbizi (2017) conducted a study on four online-based news platforms. The study compared how the professional and citizen journalists reported on the #FeesMustFall protests. The online-based news platforms were namely: TimesLIVE, South Africa's second-biggest news website, and Independent Online (IOL), a South African news and information website. Furthermore, other platforms were: The Citizen Digital, which is a South African tabloid-style newspaper, available online and in print. Lastly, The Daily Vox, a South African form of alternative news platform. It is important to note that although The Daily Vox is known as an alternative news platform because it grooms young individuals that aspire to professional journlaists, it was founded by professional journalists who were previously employed by mainstream news outlets. Therefore, in this regard, the content produced by this platform is verified and cross-checked. Thus, qualifying it as a form of professional jornalism.

According to Zimbizi (2017), the overall coverage of the mainstream media on the #FeesMustFall protests was not as negative as it has been in the past. This is as a result of the students using extensive online platforms, namely: Twitter and Facebook by the students to counter any negative narratives that could have erupted. Zimbizi's study focused on the tone of the articles that reported on the protests. According to Chris Baldwick, the tone of an article refers to the attitude of a writer towards a subject or an audience (Baldwick, 2004). With regards to Zimbizi's study, the tone of an article "helps to determine whose voices were quoted and if the use of those sources made any difference in the representation of protesting students" (Zimbizi, 2017: 41). This means that the tone of the articles reviewed will illustrate how the protesters were represented by the professional journalists.

The tone of the article were characterized as follows: positive, negative, neutral or mixed in tone, from the 14th of october 2015 up until the 23rd October 2015 (Zimbizi, 2017). The article that produced the highest positive tone was The Daily Vox with a percentage of 64. According to Zimbizi (2017), a positive tone is where the articles supported the students on the basis of

the students mere purely affirming their demands. The article that showed the highest negative tone was again, the TimesLIVE with a percentage of 45. Furthermore, the negative tone represented the dissaproval of the students' actions. The article that had the highest percentage of a neutral tone was The Daily Vox with a percentage of 28. A neutral tone was when the journalists presented only the facts on the events of the protests. Finally, the mixed tones represented the attempt by the journalists to give both sides of the stories within a singular article. The article with the highest percentage for this category was theTimesLIVE with 18%.

It can be observed that the article which constituted a great percentage in both the negative and the mixed tone was the TimesLIVE. This means that the TimesLIVE website was the organisation that yielded most of the negative opinions towards the students. The Daily Vox, on the other hand, illustrates to have reported in favor of the students as it presented the highest percentage in the positive and neutral tone categories. Ultimately, this shows that the attitudes of the professional journalists were divided (Zimbizi, 2017; Patel, 2017; Linden, 2017).

Sources are very important in shaping the views and opinions of the public (Duncan, 2013; Zimbizi, 2017). Zimbizi (2017) continued to investigate how the articles acquired their sources. According to Andrè DeWaal (2007), there is a very close correlation between the tone of the article and the sources used or quoted in those articles. In Zimbizi's study, the sources were divided as follows: experts which were referred to as professional journalists, students and social media which was recognised as citizen journalists, and the officials which were the government and universities (Zimbizi, 2017). The study displayed the following results: The Daily Vox clearly stated their bias towards the students. Hence, the highest percentage in the positive tone category. According to Zimbizi (2017), the positive representation of students was highly attributed to the journalists embracing the idea of students telling their own version of events.

TimesLIVE showed to be dominated by official voices, with WITS University receiving extensive media coverage. IOL was also dominated by official voices with Minister Blade Nzimande and WITS professors being the prominent voices of most of the articles. Lastly, The Citizen Digital relied on both the official sources and social media (Zimbizi, 2017). Furthermore, during the interviews that Zimbizi conducted, Devlin Brown, the online editor for The Citizen Digital, addmited to "the reliance on the student's social media timelines and

pages" (Zimbizi, 2017: 51). In addition, the editor of The Citizen Digital also admitted that their journalists could not always be at the scenes throughout the entire protests. Hence, the editors had to rely on social media. Another point worth mentioning is that conclusions from Zimbizi's interviews with the editors of the different news platforms were that the journalists did not go into the story with any preconceived narratives. Furthermore, the journalists acknowledged that social media helped them to understand the story better.

According to Dominic Mahlangu, journalists who reported on the #FeesMustFall movement were closely involved in the coverage (Mahlangu, 2016). Moreover, many of the journalists agreed that the #FeesMustFall movement was the first social media driven event which presented a lot of challenges for them. However, most of the journalists also admitted that the social media driven event was also exciting for them.

Mahlangu (2016) continued to state that indeed social media was used as a news-gathering tool. In ddition, mainstream media had to play 'catch-up' as social media set the agenda for the protests' coverage. This meant that social media platforms, namely: Twitter and Facebook were far ahead in terms of covering the protests. This was due to the fact that students were actively reporting on the events as they unfolded (Mahlangu, 2016). However, the editors were very adamant towards ensuring that journalistic standards were upheld. In other words, the ethics of journalism such as accuracy, fairness, balance and verification of sources were not compromised. For example, journalists identified people who were influencers of the events and approached them for information (Mahlangu, 2016). Furthermore, the journalists took the information from these influencers and verified it with student leaders, chancellors, and others. In most cases, the information was verrified (Mahlangeu, 2016)

4.10   The role of citizen journalists in reporting the #FeesMustFall movement

As stated before in the study, citizen journalists are also referred to as activists. In the case of the #FeesMustFall movement, both the students and the activists used Twitter to mobilise and communicate with each other. The students created the following official Twitter account report on the protest: Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Universities #FeesMustFall Movement (#NMMUFMF). According to Baillie-Stewart (2017), the use of the hashtag #FeesMustFall equipped activists to promote protest-related calls to action. Hence, when the #FeesMustFall

hashtag began trending on Twitter, the protests quickly rose into prominence, drawing significant national attention.

Candice Wagener (2016), states that during the #FeesMustFall movement, the students from the University of Witwatersrand, in particular, had their own media task team that was made up of student volunteers that would generate content from inside the movement. Furthermore, the use of social media resulted in the protests being perceived as a "fast-moving story" (Zimbizi, 2017: 26). Ultimately, this had a positive impact on the overall coverage. A student, by the name Ayanda, refused to disclose her surname when interviewed, was part of the university's media task team. Ayanda took part in the 2015 protests and she stated that she was dissatisfied with the media coverage. She stated that the mainstream media often misrepresented students and often published half-truths "I saw what a negative impact that had on the movement" (Wagener, 2016: 1). This therefore led to her taking part in the 2016 protests, only as a citizen journalist.

The students took it upon themselves to take pictures and videos of the protests which they later relayed to other members in the media task team in charge of social media as well as writing articles. According to Zimbizi (2017), the students' Twitter timelines and Facebook pages were used as sources. For example, one of The Daily Vox's articles featured the following hashtags from Twitter: "Campus Control in solidarity with students#FMF"(Zimbizi: 62). Another hashtag read as follows: "Can't people in power see how desperate we want education?" (Zimbizi, 2017). This means that the students used social media platforms effectively to relate their own stories.

4.11   Conclusion

In this chapter, a comprehensive discussion of the research design and structure was presented. The chapter also presented the methodology that was chosen, showing how it assisted the study. The study used an exploratory research design as well as an evaluative research design. The exploratory research design was used to answer the main research question which is: what are the ethical effects of citizen journalism on the profession of journalism using the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement? The same research design was also used to answer the following research sub-questions: what is the profession of journalism? and what

is citizen journalism? This was done with the intention to explore the main phenomena under investigation which are the profession of journalism as well as citizen journalism.

The study used a desk-based approach. This means that the information was gathered from secondary sources such as books, journal articles, documents from the government, and the internet amongst many other secondary sources. The study used the evaluative research design to answer the following sub-questions: how did the professional and citizen jornalists report on the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement? And how does the ethical theory of consequentialism assist in evaluating the effects of citizen journalism on the profession of journalism.

The study established that an evaluative research design "provides means to judge actions and activities in terms of values, criteria and standards" (Stern, 2004: 10). Furthermore, an evaluative research also assists in identifying the consequences of a particular phenomenon (Turner, et al., 1989). Since the study aims to identify the ethical effects of citizen journalism on the profession of journalism, the use of an evaluative research design was appropriate as it enabled to depict the main causes and reasons for the positive and negative effects of citizen journalism on the profession of journalism. In addition, the research design also made it possible to identify the consequences of the actions carried out by the professional and citizen journalists in the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement.

A case study approach was chosen to explore the phenomena under investigation through real-time context. Furthermore, the case study provided an understanding of the behavioural conditions through the actor's perspective (Zainal, 2007). In this study, the behavioural conditions that were under scrutiny are those of the professional and citizen journalists in the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement. Hence, in the narration of the case studies, the study put emphasis in the specific roles of the professional journalists as well as the citizen journalists. This chapter presented the strengths and limitations of both the desk-based research approach and the case study approach. Regarding the desk-based research, the strengths that were presented are that the approach was time and cost-efficient. Furthermore, the approach allowed for flexibility and ease of adopting change to the research ideas.

The limitations of using secondary sources as means of gathering information produced a massive amount of descriptive and interpretative information. This ultimately produced information that is judgemental, bias and inclusive. The current chapter also presented the strengths and limitations of using a case study approach. The strengths of using a case study approach was that it enabeld thorough investigation and exploration of thr events of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement. This provided further insight into the phenomena of professional journalism and citizen journalism. The limitations encountered with the use of a case study approach was that it created prejudice and bias based on one's beliefs. Furthermorte, the case study approach could not allow for a generalisation of the topic under investigation.

In summary, the chapter presented the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement. The narration of the cases was presented in the form of timelines, followed by precise emphasis on the role of the professional journalists and citizen journalists in each case. The following chapter presents the theoretical framework of the study.

<div align="center">**Chapter Five**</div>

<div align="center">**Research Analysis**</div>

5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the study explored the ethical theory of consequentialism. It stated that consequentialism is an ethical theory that is based on two principle. Firstly, the principle holds that only the result of an action stipulates whether the act is right or wrong. Secondly, the principle states that if an act produces more good consequences, the act becomes right. The chapter identified the different approaches of consequentialism, including utilitarianism, ethical egoism, ethical altruism and rule consequentialism. Lastly, the chapter discussed the strengths as well as the limitations of consequentialism incorporating how each approach relates to the study. The current chapter seeks to ethically analyse the role of professional and citizen journalists in the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement through the lens of the ethical theory of consequentialism.

5.2 Analysis of the role of professional journalists in the case of the Marikana massacre using the ethical theory of consequentialism

5.2.1 Coverage was bias

The primary definers of the news content in most of the publications were the business sources which in this case were the Lonmin mine management and owners, the government, and the police. The representative sample in most of the South African newspapers showed that the business voice amounted to 27% and the miners' voice amounted to 3%. Therefore, this means that the miners' voices were barely featured in the publications because the professional journalists did not interview enough miners for their version of events (Duncan, 2013).

Analysing this occurrence from the SPJ Code of Ethics' point of view, the professional journalists did not identify all feasible sources. This is a section under the 'Seek Truth and Report It' principle. Hence, this was a default on the professional journalists' standpoint as their reports could not provide the public with a full and fair coverage. For instance, the newspapers did not reveal the extent of the police violence against the miners. This is because the

professional journalists were not aware of the second scene, where most of the miners were killed. Again, this is a shortfall on behalf of the professional journalists as they were supposed to conduct investigations on the concerning areas.Under the same section of 'Seek Truth and Report It', the professional journalist did not execute the give voice to the voiceless objective of the ethical code. Again, under the 'Act Independently' section, the professional journalists were not courageous about holding those with power accountable (SPJ, 2014). Hence, the police were not accountable for their actions.

Through the lens of the ethical theory of consequentialism, rule consequentialism gives us an account of how to base moral rules on certain consequences. For instance, rule consequentialism states that when assessing the consequences of an action, it is easy to be bias in favour of particular groups (Hooker, 2003). In this case, in their ethical decision-making process, professional journalists assigned greater value towards official accounts such as the government and the police.

5.2.2 Miners were portrayed as irrational

It appears to be a common presumption from the reports of the professional journalists that some of the miners participated in rituals and used muti (Duncan, 2013; Rodny-Gumede, 2015; Higginbottom, 2018). The professional journalists created narratives that portrayed the miners as irrational, predisposed to violence as well as too attached to superstitious beliefs (Rodny-Gumede, 2015). During cross examination, the police clung to the narrative that the miners attacked them first because they believed they were invulnerable to the bullets since they had used muti (Higginbottom, 2018). Professional journalists pursued this narrative by stating it in newspapers. Backing this notion, Ledwaba provides the following quote from the *City Press:* "…we were dealing with people who looked possessed, or believed the bullets would not work on them" (Ledwaba, 2012: 4). This quote was from a police spokesperson that was supposedly providing the answer as to why the miners advanced on the police.

Analysing this action by the professional journalists according to the SPJ Code of Ethics' point of view in accordance with the 'Seek Truth and Report it principle, the journalists did not test the accuracy of the information from all sources and exercise care to avoid inadvertent error (SPJ, 2014). Along with this objective, the Code of Ethics states that deliberate distortion is never permissible. This means that, since the journalists did not adequately interview the

miners, there is doubt surrounding the accuracy of the narrative that the miners used muti because they wanted to be invincible.

Furthermore, the 'Seek Truth and Report it' section of the SPJ Code of Ethics also states that professional journalists should not oversimplify or highlight incidents out of context (SPJ, 2014). In other words, the journalist could not have been fully certain how many miners used muti. Therefore, they should not have oversimplified that all miners advanced on the police because they believed they were invincible. Lastly, under the same section of the SPJ Code of Ethics, it states that professional journalists should avoid stereotyping by race, gender, age, religion, ethnicity, geography, sexual orientation, disability, physical appearance or social status (SPJ, 2014). The action of the journalists, by considering the account of the miners using muti as part of their coverage whilst not seeking the truth by interviewing the miners, insinuates that the journalists did not show respect for the rituals that the miners did. Thus, this indicates a level of stereotyping by ethnicity as the miners belong to the same ethnic group. In other words, the miners belong to a community which is made up of people who share a common cultural background.

Through the lens of the ethical theory of consequentialism, the utilitarianism approach is most appropriate for explaining the ethical decision-making process that the professional journalists valued. Utilitarianism holds that considering the consequences of an action, "the greatest happiness of the greatest number is the foundation of morality and legislation" Alexander (2000: 899). Furthermore, this means that the ethical right decision to make in a given situation is one that will induce most happiness and reduce unhappiness for the largest number of people. In the case of the journalists portraying the miners as irrational, it is clear that the journalists were leaning more towards the police in their coverage. Hence, by the journalists supporting the police, the miners ultimately became the minority.

5.2.3 Pack journalism

The professional journalists undoubtedly engaged in pack journalism. According to Jonathan Matusitz and Gerald-Mark Breen (2007: 1), pack journalism can be defined as "the widespread media practice where large groups of reporters collaborate to cover the same story". The case of the Marikana massacre presents a typical example of how professional journalists tend to

rely on sources of information that have been previously validated by other news outlets. This is often done due to the fast-paced nature of the newsrooms where journalists seek to provide verified breaking news. This routine practice carried out by professional journalists can be viewed as unethical as it promotes journalistic laziness, a loss of independence in news reporting as well short-term and long-term harm to readers and viewers.

The study conducted by Duncan (2013) illustrated that various newspapers contained one and the same information with regards to what happened before, during and after the Marikana massacre. Furthermore, Rodny-Gumede (2015) also argues that the journalists appeared to be 'following one another' in terms of what to report. Moreover, she states the "broadcast media and television in particular, insensitively played the same horrifying footage over and over again" (Rodny-Gumede, 2015: 1).

Analysing this action in terms of the SPJ Code of Ethics, the journalists did not identify sources whenever feasible (SPJ, 2014). This means that they reused the same sources in pursuit of a full coverage. The consequence of this action was that the public did not receive a full and fair coverage of the massacre, including the events leading up to the massacre. Under the section of 'Minimize Harm', the journalists did not show compassion for those who may be affected adversely by news coverage (SPJ, 2014). This refers to the family members of the miners that died. Furthermore, and still under the section of 'Minimize Harm', the journalists were not sensitive to those family members that were affected when seeking or using interviews and photographs. This points to the video footage that the news outlets broadcasted repeatedly.

Through the lens of the ethical theory of consequentialism, the approach best suited to evaluate the action of the journalists engaging in pack journalism would be the ethical egoism approach. This approach holds that as long as the action is good to the person who carries out the action, the act is right (Kernohan, 2012). This means that despite the negative consequences of pack journalism, the act may be viewed, according to consequentialism, as right because the journalists believed it would save time. The next sub-section discusses the role of citizen journalists in the Marikana massacre using the ethical theory of consequentialism.

5.3 Analysis of the role of citizen journalists in the case of the Marikana massacre using the ethical theory of consequentialism

5.3.1 Disconnection from network communication

As can be observed from the case of the Marikana massacre, there was an intentional absence from the internet and social media by the miners. This could either be due to the lack of knowledge of how social media can be used as a tool for telling their version of events or it could also be due to the fact that the miners simply did not believe that social media could work in their favour. When analysing the case of the Marikana massacre, the miners' disconnection from networkcommunication and similar media resulted in the poor representation of the strikers' perspectives. Also, it resulted in social media repeatedly using stories reported by the 'pack journalists' (Walton, 2014).

On the other hand, the police were caught acting as citizen journalists when the two policemen took videos of the strikers approaching them. This was done with the intention to manipulate the news. Furthermore, Duncan (2013) states that in the videos that were aired , the strikers are shown advancing on the police which made it appear as though the miners were attacking them irrationally. Also, the narrative of the strikers using muti to make them invisible fully supported this statement.

Through the lens of the ethical theory of consequentialism, the above resembles elements of ethical egoism. As stated before, ethical egoism defined by Kernohan (2012) holds that as long as the action is good to the person who carries out the action, the act is right. When the police took up the role of being citizen journalists by taking videos of what was happening, they did this out of self-interest. This is to say that the actions of the police had good consequences for them. Therefore, the act can be regarded right.

5.4 Analysis of the role of professional journalists in the case of the #FeesMustFall movement using the ethical theory of consequentialism

5.4.1 Balanced coverage

The analysis for the case study of the #FeesMustFall movement slightly differs from the one the Marikana massacre. This is because in this case, the professional journalists were not silent on online platforms like in the previous case. Instead, professional journalists were very open to using online platforms including, using social media as a form of news gathering. In chapter two, the study gave an account that professional journalists can also take up a role of being citizen journalists through incorporating digital technologies such as social media into their journalistic routines in order to control the flow of news and information (Hamada, 2018). Through this action, one witnesses an example of how the lines between professional and citizen journalists get blurred.

In the coverage of the #FeesMustFall movement, professional journalists portrayed mixed tones in the articles they wrote (Zimbizi, 2017). Articles that presented a positive tone in their coverage were those that had a positive attitude in their coverage and supported the student protests. These journalists believed that the students were protesting simply to affirm their demands. For example, The Daily Vox represented the students as responsible protesters with legitimate demands (Patel, 2017). Moreover, this particular news platform admitted to being unapologetic for favoring the students.

Articles that had a negative tone in their coverage were negative towards the students (Zimbizi, 2017). Furthermore, these journalists condemned the students' actions as violent. An example of such an article is the TimesLIVE with 45% of their articles disclosing negative attitudes towards the students. Finally, some of the articles constituted of a neutral tone in their reporting (Linden, 2017; Zimbizi, 2017). This means that these articles portrayed the facts as they were and no opinions were attached to the narrative of the story. Ultimately, the overall coverage of the #FeesMustFall movement by the professional journalists attempted to give both sides of the story. Also, the journalists did not show any signs of having any preconceived narratives. The use of social media by journalists resulted in less negative content because news reporters had no choice but to resort to social media platforms in order to understand the story better (Zimbizi, 2017). Consequently, the journalists presented a more balanced coverage.

According to the SPJ Code of Ethics (2014), ethical journalists should be accurate and fair. Journalists should be honest and courageous in gathering, reporting and in interpreting information. Therefore, the mixed tone in the articles by professional journalists suggests that the journalists were courageous in their reporting as they did not shy away from producing content that was different from other news outlets. Moreover, the journalists were ethical in their reporting because they verified their work before releasing it. For example, the journalists identified the influencers behind the events and approached them for information (Zimbizi, 2017). Furthermore, the journalists verified the information they gathered from the influencers with the leaders and chancellors and in most cases the information was confirmed. Lastly, the actions of the professional journalists can also be considered ethical as they presented themselves to be accountable by their show of invitation to dialogue with the public, which in this case were mostly the students.

Through the lens of the ethical theory of consequentialism, the actions of the professional journalists reflected ethical altruism. Ethical altruism holds that as long as the action is good to everyone else, the act is right (Scheffler, 1988). Also, it prescribes that individuals take actions that have the best consequences, excluding their own interests. In this regard, professional journalists truly sustained the ethics in journalism by disseminating news that consisted of different views as it proved that their reporting was aimed at providing a balanced coverage. The balance in the coverage served at the public interes because it provided the public with different views from different angles. Consequently, the public was able to make their own judgments and form their opinions based on the balanced coverage.

5.4.2   All affected sources were identified

According to Duncan (2013) and Zimbizi (2017), sources are very important in shaping the views and opinions of the public. As stated in chapter three, there is a very close correlation between the tone of the article and the sources quoted in the articles (Zimbizi, 2017). Also stated in chapter three is that social media platforms such as Twitter and Facebook have recently been identified as forms of sources for professional journalists (Baillie-Stewart, 2017).

The Daily Vox clearly disclosed their bias towards the students. Hence, their percentage of 64 was the highest out of all four news platforms used in Zimibizi's study. This means that the

sources that journalists from The Daily Vox used were mostly from the students. Furthermore, two out of the four platforms were dominated by official sources, namely: the TimesLIVE and IOL. These official sources were mainly the government, mostly the Minister of Higher Education, Blade Nzimande and the professors from the affected universities including the chancellors (Zimbizi, 2017). One of platforms that were studied, The Citizen Digital, was dominated by both the official sources and social media. Devlin Brien, The Online editor for The Citizen Digital admitted to "the reliance on the student's social media timelines and pages" as a source of information on the story (Zimbizi, 2017: 51).

Devlin also admitted that their journalists could not be at the scenes throughout the protests. Therefore, they had to rely on what the students posted on social media. According to Mahlangu (2016), social media was used as a news gathering tool. Also, the editors that were interviewed by Zimbizi stated that social media helped them understand the #FeesMustFall protests better (Zimbizi, 2017). This was due to the fact that students were actively reporting on the events as they unfolded (Mahlangu, 2016).

The SPJ Code of Ethics has a section under the principle of 'Seek Truth and Report It' which states that ethical journalists should identify sources clearly as the public is entitled to as much information as possible, to judge the reliability and motivations of source (SPJ, 2014). Also, ethical journalists should be vigilant and courageous about holding those with power accountable and hive voice to the voiceless. The act of professional journalists using content by students showed to be an act of giving voice to the voiceless. Furthermore, by using social media as a news gathering tool, professional journalists contributed to holding the officials accountable because they had to explain themselves as to why the students were protesting.

The SPJ Code of Ethics also has a section under 'Minimize Harm' that states that ethical journalists should realize that private people have a greater right to control information about themselves than public figures and others who seek power, influence or attention (SPJ, 2014). Towards the end of this section, the Code of Ethics states that ethical journalists should weigh the consequences of publishing or broadcasting personal information. As much as the content on social media was not seen as private information, it was information from students, who in this case are regarded private people. When the journalists published or broadcasted the information on social media, especially journalists from The Daily Vox and The Citizen Digital,

they realized the importance of students voicing out their grievances. Consequently, this provided the public with more truth and more balance to the overall coverage on the protests.

Through the lens of the ethical theory of consequentialism, the actions of the professional journalists reflected ethical altruism. This is because the ethical altruism approach clearly states that it is an ethic that prescribed that individuals should take actions that have the best consequences (Von see Pfordten, 2012). In other words, this approach states that individuals, in this case, the journalists, should have a moral responsibility to serve, benefit or help others. Professional journalists served the public by using the students as sources, some artists more than others, as well as the officials as sources. This gave the public adequate information as to why the protests played out the way they did.

5.5 Analysis of the role of citizen journalists in the case of the #FeesMustFall movement using the ethical theory of consequentialism

5.5.1 Students became active citizen journalists

In the case of the #FeesMustFall movement, it was narrated that students had their own media task team which comprised of student volunteers who generated content from inside the movement. The students took up the role of citizen journalists by taking pictures and videos of the protests. They handed over this information to other members in the media task team who were in charge of social media as well as writing articles. The students did this to present an alternative perspective to the narratives on the mainstream media (Wagener, 2016). In doing so, the students were able to provide the public with coverage that fairly narrated the events of the movement from their perspective.

In analysing the actions of the students against the SPJ Code of Ethics, the students proved that one does not necessarily have to be a professional journalist in order to disseminate news that is fair and courageous. In other words, by having their own media task team, the students gave voice to the voiceless which is an objective under the 'Seek Truth and Report It' principle of the SPJ Code of Ethics (SPJ, 2014).

Through the lens of the ethical theory of consequentialism, the actions of the students show elements of ethical egoism as well as ethical altruism. Since ethical egoism, as defined by Kerhonan (2012) holds that an action is right so long as the action is good to the person who carries it out. Thus, the consequences from the students' actions can be seen as right and justifiable. On the other hand, even though the students sought to portray their version of events, it ultimately worked in the favor of the public interest. Therefore, this act serves as ethical altruism because the act benefitted others.

The study has conducted an analysis of the role of the professional and citizen journalists in both cases. The study has also evaluated the role of both the professional and citizen journalists, setting these roles against the SPJ Code of Ethics and also against the ethical theory of consequentialism. The study moves on to answer the key research question, which is: what are the ethical effects of citizen journalism on the profession of journalism in the case of the Marikana massacre and the case of the #FeesMustFall movement? The study does this by discussing how citizen journalistsm, positively and negatively affects the profession of journalism.

5.6 Positive and negative effects of citizen journalism on the ethics of professional journalism

5.6.1 Positive effects

The study has established that there are no universal rules or ethics for the profession of journalism (Ward, 2011). However, there are codes of ethics that have received common global consensus over the main principles and objectives of ethical journalism. One of these codes is the SPJ Code of Ethics, which has formed the basis of the entire study. The study has also established that journalism in South Africa operates under self-regulation systems. The most widespread systems being the Broadcasting Complaints Commission and the Broadcast Monitoring Complaints Commission (Berger, 2009). This means that whosoever participates in news reporting, professionally or non-professionally is expected by the public to be cautious of their behaviour online. The following subsection discusses how citizen journalism positively affects the ethics of professional journalism according to the common principles of journalism:

Objectivity in reporting

In chapter two, the study discussed that the main function of journalism is to convey information and empower the informed (Farooq, 2015). Citizen journalism, as explored in the study, conveys information and empowers the informed without fail. In the case of the Marikana massacre, when the professional journalists could not produce information in favor of the strikers, a group of academics from the University of Johannesburg took up the role of being citizen journalists and interviewed the strikers (Duncan, 2013). Although this did not work in the favor of professional journalists, it did however, make them aware of where they lack as a profession that is supposed to be serving the public by providing information that is objective.

Fairness, impartiality and transparency

The study also revealed in chapter two that journalism is a profession that enables the daily reporting of everyday events which are reported with outmost transparency to inform the society about its surroundings (Farooq, 2015). In the case of the #FeesMustFall movement, the students posted information on what was happening at the scenes and information on what was still going to happen on Twitter and Facebook. This served as a daily reporting on the events which were reported with outmost transparency from the students' standpoint. This demonstrates the positive effects of citizen journalism on the ethics professional journalism as social media provided the professional journalists with a reliable source of the story (Lenyero, 2015).

Journalistic ethics are not always compromised

In the case of the #FeesMustFall movement, the students who ultimately became citizen journalists, reported on the events and applied self-regulation accordingly. They did this by being aware that their coverage was going to be fundamental in the public's construction and understanding of the events that took place. Therefore, their actions were in line with journalism ethics which are as follows; seek truth and report it, minimize harm, act independently and be accountable. This illustrates how citizen journalism can yield positive and ethical effects on the profession of journalism. Furthermore, when the professional journalists engaged with social media, the editors were very adamant towards ensuring that journalistic standards were upheld. In other words, the ethics of journalism such as accuracy, fairness, balance and verification of

sources were not compromised. As an example, journalists identified people who were influencers of the events and approached them for information (Mahlangu, 2016). Furthermore, the journalists took the information from these influencers and verified it with student leaders, chancellors, and others. In most cases, the information was confirmed (Mahlangu, 2016). It is evident from the case of the #FeesMustFall movement that professional journalists seem to be more accepting of the fact that citizen journalism can assist the profession of journalism. This is evident in the now growing and popular use of social mkedia as sources of information as well as a news gathering tool by the professional journalists.

Truth and replying to critical opinions

From a more general perspective, citizen journalism is of assistance to professional journalism in the following manner: most people carry smartphones with them everyday. Thus, making it possible for professional journalists to have more angles, more cameras and more perspectives on a particular story (Patel, 2017). This ultimately means there is more truth in the coverage of that story. Furthermore, with the use of social media, there is more participation and discussions between professional journalists and ordinary citizens (Claymore, 2017; Lee, 2014). This makes it possible for professional journalists to reply to critical opinions which helps them understand what exactly the public is interested in knowing.

5.6.1 Negative Effects

It has been discussed in chapter two that the emergence of citizen journalism has made it possible for anyone to produce and broadcast news content. In the case of the Marikana massacre, citizen journalism enabled official accounts, the police in particular, to informally practice journalism. This gave a negative effect on the profession of journalism because the professional journalists could only report from behind the police' frontlines. Hence, the professional journalists were not free to execute their work properly.

In other words, professional journalists were indirectly forced to rely on the incomplete footage produced by the police. This could have been one of the reasons that made it hard for the professional journalists to hold the police officials accountable for their actions. Furthermore, this resulted in pack journalism. As a result, in some cases, citizen journalism hinders professional journalism from doing their work. For example, if an unprofessional source

broadcasts to the society at large to witness, it becomes difficult for professional journalists to detest the broadcast. Even if proper investigation is conducted after the events take place, the initial coverage or footage plays a significant role in the public construction of its understanding of what really happened. Consequently, this serves as an negative effect on the profession of journalism.

In general, citizen journalism is a form of news reporting that does not always prioritize the ethics involved in disseminating news (Hong, 2014). Moreover, the ethical aspects of citizen journalism are not easily controlled (Lee, 2015). This is due to the fact that anyone, regardless of a journalistic qualification can easily publish content online. Furthermore, most of the participants of citizen journalism do not care for the accuracy of the news content that they produce, instead, these participants feed off the publics' appetite for online content. Hence, the increase in the industry of fake news (Goodman and Steyn, 2017).

Citizen journalism enables people to disseminate news and participate in the news production without any formal identification. Thus, there is no form of accountability involved as the participants of citizen journalism take no responsibility for the accuracy of their news content (Enoch, 2008). Furthermore, the information produced by citizen journalism is mostly not verified as there is no formal structure of doing so (Hong, 2014). Citizen journalism has no respect for privacy (Lee, 2015). This is because ordinary people can simply use their smartphones to publish information of people without their consent without taking into account the potential harm or discomfort that the news could generate (Patel, 2017). Lastly, with citizen journalism being a platform to voice out and express, it enables the high risk of disseminating offensive news content that might inflame hatred amongst the public (Frantz, 2017).

The above limitations of citizen journalism represent all that professional journalism is not. In other words, all the unethical practices involved in citizen journalism are practices that professional journalists try by all means to avoid. Ultimately, the above-mentioned disadvantages of citizen journalism have a negative effect on professional journalism (Ward, 2011). This is due to the fact that with the advancements in technology, the blurring of lines between professional journalism and citizen journalism become greater and the distinction between fact and opinion diminishes. Consequently, this decreases the level of trust that the public places on the profession of journalism.

5.7 Conclusion

The chapter has analysed the role of professional and citizen journalists in the case of the Marikana massacre using the ethical theory of consequentialism. The study has observed that in some instances, it is possible for professional journalists to produce bias coverage that favors fficial accounts. Through the lens of consequentialism, the study has provided an ethical explanation that when such actions take place, it means that professional journalists, in some instances, conduct poor ethical decision-making. Instead of being fair and courageous in news reporting, sometimes, they assign more value to official accounts, resulting in bias coverage.

When analyzing the role of citizen journalists in the Marikana massacre, the study observed that in some cases, it is difficult to voice out grievances without the use of social media platforms. Instead, in some cases, the opposition might take advantage of the tools of citizen journalism and justify themselves to the public. Furthermore, when such actions are analysed through the lens of consequentialism, the act might be considered right. The chapter also analysed the role of professional journalists in the case of the #FeesMustFall movement. The study observed that when professionals work hand-in-hand with the public they are able to properly adhere to journalistic ethics while producing coverage that is fair. Thus, through the lens of consequentialism, such actions fall under the ethical altruism approach of the theory. The study also observed that the use of social media can yield massive results as a tool of voicing out grievances. Furthermore, this can be done without using unethical methods of gathering information. Also, the study showed that ethical egoism, when properly adopted in journalism, is able to produce news content that is fair and serves the public interest.

Lastly, the chapter attempted to answer the main research question which is: what are the ethical effects of citizen journalism on the profession of journalism in the case of the Marikana massacre and the case of the #FeesMustFall movement? The study did this by evaluating the positive and negative effects of citizen journalism, visible from the study of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement cases. The following chapter presents the summary and conclusions of the study.

Chapter Six

Summary and Conclusions

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented an analysis of the roles of the professional and citizen journalists that reported on the events of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement. The current chapter presents the summary and conclusions of the study. The thesis aimed at exploring and evaluating the effects of citizen journalism on the ethics of journalism. This has been achieved through the engagement of numerous studies surrounding the topic. This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section presents the summary of the study. The second section presents the general conclusions from the study.

6.2 Summary

This section presents a summary of the major findings from the study chapter by chapter.

Chapter One provided an introduction of the study and gave the general background to the research question. The chapter was personally motivated by my curiosity to find out whether the internet and social media has been assigned any regulations or policies to govern the public's interactions online as these interactions resemble the practice of the professional journalism.

Academically, the study was motivated by the idea that the opportunities and challenges presented by the emergence of citizen journalism have not been adequately examined and assessed from an ethical perspective. Thus, I identified the gap that this study sought to fill which is the ethical evaluation of the effects of citizen journalism on the profession of journalism. As a result, the curiosity to know about the feasible regulations of citizen journalism coupled with the opportunities and challenges that citizen journalism presents to professional journalism motivated me to conduct the study.

The basic research question was formulated as follows: what are the ethical effects of citizen journalism on the profession of journalism in the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement? In answering this question, four sub-questions were established:

- What is the profession of journalism?

- What is citizen journalism?

- How did the professional and citizen journalists report on the events on the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement?

- How does the ethical theory of consequentialism assist in evaluating the effects of citizen journalism on the profession of journalism?

In seeking to answer the research question, the study engaged in a desk-based approach coupled with a case study approach. The chapter specified the research objectives and also described the methods and structure of the study.

Chapter Two presented a review of the research literature relating to the historical background of journalism leading to the emergence of the phenomena of citizen journalism. This review was undertaken in order to establish a theoretical understanding of the topic under investigation and to form a basis for developing the research methodology.

Chapter Three discussed the methodology of the study which is a desk-based case study approach. The chapter described the background of the approach and the justification for choosing it. The chapter also presented the strengths and limitations of the approach. Finally, the chapter narrated the case studies that form the basis of the study.

Chapter Four presented the theoretical framework that underpins the study. The chapter demonstrated that the ethical theory of consequentialism is an appropriate approach for exploring and understanding the positive and negative consequences of the actions involved in citizen journalism. The theory also assisted in establishing how the actions of citizen journalism affect the profession of journalism.

Chapter Five analysed the role of citizen journalists and professional journalists in reporting on the events of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement. The chapter explored and also evaluated the actions of these journalists through the lens of the ethical theory of consequentialism. Lastly, the chapter provided an exemplification of how citizen journalism can positively and negatively affect the profession of journalism through the use of the two cases.

Chapter Six consists of the summary, conclusions, and recommendations of the study. The chapter is divided into two sections. The first section presents the summary of the study and the second section presents the general conclusions and recommendations of the study.

6.3 General conclusions of the study

The study has established that traditionally, the profession of journalism was a strictly controlled, hierarchical and undemocratic profession. The sole obligation of the journalists was to serve the existing authority such as a king, political regime or party. In this regard, the study demonstrated that although journalism in South Africa has become liberated, in some cases, the professional journalists do end up being bias towards official accounts. Ultimately, this resembles the historical nature of journalism. As an illustration, the study drew on the cases of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement.

In the first case, the coverage ended up heavily favouring the viewpoint of the government and the powerful corporations. The police dictated that the professional journalists should report from behind their front lines. This restricted the professional journalists from gathering the miners' version of events. Furthermore, the representation statistics of the massacre showed that only one miner that was present, was interviewed. This means that the rest of the coverage available to the public was gathered from the police officials. This is an example of how the existing authority continue to manipulate the news. In the second case study, the entire manner in which the students conducted their coverage on the events was based on the idea that they cannot trust the mainstream media to fairly represent their version of events. Hence, the formulation of the student media task team.

The study defined the current nature of journalism as consisting of two major elements. The first element being the top-down, corporate-driven process. This is the historical view that is still present today which has caused the declining trust in the profession of journalism and journalists as professionals. The second element is the bottom-up, consumer-driven process. This process reflects the general public exercise of their rights of freedom of expression through their use of social media to generate and report events around them. The study demonstrated that the bottom-up, consumer-driven nature of journalism is the leading cause behind the friction, confusion, and tension between professional and citizen journalism.

The study provided a detailed definition of citizen journalism. Furthermore, the study stated that citizen journalism is an ambiguous term without a formal conceptualisation. The study also concluded that the various terms of citizen journalism should be defined in response to its purpose. Citizen journalism enables an instantaneous and interconnected way of reporting. The term began as a distinct and determined response to the perceived weaknesses of mainstream, professional journalism. The study detailed these weaknesses as the unfair alliance between traditional news media and the government of the day. Although the study portrayed these strengths of citizen journalism, it also portrayed major weaknesses of the phenomenon. The study highlighted that with citizen journalism enabling anyone to contribute to news production irrespective of their qualification, ultimately led to the alterations of journalism ethics as well. Furthermore, the study demonstrated that citizen journalism has enabled the industry of fake news. This is done through taking pictures and videos out of context.

The study has demonstrated that well-established media industries are faced with major challenges. One of these being the constant decline in newspaper circulation. This is due to the public increasingly moving on to online mediums. The study concludes that although this causes tensions for the profession of journalism, these industries should continue upholding their ethics and values because this could possibly be the only difference between the two. Moreover, the study has established that there are no universal policies in the profession of journalism. However, there are policies that are commonly agreed upon which differ from country to country.

The study conveyed that in South Africa, the Department of Communications have made efforts to conduct a full policy review of the media. This has led to the establishment of the Information and Communications Technology (ICT) policy. The ICT policy has been structured into a programme that is dedicated to advocate for enhanced public broadcasting, support for community journalism as well as social media. Also, the programmes contribute to efforts dedicated to promoting relevant and progressive communication through legislative and policy development in South Africa. The study established that journalism in South Africa operates under a self-regulation system. In other words, the concept of journalism rests on a foundation of moral responsibility. The only formal account to the ethics online is that ethics that exist in professional journalism must also apply to citizen journalism. This caters to the initial curiosity

I had of finding out if citizen journalism had regulations and laws that govern its operation online.

The study aimed to fill the following gap: provide positive and negative effects of citizen journalism from an ethical point of view. It employed the two cases, the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement as an example of how the action of citizen journalism can affect the ethics professional journalism. It further demonstrated that the ethical theory of consequentialism is sufficient in determining whether the consequences of actions taking place in citizen journalism can be considered right or wrong. Lastly, the study explored and evaluated the role of professional and citizen journalists in the case of the Marikana massacre and the #FeesMustFall movement. Through this, the study illustrated ways in which citizen journalism can positively and negatively affect the profession of journalism.

In summary, the positive effects of citizen journalism are as follows: citizen journalism enables citizens to convey information and empower the informed. Through this act, the public gets access to news content that is objective, which consists of information from all parties involved in a particular story. Through citizen journalism, ordinary citizens are able to publish information on important news with outmost transparency. This enables professional journalists to acquire information that is less distorted and far more fair. Furthermore, when self-regulation is applied properly, citizen journalists produce information that contains more truth and content that is more reliable which can be of great assistance to professional journalists. Finally, citizen journalism enables participation between professional journalists and ordinary citizens. This makes it possible for professional journalists to reply to critical opinions which help them understand what exactly the public is interested in.

The negative effects of citizen journalism on the ethics of professional journalism are as follows: when officials practice citizen journalism, they are able to manipulate news in their favor. Furthermore, citizen journalism does not prioritize journalistic ethics such as accuracy, accountability, respect for privacy, and the distinction between facts and opinions. In most cases, citizen journalists take advantage of the publics' appetite for online content and they take no responsibility for the accuracy of the content they produce. Ultimately, this leads to the increase of the dissemination of fake news online.

Bibliography

Akinwale, O. Seriki, I. & Gutura. 2017. 'An Era of Journalism in South Africa: Traditional Media versus Online Media'. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 51 (1), pp. 5-32.

Alexander, L. 2000. 'Deontology at the Threshold'. *San Diego Law Review*, 37(1), pp. 893912.

Ali, S. 2015. '15 Reasons Why Google has Become the Most Important Part of Our Lives'. *DesignPotato.* Available at: http://designpotato.com/15-reasons-why-google-hashttp://designpotato.com/15-reasons-why-google-has-become-the-most-important-part-of-our-lives/become-the-most-important-part-of-our-lives/. [Accessed 27 May 2019].

Atton, C. 2003. What is 'Alternative' Journalism? *SAGE journals*, 4 (3), pp. 267-272.

Aquinas, T. 2012. 'Thomas Aquinas, Part 8: Thomas for today'. *The Guardian*. Available at:

https//www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/belief/2012/mar/19/Thomas-Aquinastoday. [Accessed 21 September 2018].

Audi, R. 1995. *The Cambridge Dictionary of Philosophy.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Balakrishnan, P. 2016. *The rise of citizen journalism and how it affects traditional media,*

England: University of Portsmouth. Available at:

https://www.academia.edu/9173091/The_rise_of_citizen_journalism_and_how_it_affects_traditional_media. [Accessed 17 May 2019].

Baillie-Stewart, A. 2017. 'An exploration of South African news organization's Tweet networked public sphere'. *Masters Dissertation.* South Africa: Stellenbosch University.

Barnes, C. 2012. 'Citizen Journalism vs. Traditional Journalism: A Case for Collaboration'. *A Journal of Caribbean Culture*, 51 (2), pp. 16-27.

Barrat, E and Berger, G. eds. 2007. '50 years of Journalism: African media since Ghana's independence'. *The African Editors' Forum,* pp. 150-154.

Baruah, T. 2012. 'Effectiveness of Social Media as a tool of communication and its potential for technology enabled connections: A micro-level study'. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications,* 2 (5), pp. 2-9.

Barzilao-Nahon, K. 2011. 'Gatekeeping: A critical review'. *Annual Review of Information Science and Technology*, 43 (1), pp. 506-520.

Baumane-Vitolina, I., Cals, I. & Sumilo, I. 2016. 'Is Ethics Rational? Teleological, Deontological and Virtue Ethics Theories Reconciled in the Context of Traditional Economic Decision-making'. *Elsevier B.V*, 39 (1), pp. 108-114.

Baumeister, R.F., Schmeichel, B.J & Vohs, K.D. 2007. 'The Strength Model of Self-Control'. *Association for Psychological Science,* 16 (6), pp. 351-355.

Baxter, P. & Jack, S. 2008. 'Qualitative Case Study Methodology: Study Design and Implementation for Novice Researchers. *The Qualitative Report,* 13 (4), pp. 544-559. Available at: https://nsuworks.nova.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1573&context=tqr. [Accessed 17 May 2019].

Bell, T. 2017. 'The Spectre of Marikana still looms large' [Online]. Available at: https://www.fin24.com/Opinion/the-spectre-of-marikana-still-looms-large-20170816-2 [Accessed 9 May 2019].

Berger, G. 2009. 'Communication and Media: Past, Present and Future'. *South African Communication Association (Sacomm),* pp. 1-24. Available at: https://www.google.com/search?q=berger+2009+the+most+widespread+self-

regulation&rlz=1C1GCEU_enZA859ZA859&oq=berger+2009+the+most+widespre
ad+self-regulation&aqs=chrome..69i57.51879j0j8&sourceid=chrome&ie=UTF-8
[Accessed 22 May 2019].

Bergström, L. 1996. 'Reflections on consequentialism'. *Theoria,* 62 (1-2), pp. 74-94.

Bhat, A. 2019. 'Research Design: Definition, Characteristics and Types' [Online]. Available
at: https://www.questionpro.com/blog/research-design/. [Accessed 20 May 2019].

Böetger, J.F. & Rathbone, M. 2016. 'The Marikana Massacre, Labou and Capitalism:
Towards A Ricoeurian Alternative'. *Koers-Bulletin for Christian Scholarship,* 81 (3),
pp. 1-7.

Boslaugh, S. 2007. *An Introduction to Secondary Data Analysis.* Cambridge University
Press.

Bowden, H. 2008. 'The role of citizen journalism in modern democracy'. *BBC News.*
Available   at:
https://www.bbc.co.uk/blogs/theeditors/2008/11/the_role_of_citizen_journalism.htm
l. [Accessed 12 October 2018].

Bowman, S & Willis, C. 2003. 'WeMedia: How audiences are shaping the future of news
and information'. *The Media Center at the American Press Institute*, pp. 1-64.

Breen, G.M. & Matusitz, J. 2007. 'Unethical consequences of pack journalism'. *Global
Media Journal.* Orlando: University of Central Florida.

Brown, D. A. 1995. 'The role of ethics in sustainable development and environmental
protection decision making' In: Lemons, I and Brown, D. A (Eds.) *Sustainable
Development: Science, Ethics, and Public Policy.* Dordrecht: Klower Academic
Publishers, pp. 39-51.

Bruns, A. 2003. *Gatewatching and News Curation: Journalism, Social Media, and the
Public Sphere.* New York: Die Deutsche National bibliothek.

Buckingham, D. 2002. 'The Electronic Generation? Children and New Media. In L. Lievrouw & Livingstone (Eds.), The Handbook of New Media'. *Sage Journals.* Doi.org/10.4135/9781848608245.n7

Burkholder, C. 2009. 'Citizen journalism: blogging'. *Centre for Journalism Ethics School of Journalism and Mass Communication.* Madison: University of Wisconsin.

Bynum, T. & Schubert, P. 1997. "How to do Computer Ethics- A Case Study: The Electronic Mall Bodensee", in J. van den Haven (ed). *Computer Ethics-Philosophical Enquiry,* Rotterdam: Erasmus University Press, pp. 85-95.

Campbell, V. 2014. 'Theorizing Citizenship in Citizen Journalism'. *Journal: Digital Journalism*, 3 (5), pp. 704-719.

Carry, V. 2018. Social Movements and New Technology. Routledge.

Cashmore, P. 2006. 'MySpace, America's Number One'. *Mashable.* 11 July 2006. Available at: https://mashable.com/2006/07/11/myspace-americas-number-one/. [Accessed 27 May 2019].

Chehab, M. 2017. 'How to conduct a policy review'. DOI: 10.13140/RG.2.2.33840.15363

Cheney, D. 2017. *Collecting, Preserving and Transforming the News- for Research and the Public.* New York: University of Albany.

Christians, C. G, Rotzell, K. B. & Fackler, M. 1999. *Media ethics: Cases and moral reasoning.* New York: Longman.

Clarke, R. 2003. Non-Empirical Research Techniques [PowerPoint slides]. Available at:

http://www.anu.edu.au/people/Roger.Clarke/.....Res /51-NonEmp.ppt. [Accessed 9 April 2019].

Claymore, E. 2017.Nope, Miss South Africa wasn't arrested in the UK with 2Kg of cocaine. *The South African.com.*

Cohen, P. 2017. 'Journalistic Ethics: The four principles and the impact they can have' [Online]. Available at: https://medium.com/@pcohen2/journalistic-ethics-the-four-principles-and-the-impact-they-can-have-c638aaa97b2c [Accessed 16 April 2019].

Cowell, A. 2012. 'At British Inquiry, Murdoch Apologizes Over Scandal'. *The New York Times.* Available at: https://www.nytimes.com/2012/04/27/world/europe/ruperthttps://www.nytimes.com/2012/04/27/world/europe/rupert-murdoch-testimony-leveson-inquiry-day-2.html?_r=2&hpmurdoch-testimony-leveson-inquiry-day-2.html?_r=2&hp. [Accessed 21 April 2019].

Craiggi-Williams, G. 2018. The Rise of Citizen Journalism and Fake news. *Meddium.com.* 7 January 2018.

Creswell, J. W. 2009. 'Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches. 3rd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 1-16.

Dabbous, Y. T. 2010. "Blessed be the critics of newspapers": Journalistic criticism of journalism, 1865-1930. *Doctoral Dissertation*. Louisiana State University, pp. 719-737.

Daniels, G. 2018. 'A reflection on the media: consolidation and convergence or shriveling and sinking? *Daily Maverick*. 3 November 2018.

Davies, N. 2015. 'Marikana massacre: The untold story of the strike leader who died for workers' rights'. *The Guardian*. 19 May 2015.

Davis, R. 2019. 'Freedom of expression and assembly is here, but with definite limits'. *Daily Maverick.* 24 April 2019.

Deen, P. D. 2011. 'Interactivity, Inhibition and Pragmatistic Aesthetics'. *The international journal of computer game research,* 11 (2), pp. 6-18.

Denzin, N. K & Lincoln, Y. S. 2011. 'Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In Norman K. Denzin & Yvonna S. Lincoln (Eds.)', *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 1-20.

Douglas, M. 2015. 'Sources of data'. [Online]. Available at: https://www.academia.edu/34661351/Primary_Sources_of_Data_and_Secondary_Sources_of_Data. [Accessed 22 May 2019].

Driscoll, D. L. 2010. 'Introduction to Primary Research: Observations, Surveys, and Interviews'. *Writing Spaces.* San Fransisco, Carlifornia, pp 53-174.

Dubois, F. 2012. 'Internet Freedom and Journalism'. [Online]. Available at: https://www.apc.org. [Accessed 20 July 2018].

Dugan, M. A. 2007. 'Journalism Ethics and the Independent Journalist'. *McGeorge Law Review,* 39 (3), pp. 801-811.

Duncan, J. 2013. 'South African journalism and the Marikana massacre: A case study of an editorial failure'. *The Political Economy of Communication,* 1 (2), pp. 1-14.

Dudovskiy, J. 2019. 'Strengths and Limitations of Consequentialism Studies. *Stanford University.*

Enoch, T. X. 2008. *The impact of motivation on job satisfaction amongst employees of a national broadcaster.* University of Johannesburg.

Ess, C. 2009. *Digital Media Ethics: Digital Media and Society Series.* Cambridge: Polity Press, pp. 5-184.

Farlam Commission. 2015. *Marikana Commission Of Inquiry: Report On Matters Of Public, National And International Concern Arising Out Of The Tragic Incidents At The Lonmin Mine In Marikana, In The North West Province.* Centurion SA: Farlam Commission. Available at: https://www.sahrc.org.za/home/21/files/marikana-report-1.pdf. [Accessed 29 April 2019].

Farooq, U. 2015. 'Journalism Meaning, Definition and Scope of Journalism'. Available at:

http://www.studylecturenotes.com/journalism-mass-communication/journalism-definition-
        and-scope-of-journalism. [Accessed 2 June 2018].

Fidalgo, J. 2013. 'Journalism is changing- and what about journalism ethics?' *Portugal:*

University of Minho. Available
        at:http://repositorium.sdum.uminho.pt/bitstream/1822/29727/1/JF_Journalism%20ch
        ang es%20and%20ethics_IAMCR.pdf. [Accessed 2 June 2018].

Frantz, R. 2017. 'The Ethics of influence: Government in the age of behavioral science'.
        Journal of Behavioral Economics for Policy, 1 (1), pp. 79-80.

Froelich, T. 2004. 'A brief history of information ethics'. Available at:
        http://bid.ub.edu/13froel2.htm. [Accessed 29 May 2018].

Fuga, A. 2013. 'The Four Challenges Faced by the Albanian Media'. Available at:

https://en.ejo.ch/media-economics/challenges-albanian-media.   [Accessed   16   October
        2018].

Gandal, N. 2001. 'The dynamics of competition in the internet search engine market'.
        International Journal of Industrial Organization, 19 (7), pp. 103-1117.

Garcia, K. M. 2015. 'The Internal and External Influences on Individual Journalists'. *BS
        Dissertation.* California Polytechnic State University.

Genevieve, Q. 2015. "What you need to know about #FeesMustFall", 19 October 2015. *Mail
        and Guardian.* Retrieve. [Accessed 22 April 2019].

Glaser, M. 2006. 'Your Guide to Citizen Journalism'. Available at:

https://www.google.co.za/amp/mediashift.org/2006/09/your-guide-to-citizen-
        journalism270/amp/journalism270/amp/. [Accessed 14 July 2018].

Goodman, R. S & Steyn, E. eds. 2017. *Global Journalism Education in the 21ˢᵗ Century: Challenges and Innovations.* University of Texan, pp. 452-493.

Gumede, Y. R. 2017. 'Fake news: the internet has turned an age-old problem into a new threat'. *The Conversation*, 2 February 2017. [Accessed 03 May 2018].

Gonzalez. Jr, P.A. 2013. "Noam Chomsky Propaganda Model: A Critical Evaluation". *Doctoral Dissertation.* Saint Thomas University.

Habermas, J. 1991. 'The structural transformation of the public sphere: An inquiry into a category of bourgeois society'. *MIT press.*

Haigh, Wood, M & Stewart, A. 2016. 'Slippery slope arguments imply opposition to Change, Memory and Cognition'. *Springer*, 44 (5), pp. 819-836.

Hall, S, Clark J. N, Critcher C, Jefferson T & Roberts B. 1978. *Policing the crisis: Mugging, the state, and law and order.* London: Macmillan.

Hamilton, J.F. 2012. 'Citizen journalism: Emergence and the theoretical perspectives' *Encyclopaedia of Social Sciences,* pp.3-18.

Hansen, A, Cottle, S, Negrine, R &Newbold, C. 1998. *Mass communication research methods.* London: Macmillan.

Heinrich, A. 2011. *Network journalistic practice in interactive spheres.* New York: Routledge.

Hermans, L, Vermeer, M & D'Haenens, L. 2009. 'Internet in the Daily Life of Journalists: Explaining the use of the Internet by Work-Related Characteristics and Professional Opinions'. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication,* 15 (1).

Higginbottom, A. 2018. *The Marikana Massacre in South Africa: The Results of Toxic Collision.* Kingston University, pp. 1-17.

Holton, A.E, Coddington, M, Lewis, S & de Zuniga, H. 2015. 'Reciprocity and the News: The Role of Personal and Social Media Reciprocity'. *International Journal of Communication*, 9 (1), pp. 2526-2547.

Hong, Y. J. 2014. 'Framing Citizen Journalism in Mainstream News Coverage: A Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis (1999-2012)'. *Doctoral dissertation*. University of Minnesota.

Hooker. B. 2003. 'Rule Consequentialism'. *Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy.*

Howell, K. 2014. The Importance of Ethics in Journalism. [PowerPoint Slides] Available at: https://prezi.com/m/omq77c-uz-5a/the-importance-of-ethics-in-journalism/. [Accessed 19 May 2019].

Hughes, W. 2011. 'Citizen Journalism: Historical Roots and Contemporary Challenges'. *Honors College Capstone Experience/ Thesis Projects*, pp. 1-60.

Idumange, J. 2013. 'Basic Principles and Ethics of Social Media Practice'. *The Nigerian Voice.* Available at: https://www.thenigerianvoice.com/news/108441/basic-principles-and-ethics-of-social-media-practice.html. [Accessed 9 September 2018].

ISS Today. 2018, August 16. Marikana Scene 2 uncovered. 2018Available at: https://issafrica.org/iss-today/marikana-scene-2-uncovered. [Accessed 9 April 2019].

Johnson, D. G. 1997. 'Ethics online: Need for online communication ethics'. *Communications of the ACM Digital Library,* 40 (1), pp. 60-65.

Jurrut, N. 2011. 'Citizen Journalism and the Internet'. Available at: http://opensocietyfoundations.org/sites/default/files/mapping-digital-media-citizenjournalism-and-the-internet-2011072.pdf. [Accessed 05 May 2018].

Kanbur, R. 2017. 'Informality: Causes, Consequences and policy responses'. *Review of Development Economics,* 21 (4), pp. 215-227.

Kant, I. 1964. *Groundworks of the metaphysics of moral: translated and analyzed by H. J Paton.* New York: Harper Torchbooks.

Kant, I. 2011. 'Moral and Ethical Theory'. Available at: https://www.slideshare.net. [Accessed 18 October 2018].

Kaplan, K. A. 2003. 'Facemash Creator Survives Ad Board'. *The Harvard Crimson.* 19 November 2003. [Accessed 15 July 2018].

Kernohan, A. 2012. *Environmental Ethics: An Interactive Introduction.* Buffalo, New York: Broadview Press.

Kuhn, M. 2007. 'Interactivity and Prioritizing the Human'. *Journal of Mass Media Ethics,* 22 (1), pp. 18-36.

Lazer, D. M, Baum, M. A, Benkler, Y, Berinsky, A. J, & Greenhill, K. M, et al. 2018. 'The science of fake news'. *Science,* 359 (6380), pp. 1094-1096.

Ledwaba, L. 2012. The guns of Marikana. *City Press,* 19 August, p.4.

Lee, J. 2014. 'The Double Edged Sword: The effects of Journalist's Social Media Activities on Audience Perceptions of Journalists' and Their News Products'. *Journal of ComputerMediated Communication,* pp. 1-14.

Lenyaro, D. 2015. 'Wits fee increase suspended'. *Enca.com*

Le Roux, J. 2018. 'Exposed: The Unisa employee who manufactures fake news to divide SA'. *News24.com.* Available at: https://www.news24.com/SouthAfrica/News/how-fakenews-grabbed-hold-of-the-dros-rape-20181115. [Accessed 23 January 2019].

Lewis, S. C, Kaufhold, K & Lasorsa, D. L. 2010. 'Thinking about citizen journalism: The philosophical challenges of user-generated content for community newspapers'. *Taylor and Francis.* Available at: http://hdl.handle.net/11299/122405. [Accessed 24 July 2018].

Limburg, V. E. 1994. *Electronic Media Ethics.* University of Michigan: Focal Press, pp. 1-188.

Linden, C. 2017. 'Decades of Automation in the Newsroom: Why are there still so many jobs in journalism?' *Digital Journalism,* 5 (2), pp. 123-140.

Lloyd, L. 2013. 'South Africa's Media 20 Years After Apartheid'. *A Report to the Center for International Media Assistance*, pp. 8-45.

Lombardo, C. 2016. 'Pros and Cons of Citizen Journalism'. Available at: https://www.visionlaunch. [Accessed 29 November 2018].

Lombardo, C. 2015. '8 disadvantages and advantages of Utilitarianism'. *The Next Galaxy.* Available at: https://www.coursehero.com/file/p2djmjh/Lombardo-C-2015-Disadvantages-and-Advantages-of-Utilitarianism-online-The/. [Accessed 21 November 2018].

Lowen, C. 2007. 'South African Press Council launched'. *Journalism.com.*[Accessed 19 May 2019].

Malherbe, D. 2015. 'The Political Use of 'New Media' in the South African National Election'. *MA dissertation*. Stellenbosch University.

Marinovich, G. 2012. 'The Murder Fields of Marikana, The Cold Murder Fields of Marikana'. *Daily Maverick.* Available at: https://www.dailymaverick.co.za/article/2012-09-08- murder-fields-of-marikana-the-cold-murder-fields-of-marikana/. [Accessed 10 April 2019].

Marinovich, G. 2017. *Murder at Small koppie: The Real Story of South Africa's Marikana massacre.* East Lansing, MI: Michigan State Press.

McChesney, R. W. 2012. 'Fairwell to Journalism?: Time for a rethinking'. *Journalism Practice.* 6 (5-6), pp. 614-626.

McNaughton, D. 2010. Consequentialism. *Rawling Piers.* DOI: 104324/9780416249126LO13-2

Mdlongwa, F. 2009. *Doing Digital Media in Africa: Prospects, Promises and Problems.* South Africa: Konrad- Adenauer-Stiftung, pp. 4-166.

Meyer, L. E. 2911. 'Code of Ethics: The Difficultly of Defining Standards'. *A Report to the Center for international Media Association.*

Metz, C. 2016. 'WhatsApp Is Nearing A Billion Users-Now Its Time To Find The Money'. *Wired.* 18 June 2016. Available at: https://www.mercurynews.com/2013/05/06/youtubehttps://www.mercurynews.com/2013/05/06/youtube-providers-could-begin-charging-fees-this-week-2/providers-could-begin-charging-fees-this-week-2/. [Accessed 27 May 2019].

Mkhize, V. 2015. "Students Gather at Trafalgar Square in London". *Eye Witness News.* 23 October 2015. [Accessed 11April 2019].

Mpofu, D, Mpati, O & Reghana, T. 2014. 'Heads of Agreement On Behalf Of Injured And Arrested Persons Centurion, SA: Farlam Commission'. Available at:

http://www.marikanacomm.org.za/docs/201411-HoA-InjuredArrested.pdf. [Accessed 11 April 2019].

Mupfurutsa, H. 1999. *Ethical and Professional Issues in African Journalism.* Available at:

https://dehai.org/archived/dehai_archive/sept-oct05/0424.html [Accessed 20 November 2018].

Mwaura, J. 2014. 'The Practice of Citizen Journalism in Informal Settlements: A Study of Kibera News Network in Kenya'. *Masters Dissertation.* University of the Witwatersrand.

Nakaso, D. 2013. 'YouTube providers could begin charging fees this week'. *The Mercury News.* 6 May 2013. Available at:

https://www.mercurynews.com/2013/05/06/youtubehttps://www.mercurynews.com/2013/05/06/youtube-providers-could-begin-charging-fees-this-week-2/providers-could-begin-charging-fees-this-week-2/. [Accessed 27 May 2019].

Newman, N. 2011. 'Mainstream media and the distribution of news in the age of social discovery'. *Reuters Institute for the study of Journalism.* University of Oxford, pp. 6-57.

Nevitt, L. 2010. 'What's the Deal With the Toyi-Toyi? *Cape Town Magazine*. Available at:

https://www.capetownmagazine.com/whats-the-deal-with/toyi-toyi/125_22_17384.

[Accessed 9 April 2019].

Noor, R. 2017. 'Citizen Journalism vs Mainstream Journalism: A study on Challenges poses by Amateurs'. *Athens Journal of Mass Media and Communications*, 3 (1), pp. 55-76.

Norimitsu, O. 2015. 'South Africa Freezes Tuition Fees After Student Protests'. *The New York Times*. 23 October 2015. [Accessed 14 April 2019].

Ospina, S. 2004. 'Qualitative Research. *Encyclopaedia of Leadership,* SAGE Publications. London.Availableat:https://ualr.edu/interdisciplinary/files/2010/03/Qualitative_Research.pdf. [Accessed 17 May 2019].

Parr. B. 2015. What causes the rise of citizen journalism? [Online]. Available at: https://www.quora.com/What-causes-the-rise-of-citizen-journalism. [Accessed 22 August 2018].

Philips, S. 2007. 'A brief history of Facebook'. *The Guardian.* 25 July 2007. Available at:

https://www.theguardian.com/technology/2007/jul/25/media.newmedia. [Accessed 27 May 2019].

Pidduck, J. 2010. 'Citizen Journalism in Burma and the legacy of Graham Spry'. *Canadian Journal of Communications.* 35 (3), pp. 473-485.

Rahlaga, M. 2015. "No Punishment Planned For Protesting Wits Students". *Eye Witness News*. 17 October 2015. [Accessed 21 April 2019].

Ranjeni, M. 2015. "#FeesMustFall: Political failure triggers ticking time bomb". *Daily Maverick*. 21 October 2015. [Accessed 14 April 2019].

Reuter, B. 2017. 'Theory and Methodology of Exploring Social Science Research Government and International Affairs'. Faculty Publications. Available at: https://scholarcommons.usf.edu/cgi/viewcontent. [Accessed 22 May 2019].

Reid, J and Isaacs, T. 2015. 'Press regulation in South Africa: An analysis of the Press Council of South Africa, the press Freedom Commission and related discourses. *Media Policy and Democracy Project.*

Riaz, S. 2011. 'Role of Citizen Journalism in Strengthening Societies'. *Margalla Papers,* pp. 109-125.

Rodny-Gumede, Y. 2015. 'Marikana massacre: how South African journalists failed the test'. *The Conversation.* 25 November 2015. Available at:

http://theconversation.com/marikana-massacre-how-south-african-journalism-failedthe-test-51130. [Accessed 29 April 2019].

Rodriguez, S. 2012. 'Twitter flips the bird, adopts new logo'. *Los Angeles Times.* 6 June 2012. Available at:

https://web.archive.org/web/20120712062434/http://www.latimes.com/business/techno logy/la-fi-tn-twitter-new-bird-20120606%2C0%2C2138652.story. [Accessed 27 May 2019].

SAHRC. 2014. Written Submissions of the South African Human Rights Commission Regarding "Phase One". Centurion SA: Farlam Commission. Available at: http://www.marikanacomm.org.za/docs/201411-HoA-SAHRC.pdf. [Accessed 11 April 2019].

Seery, U and Seeber, M. 2012. *Media Landscape: Reflections on South Africa's media environment* . GCIS: Pretoria.

Sengupta, K. 2017. 'The last message left by Weistminster attacker'. *The Independent.* Available at: https://www.independent.co.uk/news/uk/crime/last-message-left-bywestminster-attacker-khalid-masood-uncovered-by-security-agencies-a7706561.html. [Accessed 21 April 2019].

Sesant, S. 2015. 'Eastern Cape 'ghost learners' mystery solved'. Available at: https://ewn.co.za/2016/06/08/Cape-ghost-learners-mystery-solved. [Accessed 12 April 2019].

Sharma, A. 2019. 'Instagram Marketing for Your Business and Brands in 2019'. *Business2Community.* Available at:

https://www.business2community.com/instagram/instagram-marketing-for-yourbusiness-and-brands-in-2019-02179168. [Accessed 27May 2019].

Shaw, I.S. 2009. 'Towards an African Journalism Model: A Critical Historical Perspective' *Sage Journals.* Doi.org/10.1177/1748048509339792

Singer, J. 2011. 'Journalism and Digital Technologies', in W. Lowrey & P. J Gase (ed). *Changing the News: The forces shaping journalism in uncertain times*. Oxford: Routledge, pp. 213-229.

Singh, A. S. 2014. 'Conducting Case study research in non-profit organisations. *Qualitative Market Research.*

Sinnott-Armstrong, W and Audi, R. 2003. '*Gert Contra Consequentialism In Rationality, Rules, and Ideals.* New York: Rowman and Littlefield.

Skjerdal, T.S. 2010. 'How reliable are journalists in exile?' *Sage Journals.* Doi.org/10.1177/0956474820383713

Smith, E. 2008. *Using secondary data in educational and social research.* New York: McGrau-Hill Education.

Sosibo, K. 2012. 'Marikana: Truth, memory and reportage'. *Mail and Guardian.* 1 December 2012. Available at: https://mg.co.za/article/2012-12-21-00-truth-memory-and-reportagethe-real-story-behind-the-massacre-at-marikana. [Accessed 29 April 2019].

Spinello, R. A & Tavani, H. T. 2001. *The Internet, ethical values, and conceptual frameworks: An Introduction to Cyberethics.* New York: ACM SIGCAS Computers and Society, pp. 1-226.

SPJ. 2014. Codeof Ethics. Available at: https://www.spj.org/ethicscode.asp. [Accessed 26 April 2019].

Stake, R.E. 2009. 'The case study method in social inquiry. In United Kingdom: SAGE Publications Ltd Case study method. 18–26. Available at: http://methods.sagepub.com/book/casestudy-method/d5.xml. [Accessed 17 May 2019].

Starmam, A. B. 2013. 'The Case study as a type of qualitative research'. *Journal of Contemporary Educational Studies.*

Stubbs, A. 1981. 'The Pros and Cons of Consequentialism'. *The Royal Institute of Philosophy,* 56 (218), pp. 497-516.

Stern, E. 2004. 'Evaluation Research Methods'. *SAGE Publications.* Available at: https://us.sagepub.com/en-us/nam/evaluation-research-methods/book226796. [Accessed 20 May 2019].

Stupart, R. 2012. 'The Night Before Lonmin's Explanation: African Scene'. *The Original.* Available at:

https://web.archive.org/web/20120820032247/http://www.africanscene.co.za/2012/08/t he-night-before-lonmins-explanation/. [Accessed 17 April 2019].

Thloloe, J. 2018. 'The Press Council's report to the nation' *City Press News. 9 September 2018.* [Accessed 17 May 2019].

Thomas, C. 2013. 'The development of joy in the face of social media: A study on social media's impact on a journalist's role, method and relationship to the audience'. *MC Dissertation.* University of Gothenburg.

Townsend, L & Wallace, C. 2017. 'The Ethics of Using Social Media Data in Research: A New Framework'. *The Ethics of Online Research: Advances in Research Ethics and Integrity,* 2 (1), pp. 189-207.

Trottier, D & Fuchs, C. 2014. 'Towards a theoretical model of social media surveillance in contemporary society'. *Communications,* 40 (1), pp. 113-135.

Turner, C. F. ,Miller, H. G., Moses, L. E. (Eds.). 1989. *AIDS, Sexual Behavior, and Intravenous Drug Use.* Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Vallentyne, P. 1987. 'The teleological/deontological distinction. *The Journal of Value Inquiry,* 21 (1), pp. 21-32.

Van Wyk, B. 2016. 'Research design and methods Part One: Post-Graduate Enrolment and Throughput'. University of the Western Cape.

Von der Pfordten, D. 2012. 'Five Elements of Narrative Ethics: A General Theory of Normative Individualism'. *Ethical Theory and Moral Practice,* 15 (4), pp. 449-471.

Vujnovic, W, Singer, J, Paulussen, S, Heinonen, A, Reich, Z, Quandt, T, Hermida, A & Domingo, D. 2010. 'Exploring the political-economic factors of participatory journalism'. *Journalism Practice,* 4 (3), pp. 285-296.

Wagener, C. 2016. 'Protesters on task to tell their own story'. Available at: https://witsvuvuzela.com/2016/09/29/protesters-take-on-task-to-tell-their-own-story/. [Accessed 13 April 2019].

Walton, M. N. 2014. 'Pavement internet and digital invisibility in the Marikana massacre. *Paper presented at Internet Research 15: The 15th Annual Meeting of the Association of Internet Researchers.* Daegu. Korea.

Watt, K. F & Allan, S. 2013. 'Journalism: New Challenges'. Available at: https://microsites.bournemouth.ac.uk/cjcrl. [Accessed 7 June 2018].

Ward, S. 2011. *Ethics and the media: An Introduction.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 2-268.

Williams, M. 2010. 'Reporter: I was paid to rescue Rasool agenda'. *Independent Online.* Available at: https://www.iol.co.za/news/politics/reporter-i-was-paid-to-pursue-rasool-agenda-488472. [Accessed 13 April 2019].

Yin, R. K. 2014. *Case study research: Design and methods*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Zainal, Z. 2007. 'Case study as a research method'. Available at: http://psyking.net/htmlobjM3837/case_study_as_a_research_method.pdf. [Accessed 26 May 2019].

Zimbizi, D. 2017. 'Framing the narrative: a comparative content analysis of how South African mainstream and alternative youth media reported on the 2015 student revolution'. Available at: https://hdl.handle.net/10539/24573. [Accessed 22 May 2019].