MANSCRIPT GUIDELINES REQUIRED BY EMERALD: INCLUDES STRUCTURED ABSTRACT

For all required guidelines and elements see:

Authors must supply a structured abstract set out under 4-7 sub-headings (250 WORDS MAXIMUM):

- Purpose
- Design/methodology/approach
- Findings
- Research limitations/implications (if applicable)
- Practical implications (if applicable)
- Social implications (if applicable)
- Originality/value

SAMPLE STRUCTURED ABSTRACT: POLICY


Purpose
This study examines the implementation of a community-level Sustainable Broadband Adoption Program (SBA) under the Broadband Technology Opportunities Program (BTOP), a national public policy program meant to expand broadband deployment and adoption under the American Recovery Act of 2009, and administered by the National Telecommunications and Information Administration (NTIA) at the U.S. Department of Commerce. The California Connects Program (CC) was administered by the Foundation for California Community Colleges (FCCC)

Methodology/approach
This chapter focuses on one part of CC’s efforts to expand broadband adoption among the most underserved Californians through collaboration with the Great Valley Center (GVC). CC-GVC provided basic computer and Internet classes to disconnected populations with low-literacy levels, and primarily in Spanish, through community-based organizations, public schools, public libraries, small businesses, and others in the Central Valley, an 18 county rural region with a high concentration of digital destitute populations. The program worked with under-resourced local community institutions with a range of poor technology resources and that operated under variable set of social, economic, political, and institutional conditions. Through inductive, process-oriented, and explanatory case study research, the structure, strategy, and training approach of CC was examined. Content and theme analysis of primary and secondary qualitative and quantitative data involving the program’s leadership, direct service providers, partners, participants, and nonparticipants was conducted. This involved a sample of 600 in-depth and short, structured and unstructured interviews and focus groups, archival and participant observation notes.

Findings
It was found that CC-GVC was able to meet uncertainty and operated with low institutional resources and paucity of linguistically appropriate teaching resources for new entrants through a flexible leadership approach that adapted to the social situation and was open to innovation. Community technology trainers were also able to engage those without or little direct experience with computers and with low-literacy levels with a linguistically appropriate and culturally sensitive step-by-step teaching approach that empowered and met people where they are. The author expands non-adoption models to include structural barriers in the analysis of the disconnected. It is argued that non-adoption is a result of evolving inequality processes fueled by poverty and under-resourced community development institutions and that teaching and learning is a social and institutional process that takes trust and time.
Practical Implications
CC shows that even the most disadvantaged can be empowered to learn-to-learn to use computers and can begin to function online and gain benefit under the most extreme institutional and economic conditions, but it takes more time and resources than providers expected and the Recovery Act provided.”

SAMPLE STRUCTURED ABSTRACT II: CONTENT ANALYSIS AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS


“Purpose
Do public opinion and political sentiments expressed on Twitter during election campaign have a meaning and message? Are they inferential, that is, can they be used to estimate the political mood prevailing among the masses? Can they also be used to reliably predict the election outcome? To answer these in the Indian context, the 2014 general election was chosen.

Research design
Tweets posted on the leading parties during the voting and crucial campaign periods were mined and manual sentiment analysis was performed on them.

Findings
A strong and positive correlation was observed between the political sentiments expressed on Twitter and election results. Further, the time periods during which the tweets were mined were found to have a moderating effect on this relationship.

Practical implications
This study showed that the month preceding the voting period was the best to predict the vote share with Twitter data—with 83.9% accuracy.

Social implications
Twitter has become an important public communication tool in India, and as the study results reinstate, it is an ideal research tool to gauge public opinion.”

SAMPLE STRUCTURED ABSTRACT III: QUALITATIVE CONTENT ANALYSIS AND THEORY


“Purpose
The study seeks to introduce a new media model that (1) clearly illustrates the role of mass media in the transmission of cultural messages, and (2) helps to explain variations in the reception and employment of cultural messages by members of the same culture.
**Design/methodology/approach**

Drawing on decades of theorizing in cultural sociology and communication studies, as well as data from two qualitative content analyses, a new model was developed, explained, and then applied to a specific cultural phenomenon.

**Findings**

Mass media are significant transmitters of cultural messages and play an influential role in shaping culture, yet the process is complex. There is great variety in what messages are accepted by different consumers, how they are interpreted, and how they ultimately are employed (or not). Further, cultures that include contradictory messages are more likely to inadvertently promote deviant paths to culturally valued goals.

**Research limitations/implications**

First, the model only addresses one dimension of the relationship between mass media and culture; it does not explain cultural influences on mass media. Second, the model does not specifically address recent changes in the media landscape, though an accommodation is suggested. Finally, the model needs additional testing before its utility can be reasonably determined.

**Originality/value**

First, a new model is introduced that clearly illustrates the complex process by which cultural messages are transmitted to receivers via mass media. Second, the model introduces the concept of “cultural capacity” to complement existing concepts and advance understanding of the operation of culture.

**SAMPLE STRUCTURED ABSTRACT IV: STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND INTERVIEWS**


“Purpose

In recent times the relationship between social stratification and internet use has become more complex. In order to understand the new configuration of the digital divide, this chapter examines the relationship between socioeconomic background and digital engagements among youths.

**Methodology**

This study explores digital inequalities among Italian teenagers from a holistic perspective. It draws on primary data obtained with a triangulation of methods: a survey on a representative sample of 2,025 high school students and 56 semi-structured interviews with teenagers from different social classes.

**Findings**

The statistical models indicate that cultural capital and parents’ occupational status do not associate with broader social media use but are positively related with online information-seeking. The interpretative analysis suggests that teenagers from the upper-middle class in licei make sense of the internet “vertically,” in affiliation with parental socialization and are more concerned with capital enhancing activities. Instead, teenagers from less advantageous social contexts appropriate the internet “horizontally,” jointly with peers, and are mostly interested in social-networking and UGC production.

**Practical implications**

School track, along with parents’ socio-economic status and cultural capital, influences teenagers’ internet use. Further studies could explore whether school tracking contributes to digital inequalities.
Originality
The study extends Annette Lareau’s theory of parenting styles and social reproduction, but also obtains innovative results related to digital inequalities among youth. Contrary to expectations, teenagers from less advantageous social backgrounds enrolled in vocational schools have better chances to actively participate in social media than teens from the upper-middle class in academic-oriented high schools.”

SAMPLE STRUCTURED ABSTRACT V: AGGREGATED DATA SETS AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS


Purpose: This study investigated the association between structural conditions and social incentives and their effect on the ethnic composition of mobile social networks. Regarding structural conditions, we examined the role of the ethnic group’s size, socio-economic status and heterogeneity of the city in which the business was located. Regarding social incentives, we investigated the social diversification hypothesis, which expects that residually and socially segregated minority groups will take advantage of mobile communications to diversify their mobile communication ties with out-group members.

Design: Two data sets were used. The first was the aggregation of the mobile communication patterns of business customers as measured by one of Israel’s cell phone operators in April 2010. The database included 9,099 call data records. The second was a data set of the social characteristics of 103 Israeli cities from the Israeli Bureau of Statistics. Both data sets were merged according to the place of residence of each customer.

Findings: Israeli Arab businesses in homogeneous Jewish and mixed cities operate in an environment with more structural opportunities to create out-group ethnic ties than Arab businesses in homogeneous Arab cities. Jewish businesses in ethnically mixed cities have more out-group mobile ties than comparable businesses in homogenous Jewish cities.

Implications: We expand previous models and suggest a structural diversification approach in which ethnic mobile social networks vary across homogeneous and ethnically mixed cities. These variations result in different social incentives as the diversification approach assumed, as well as different structural conditions, as the structural approach indicates.”

SAMPLE STRUCTURED ABSTRACT VI: INTERVIEWS AND CONTENT ANALYSIS


Purpose: To understand the phenomena of people revealing regrettable information on the Internet, we examine who people think they’re addressing, and what they say, in the process of interacting with those not physically or temporally co-present.

Design/methodology/approach:
We conduct qualitative analyses of interviews with student bloggers and observations of five years’ worth of their blog posts, drawing on linguists’ concepts of indexical ground and deictics. Based on analyses of how bloggers reference their
shared indexical ground and how they use deictics, we expose bloggers’ evolving awareness of their audiences, and the relationship between this awareness and their disclosures.

Findings:
Over time, writers and their regular audience, or “chorus,” reciprocally reveal personal information. However, since not all audience members reveal themselves in this venue, writers’ disclosures are available to those observers they are not aware of. Thus, their over-disclosure is tied to what we call the “n-adic” organization of online interaction. Specifically, and as can be seen in their linguistic cues, N-adic utterances are directed towards a non-unified audience whose invisibility makes the discloser unable to find out the exact number of participants or the time they enter or exit the interaction.

Research implications:
Attention to linguistic cues, such as deictics, is a compelling way to identify the shifting reference groups of ethnographic subjects interacting with physically or temporally distant others.

Originality/value:
We describe the social organization of interaction with undetectable others. N-adic interactions likely also happen in other on- and offline venues in which participants are obscured but can contribute anonymously.”

SAMPLE STRUCTURED ABSTRACT VI: SURVEY DATA AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS


“Research Questions
This article makes a significant contribution to the growing field of digital inequality research by developing an operational definition of emotional costs. To examine this understudied aspect of digital inequalities, we build on Van Dijk’s concept of mental access. We define emotional costs as anxiety toward using information and communication technologies instigated by a lack of prior technology experience and limited computer access.

Data and Methods
We examined the influence of emotional costs on lower-income students’ technology efficacy, academic efficacy, and computer application proficiency in the context of a computing intervention. Specifically, we examined the relationship between home and school computer usage with self-perceived technology efficacy, computer application proficiency, and academic efficacy. Data from surveys of 972 students were analyzed in order to better understand the importance of technology access on our outcome variables. We also investigated the possible mediation effects of emotional costs on our outcome variables.

Findings
The results revealed that home computer access was a determinant of students’ self-perceived technology efficacy while shared school access was not. After conducting mediation tests, the results further indicated that emotional costs mediate the effects of home computer access on technology efficacy.

Value and Contributions
We conclude that emotional costs might help explain why access inequalities lead to skill inequalities in the context of computing interventions and offer a replicable operational definition for future studies.”

THE INTERVIEWS WITH SNOWBALL SAMPLE


“Data and Methods

For this study I recruited 20 interview participants using snowball sampling. Twelve participants are married without children, four are married with children, and the rest are engaged or in cohabiting relationships. Females make up two thirds of the sample (13 out of 20). Couples use and view technology differently depending on age and relationship length (Lenhart & Duggan, 2014). Thus, the sample was chosen with variation in age: eight participants are around age 30, seven participants around age 40, and the remaining five around age 50. Age groups also roughly correspond to relationship phases with different household responsibilities and needs for communication. The group around age 30 mainly consists of young, childless couples, those around age 40 are raising small children, and the last group usually has teenage children in the home. All participants hold a Bachelor’s degree or higher, which strengthens the generalizability of the results compared to all-student samples, even if highly educated individuals are overrepresented relative to the population at large. Highly educated individuals tend to spend more time using the Internet and smartphones (Pew Research Center, 2014b; Smith, 2015). Hence, the findings from this study may be skewed towards couples with greater embeddedness of technology in their daily life, and I would caution against generalizing findings from this study to other demographic groups.

The interviews were conducted in two waves, with seven interviews completed in 2013 and the remainder in 2015. The interviews took place in-person (n = 10), over the phone (n = 8), or via video calls (n = 2). They on average lasted about an hour, from a minimum of 40 minutes to a maximum of 80 minutes. The participants provided information about their ownership of digital devices and general use of technology in the workplace and at home. This information is important because general skills in technology and the level of dependence of work on technology may explain the choice of media in relational communication. Moreover, the participants reported all communication channels that they use with their partners and discussed phone call, text message, or email conversations with their partners based on cell phone or computer records. The interviews also collected data about the participants’ preferences for communication technology and their view on the advantages and disadvantages of technology use on relationship maintenance. The participants in this study discussed interactions with their partners without the presence of their partners. Although it would be valuable to talk to couples together about technology use in their relationships, individual reports are justified in this case because the participants are discussing interactions in which they themselves took part. Furthermore, they can use electronic records on cell phones or computers to help them reflect on the interactions (see Appendix on interview methodology).

The interviews were recorded and transcribed for analysis. I analyzed the data in the qualitative analysis software NVivo from QSR International. After reading the transcripts several times to get familiar with the data, I coded the transcripts and looked for similarity and contrast between cases (Esterberg, 2002). The analysis began during the interview process, and some interview questions were revised or added to better address the research question in subsequent interviews. Saturation has been attained as the last few interviews yielded very similar themes identified in earlier interviews and no new relevant information emerged (Small, 2009).”
“Using structured interviews with a convenience sample, 28 women of the baby boomer and silent generations shared their narratives concerning their adoption and use of computers, social media, Skype, and cell phones/smart phones. (Six additional women were not interviewed because they did not use computers, yielding an interview completion rate of 82%.) The research methodology received prior approval by the investigators’ IRB. Data were collected largely over the summer of 2011. Women were identified as potential interviewees through researcher contacts in community organizations, volunteer activities, church groups, political events, assisted living facilities and Facebook game players. Women in the sample ranged in age from 52 to 90. Fourteen percent had a high school education; the rest had attended or graduated from college. Eighteen percent were African-American. Eleven percent were widows, 7% divorced. See Table 1 for sample demographics. In this report, all women have been assigned pseudonyms, drawn from the 100 most common female names for the decade of their birth as reported by the U. S. Social Security Administration.

This research focuses on women for two reasons. First, women continue to lag men in their adoption and use of the internet. Zichuhr and Smith (2012) report that 76% of U. S. women compared to 80% of men use the internet. For older adults (over age 65), the divide is even greater, with 55% of senior women compared to 65% of senior men using the internet or email (Pew Research, 2014). We did not want the effects of the digital divide to influence our understanding of the process of adoption of social media. Second, women are the kin-keepers of families. Older women in particular may therefore have different reasons for using social media and may employ family relationships in gender-specific ways. This research examines baby boomer and silent generation women and their adoption of online social networking.

Table 1: Sample Demographics (N=28)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baby Boomers</td>
<td>75% (n=21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silent Generation</td>
<td>25% (n=7)</td>
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</tbody>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>MARITAL STATUS</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Currently Married</td>
<td>82% (n=23)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>11% (n=3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>7% (n=2)</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>EDUCATION</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High School Only</td>
<td>14% (n=4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some College or Trade School</td>
<td>32% (n=9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-Year College Graduate</td>
<td>54% (n=15)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPUTER USERS (of 34 women approached for interviews)</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>82% (n=28)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>18% (n=6)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Procedures

Interviews were conducted by two of the three investigators, and were completed either face to face or by telephone. The individual structured interviews (see Appendix for a copy of the interview instrument) lasted between
15 minutes and an hour; this wide variation can be understood by realizing that some women in the sample provided much more narrative and many more examples and stories throughout the interview process. Jotted notes and notes in shorthand were immediately transcribed into direct observation notes (interview notes), largely verbatim records of interviewee responses. Inference notes were tied to direct observation notes. Analytic memos were shared among interviewers following data collection.

Data Analysis
Data were coded using a 3-phase methodology of open, axial and selective coding (Strauss, 1987) and entered into SPSS for further analysis. Microsoft Word was also used to create panels and clusters for subsequent analysis. Qualitative analysis followed an inductive approach, utilizing the illustrative method with parallel demonstration (Bonnell, 1980; Skocpol, 1984). Common themes emerged, and the data were reviewed multiple times in verbatim state to confirm the patterns. From the verbatims, quotations were selected to represent the common themes.

SAMPLE III DATA AND METHODS: MIXED METHODS DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND QUESTIONNAIRES


“Methodology
The purpose of this research is to provide insight into the experience of gamers who have come into contact with LGBT content in games, and to examine the ways in which they react and respond to such content.

We employed a mixed methods approach. Some basic statistics were needed on the respondents, such as the distribution of gender and sexuality, and their age. For this, quantitative data seemed to be more appropriate. However, a deeper understanding of their experience with playing games that had LGBT content was also required, which was achievable through the collection of qualitative data (in the form of open questions). One of the most efficient ways of fulfilling both of these needs was the adoption of a questionnaire that incorporated both open and closed questions. By incorporating both types of data, it was then possible, through bivariate analysis and comparisons between the respondents’ answers to open-ended questions with their demographics, to examine potential differences between males and females, and respondents varying in their sexual orientations. The terms ‘heterosexual’, ‘homosexual’ and ‘bisexual’ were used for universal clarity in the questionnaire, as there is a range of possible terminology used by people of different sexual orientations. To be consistent we continued using these terms in the analysis.

As compares with the method of forum analysis employed by Slobogian (2011), an online survey provided a more direct way of researching how gamers are responding to LGBT content in games. The adoption of an online survey also allowed the respondents to complete the questionnaire at their own convenience, which was important, given the likelihood that respondents were from different geographical locations and time zones. The questionnaire contained both open and closed questions, which served the purpose of eliciting the necessary quantitative and qualitative data. In many ways online questionnaires can help to provide more honest answers from respondents who don’t feel the same need to perform the appropriate response as they do in face-to-face interactions, resulting in less chance of what Lensuelt-Mulders (2008) calls the ‘socially desirable answer’ (also partly suggested to by Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998).

The final questionnaire consisted of a total of 19 questions (5 open and 14 closed), which covered a variety of topics, including: demographic information, engagement with various forms of sexuality in games and in the real world; and the general response of gamers to a wider repertoire of sexuality in video games (see Appendix A).
This questionnaire was posted on the BioWare forum website on December 1st 2014, and remained there for approximately one week. The Bioware Forum was selected because it functions as what is described as “a community discussion board” (Haque and Swicegood, 2014:223). At the time in which this research was conducted, the site had an approximate user population of 500,000.

The questionnaire initially yielded a total of 140 responses over the course of a week. Subsequently, 11 respondents were removed because they had not completed the main parts of the questionnaire, leaving a total of 129 respondents. However, it emerged that of the 129 respondents, 25 did not list games from the Dragon Age series as games that they had played and were therefore removed. This left a final number of 104 respondents in the sample. The use of such ‘convenience sampling’ (Bryman, 2012; Bernard and Ryan, 2010) implied a potential self-selection bias among respondents. However, this is mitigated by our acknowledgement that generalisation is not the goal; a case study such as this one doesn’t allow for generalisation (Yin, 2013) but can provide a springboard for further research (Bryman, 2012).

**Ethical Considerations**

Ethics remain a central concern in research. Kozinets (2010) makes the point that when research is conducted online, ethical considerations remain important and in some ways can increase in complexity. Ethical considerations came to the fore with the intimate topic of respondents’ sexuality and their response to others’ sexualities in games Accordingly, ethical considerations were included within all levels of the research process.

Consent is an important aspect of ethics within this research. As all of the data came from those who replied to the questionnaire, an outline of the purpose and aims of the research was attached as a coversheet to the questionnaire itself, and was a part of the original post to the forum. In this way, the respondents gave their ‘implied consent’, as they were notified that they could cease taking part in the questionnaire at any time if they became uncomfortable or did not want to continue. Therefore, those who took the time to respond to the questionnaire did so of their own volition.

The emphasis on the privacy and anonymity of respondents was stressed in both the original post on the Bioware Forum, and on the opening page of the questionnaire as well. The respondents who took part in the questionnaire did so without having to give their names (real or screen names). The purpose of this was to avert soliciting socially desirable answers (Lensuelt-Mulder, 2008) where respondents, particularly in relation to sensitive issues, sometimes alter their views when they know that they can be identified.”

**SAMPLE IV ARCHIVAL EVIDENCE AND INTERVIEWS**


“Rather than simply compare print magazines to online magazines, I draw on in-depth interviews and field-level archival data to describe the coupling between digital technologies and neoliberalism as interpreted by avant-garde literary editors and writers.

**Methods**

In order to assess the relationship between neoliberalism and digital technologies in the literary field, I inductively identify when and to what extent each cultural logic accompanies the discourse of digital technologies. My data consist of semi-structured in-depth interviews and the 2013 and 2014 conference programs of the Association of Writers and Writing Programs.

**Data**
Interviews were conducted with 23 editors representing a total of 31 distinct literary magazines and small presses. All respondents were also writers, and all but one lived and worked in the United States. I selected respondents by first randomly sampling from the table of contents page of the 2008-2012 volumes of the Best American Series, which is an anthology of what are considered by many in the field to be among the best short stories written in the past year. In order to sample a broader range of editors, I also sampled based on previous respondents’ discussions of literary magazines and editors/writers whom they either admire or disdain. This purposive sampling strategy was ideal for gathering interpretations from a range of social actors in the field (see Weiss, 1994). Given the polar structuration of the avant-garde literary field (Bourdieu, 1983), my goal was to include established editors/writers who work for older, well-known literary magazines as well as editors/writers who recently established their own magazines and literary blogs (whom I term “start-up” editors). In addition, I sought to include editors/writers from magazines that were housed in and funded by universities and those that are institutionally independent journals (or, “indie”). I also sampled editors from small presses. Table A1 in the appendix provides details on the positions and literary affiliations of all respondents. The shortest interview lasted 36 minutes and the longest lasted 2 hours and 10 minutes. Interviews averaged 90 minutes.

Conducted between 2013 and 2014, these interviews asked respondents about their daily work as editors, their general views on the literary world, and their uses of, and beliefs about, various forms of digital technologies. With respect to questions about digital technology, I began by asking open-ended questions about whether digital technologies have presented any problems or opportunities for their magazines or for literary practice more broadly. I followed up with specific questions about how each editor/writer used specific technologies (e.g., online submissions managers and website traffic systems) and social media platforms (e.g., Facebook and Twitter) as editors of magazines as well as in their lives as writers. I also sought their perceptions of how other editors/writers were using digital technologies in order to elicit their evaluative judgements (Lamont, 2012) of alternative practices (see Asad & Bell, 2014) and their sense of the implications of digital technologies on the field. These questions allowed me to assess the cultural logics sustaining their subjective practices (see Chong 2013, p. 269).

The AWP conference programs for 2013 and 2014 were downloaded from the AWP website. My data consist of the listings of the schedule of events for each program year. An annual conference attended by writers as well as editors who set up booths to promote their magazines and small presses, AWP is the largest writer’s conference in the United States. Despite its size, it attracts editors/writers who would consider themselves to be “indie,” “avant-garde,” or “literary” as opposed to editors/writers who would consider themselves to be popular commercial players in the broader literary field. Each year, the listings for the conference program are selected from members’ submissions by a committee representing AWP’s general membership. Therefore, the listings serve as an institutional representation of the interests and concerns of the American avant-garde literary field.

Analysis

In analyzing both the interviews and the AWP conference program, I coded for instances in which the interview respondent or the program event listing mentioned digital technologies, such as social media, blogs, online journals, online submissions managers, and website traffic systems. I then coded how digital technologies were described—the value placed on them, their relevance for the creation, distribution, or promotion of literary magazines and/or individual writers, and the way neoliberal logics were employed, or rejected, as justifications for the use of digital technologies. With respect to the AWP event listings, I first restricted the sample of listings to panels and readings, thereby excluding listings for the book fair, conference registration, and evening dance parties—listings which would not give a sense of the thematic interests of the editors/writers in attendance. This sample restriction resulted in 500 total event listings for AWP 2013 and 552 total event listings for AWP 2014. Second, I coded for event listings that mentioned the use of digital technologies in the editing of literary magazines and small presses, in everyday writing and publishing, or in the distribution of magazines or books. This excluded a few event listings from the analysis, such as events that mentioned digital technology use in the classroom. In total, I identified 27 event listings in AWP 2013 and 43 event listings in AWP 2014 that mentioned the use of digital technologies. I refer to these event listings as “digital events.” Finally, among these digital events, I coded whether the digital event justified digital technologies by drawing positively (“in favor of”) or negatively (“opposed to”) on one or more of the five neoliberal logics—if at all. While there is a marked increase in the proportion of digital events from 2013 to 2014 (5.4 percent to 7.8 percent, respectively) as well as in the frequency with which neoliberal logics are mentioned among these events, there is a consistent trend in how digital events draw on neoliberal logics across both years (see Table A2 in the appendix).
“Municipal Wi-Fi

Austin’s municipal Wi-Fi network is a decentralized mesh network installed by Cisco Systems as a demonstration for the 2006 World Congress on Information Technology or WCIT (Cisco Systems Inc., 2006; Selden, 2006). It originally covered only areas of downtown Austin where WCIT events were held, but further expansion that year led to coverage in parts of East Austin, which has historically been home to marginalized minority groups in Austin. Although Cisco primarily built the mesh network with economic development in mind, expanding to East Austin was an effort to extend outdoor Internet access to a disadvantaged neighborhood. Currently, the City of Austin treats the mesh network as a legacy service. While the network is still available in areas of East Austin, the only mention of the network is on a deprecated page at the city’s old web presence. In order to use the network, an individual needs to know about its presence. It appears when Wi-Fi devices scan for open networks, but in 2010, when the data was collected, fewer people used smartphones or tablets and were less likely to use Wi-Fi enabled devices in public areas. Economic capital is a factor in using this and other open Wi-Fi networks, but use of the network also engages techno-capital, since users may have learned about the network when a laptop was scanning, or social capital, learning about the network through word or mouth. Users likely expect open Wi-Fi at most Austin coffee-shops, but they may not know Wi-Fi is available in public squares and parks in particular parts of the city. Techno-capital is further engaged since users must click through an agreement to go online. It is unclear if the municipal open Wi-Fi network serves disadvantaged groups or if it is merely an amenity for technophiles.

Methods

This study relies on data collected from a survey administered by the City of Austin’s Office of Telecommunications and Regulatory Affairs and members of this research team. After the data was collected, the primary author of this paper formulated the research questions; from this perspective, this study is based on secondary data analysis. The survey instrument was sent by mail to 15,000 homes in the city limits. The core sample was 12,000 addresses, and in an effort to ensure that Latino households were represented in the data set, an additional 3000 surveys were sent to homes in ZIP codes identified as having a high concentration of Latino households. The survey was distributed in both English and Spanish. The survey was administered in November 2010. Out of the 15,000 recipients, 1,701 responded to the survey and returned a completed instrument. The simple response rate was 11.3%. Despite the oversampling for Latino-majority ZIP codes, compared to Census 2010 data, the survey did not perfectly represent the demographics of the city: respondents were better educated, older and more likely to be women or white. Based on feedback from the city’s demographer, a member of the initial team weighted the survey data on the basis of gender, age, education, and racial or ethnic identification to better reflect the population of the city. Although the response rate of the survey was low, it was within established expectations for contemporary survey response rates. Table 1 provides an overview of the weighting of the survey data.

The items on the survey were developed to gain a broad understanding of the extent of technology use among residents and how technology is integrated into their lives. The primary author of this study had minimal input into the items in the questionnaire, and it was not designed for the research questions of this study. In addition to general questions about whether respondents owned computing devices and had Internet service, questions dug deeper into two areas, use of technology related to government services and issues of social capital, which relate to the primary research questions when the survey was administered. The survey questionnaire has 105 questions tapping media usage, sociodemographic background, and other pertinent factors.

To measure educational capital, this study used the respondents’ parents’ highest level of education to measure the educational habitus of respondents. The educational capital index used an item that asked respondents to indicate their
parents’ highest degree earned, which was coded from 1 to 5, where 1 indicates less than high school and 5 indicates a graduate or professional degree. The index uses the average of the parents’ education, rounding up for a 1-5 scale.

One section of the survey asked respondents “Where do you use the Internet?” with options such as “at home,” “at work,” and “at school.” The first research question used affirmative responses to the item “at a coffee shop” for identifying respondents who use coffee-shop Wi-Fi. Given the prevalence of Wi-Fi access at coffee shops in Austin, it is presumed that respondents who use the Internet at coffee shops are using Wi-Fi provided to patrons by the establishment. In sum, 22.09% of respondents, after weighting, said they used the Internet at the coffee shop, suggesting that it is not an unusual practice, but not one that is common across the city. A second set of questions asked respondents about specific technologies they use to access the Internet. The options included dial-up, DSL, cable modem, and the system examined in this paper, a free Wi-Fi network operated by the city. Affirmative responses to the municipal Wi-Fi item are used to identify users of the municipal network. The city’s Wi-Fi mesh network system was only used by 7.3% of respondents after weighting, suggesting that it is not widely used. This can be explained in part by the fact that the free wireless network only covers portions of downtown and a traditionally Latino neighborhood close to downtown. Individuals with and without home broadband, defined here as DSL or cable modem service, used coffee-shop Wi-Fi and the wireless mesh network at roughly the same rate. Differences in use between broadband users and non-users were not statistically significant, which may suggest that these services are substitutes for home broadband for some users.

For the second set of questions related to the concept of techno-capital, techno-capital is operationalized through an index based on survey items related to computer activities. The techno-capital index aggregates responses from seven questions that asked respondents to rate their confidence with common computer tasks. Respondents rated their level of comfort or confidence on a one to five scale with five indicating the highest level of confidence. Responses to these questions were averaged, showing the techno-capital index as a quasi-continuous variable ranging from one to five.

The survey asked respondents to evaluate their comfort with the following tasks on a 1-5 scale.

- Uploading content (examples videos, photos, music) to a website
- Blocking spam or unwanted content
- Adjusting my privacy settings on a website
- Bookmarking a website or adding a website to my list of favorites
- Comparing different sites to verify the accuracy of information
- Creating and managing my personal profile on a social network site
- Creating and managing my own personal website

The responses to these questions were averaged to create the techno-capital index, which used these questions as a proxy for broader comfort and fluency with computing and network technology. Overall, the average self-assessment for these questions was 3.945 out of five; generally, responses tilted toward the high end of the scale. The item for “creating and managing my own personal website” had the lowest average response at 3.087 and the greatest variance. “Bookmarking a website or adding a website to my list of favorites” had the highest average response at 4.47 out of 5 and also the lowest variance, suggesting that nearly all respondents felt fairly comfortable bookmarking websites. Cronbach’s alpha for the techno-capital index is 0.8912, which according to standards reflects a “good” degree of covariance. The table and chart below present the relative means of both weighted and unweighted data. Contrary to the broad hypothesis of this project, weighting the data generally increased the means of the individual survey items as well as the techno-capital index.

Analysis for the first research question relies on weighted descriptive statistics that show what proportion of a demographic group use each the Wi-Fi contexts. Results show the weighted row proportion, what percentage of the independent variable uses the dependent variable. Results where p is greater than .05 based on the Pearson chi-square are considered statistically significant in this paper. Results that are not statistically significant are not reported. Similarly, analysis for the second research question, which uses the techno-capital index, uses weighted means and p-values based on an F test."
SAMPLE VI ONLINE SURVEY AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS


Procedure
We recruited participants via Amazon’s Mechanical Turk website (MTurk; http://www.mturk.com), a large crowdsourcing platform that pays people to perform various tasks. MTurk has been increasingly used for subject recruitment in social sciences (Chandler & Kapelner, 2013; Casler et al., 2013; Berinsky, Huber, & Lenz, 2012). Furthermore, MTurk respondents were found to be representative of the U.S. population (Berinsky et al., 2012) and more favorably diverse than the student or other convenience samples (Casler et al., 2013; Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Berinsky et al., 2012), as well as able to produce high-quality data (Casler et al., 2013).

We posted three identical Human Intelligence Tasks (HITs), with a link to a Qualtrics online survey for each age cohort on MTurk between December 2013 and January 2014. We restricted participation to MTurk workers who not only currently live in the US but also belong to one of the three generational groups: SGI (born before 1946), Older Boomer (born 1946-1954), and Millennial (born 1977-1992). After completing the 15-minute survey, participants were asked to enter a randomly generated survey completion code into the MTurk HIT to validate their completion and receipt of a post-participation incentive of $0.76.

Sample
We collected a final sample of 559 responses for data analysis, after excluding data from 31 respondents who did not fall into the three generational cohorts, 26 who had participated in a previous survey on the same topic in October 2013, and 40 for failing the quality control check.

Among the 559 participants, 156 of them were SGIs, 190 were older boomers, and 213 were Millennials. About half of participants (49.7%) were female, whose age ranged from 22 to 85 years old (M = 52.6, SD = 19.5). Most participants were Caucasian (82.6%) with the rest of the sample being 7.7% Asian, 7% African American, and 6.3% Hispanic or Latino. The average amount of education completed was 15 years. The median household income was between $25,000 and $49,999. About half of the participants were married or living with a partner (49.2%) and 31.7% were single. More than three quarters of participants (76.7%) currently use online banking (See Appendix).

Measures
 Except when noted, all items were rated using a five-point Likert-type scale anchored by “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree.”

Age/Generational Cohort Membership. We asked participants to indicate their birth year. A ratio-level variable was then created by subtracting the reported birth year from 2014, and was used in some analyses, while we used the generational cohort membership as a categorical IV in other analyses.

Institutional Trust. Participants responded to four statements; three of which were adapted from Pavlou’s (2003) measure of web retailer trust: “My online bank is trustworthy,” “My online bank keeps its promises and commitments,” and “I trust my online bank because they keep my best interests in mind.” We added a fourth item: “My online banking transactions are secure”. Items were averaged into a single variable upon satisfactory factor and reliability analyses (Eigenvalue = 2.67, % of Variance Explained = 66.66%, Cronbach’s α = .888).

System Trust. We developed three items: “The online banking website has enough safeguards to make me feel comfortable using it for my personal business,” “I feel assured that the legal and technological structures of the online banking website adequately protect me from Internet problems,” and “In general, my online banking website is a robust
and safe environment in which to transact business.” Items were averaged into a single variable upon satisfactory factor and reliability analyses (Eigenvalue = 2.22, % of Variance Explained = 73.88%, Cronbach’s α = .894).

Online Banking Intentions (OBI). We used four items from Venkatesh, Thong, and Xu (2012) to measure OBI: “pay bills in the next month,” “apply for a loan in the next 6 months,” “check an account balance in the next week,” and “do a money transfer in the next 3 months.” Upon satisfactory factor and reliability analyses (Eigenvalue = 1.99, % of Variance Explained = 49.75%, Cronbach’s α = .761), the four items were averaged into a single variable.