THE INFLUENCE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE OF NEWS ORGANIZATIONS AND PROFESSIONAL CULTURE OF JOURNALISM ON THE U.S. NEWS MEDIA'S ADOPTION OF USER-GENERATED CONTENT

by

QINGMEI QING

(Under the Direction of C. Ann Hollifield)

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the relationships among organization characteristics, organizational culture, journalistic professional culture, and news organizations' adoption of user-generated content (UGC) in the United States. This study used a cross-sectional survey design to explore the dominant culture in daily newspapers and broadcast network-affiliated television stations, journalists' core values of professionalism, and to what extent news organizations adopted UGC.

The study found organizational culture played an important role in the process of UGC adoption by news organizations. The more a news organization emphasized the values of adhocracy culture that is characterized by a creative and dynamic workplace, the higher level its UGC adoption was. However, the study did not find a significant relationship between journalistic professional culture and news organizations' UGC adoption level. Moreover, the study found some organization characteristics like organization size and organization longevity were related to news organizations' UGC adoption level. In one word, the findings of the study suggested that organizational culture and some organization characteristics are more important

than professional culture of journalism in the process of UGC adoption by legacy media organizations.

INDEX WORDS: Organizational Culture, Professional Culture of Journalism, Innovation, User-generated Content, Newspapers, Television

THE INFLUENCE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE OF NWES ORGANIZATIONS AND PROFESSIONAL CULTURE OF JOURNALISM ON THE U.S. NEWS MEDIA'S ADOPTION OF USER-GENERATED CONTENT

by

QINGMEI QING

B.A., Northeastern University, China, 2005

M.A., Western Michigan University, 2007

A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2014

THE INFLUENCE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE OF NEWS ORGANIZATIONS AND PROFESSIONAL CULTURE OF JOURNALISM ON THE U.S. NEWS MEDIA'S ADOPTION OF USER-GENERATED CONTENT

by

QINGMEI QING

Major Professor:	C. Ann Hollifield
Committee:	Spencer F. Tinkham
	Itai Himelboim
	Marie-Claude Boudreau

Electronic Version Approved:

Julie Coffield
Interim Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
December 2014

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my late grandfather.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, I would like to express my gratefulness to my committee chair, Dr. Ann Hollifield. She provided continuous support and guidance during my dissertation process and doctoral studies. She gave me great suggestions when I met difficulties during the dissertation and other research processes. I would not be able to complete this dissertation without her ongoing encouragement, insightful suggestions, and patience. I would like to give her special thanks for all the training and mentoring she gave me, which developed me excellent research skills and made me become a more confident scholar.

I would also like to give my appreciation to the other members of my dissertation committee for their time and support: Dr. Spencer F Tinkham, Dr. Itai Himelboim, Dr. Marie-Claude (Maric) Boudreau. I especially thank Dr. Tinkham for his kindness, patience, and valuable suggestions on statistics and research methods. I also appreciate Dr. Itai Himelboim and Dr. Boudreau for their outstanding advice and encouragement in every stage of this long process. I would also want to thank Dr. Casey O'Donnell for his guidance in the early stage of my dissertation before he moved to another state.

I also want to thank other professors in both Grady and other universities who gave me advice and support during the dissertation process. First, I would like to say thank you to those who helped me with data collection for my dissertation: Grady Dean Charles N. Davis, Dr. Jeff Springston, Professor David Hazinski, Mr. Michael Castengera, Professor John F. Greenman, Dr. Janice Hume, and American Society of News Editors (ASNE) Executive Director Arnie Robbins. Second, I am very grateful to survey director Grant Benson at the University of Michigan

Institute for Social Research for his kindness and suggestions on survey methodology. Third, I also appreciate Dr. Wilson Lowrey at The University of Alabama for his advice on scale selection.

Last but not least, I would like to express my thanks to friends at Grady College, Terri Baker, Debbie Sickles, Cheryl J Christopher, Donna LeBlond, Sophie Barnes, Sean Polite, for their support and kindness.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

LIST OF TABLES

Page

LIST OF FIGURES

Page

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Media industries are undergoing great changes as new media technologies are developing rapidly. It is important for media organizations to be able to rapidly adapt and innovate in the face of the drastic competition and new opportunities. Therefore, it is also important for media executives to understand the factors that influence their organizations' ability to innovate.

Innovation is important to a company or organization because it gives a long-term advantage to them (Gershon, 2009). It not only allows a company to develop its existing products and services but also helps meets the demands of untapped customers. Although many companies have realized the importance of innovation, a lot of companies, including some best-managed ones, have experienced innovation failure (Gershon, 2009).

Media organizations are also facing the challenges of innovation. Constant innovation or creativity is critical for media companies since their performance is significantly influenced by the quality of the content they create (Kung, 2008). There are various ways or forms of organizational innovation in the media industries. It can refer to a new idea, a new product, or a new method of producing a product. In this present study, integrating user-created content into news production will be considered as a kind of innovation in news media industry because it is a new idea of promoting two-way communication between consumers and media and thus is also a new way of making news products.

The availability of new technologies provide media consumers more freedom and power to actively choose media products and even to help develop media products (Eastman & Ferguson, 2009). The rising popularity of user-generated/created content (UGC) along with the phenomenon of citizen journalism and participatory journalism changed the traditional way of news production. On the one hand, it gives media organizations more competitive advantages by encouraging users to participate in local news production and thus, hopefully, attract more consumers; on the other hand, it poses new challenges to professional journalists who firmly hold traditional journalistic beliefs and values (Paulussen & Ugille, 2008).

Previous research showed that although many media executives believe that user-generated content is important in today's new media environment; nevertheless, many news organizations failed to make good use of it (Domingo et al., 2008; Singer, 2005). There are many reasons for the failure. Previous researchers demonstrated inconsistent study findings. Some of studies indicated that factors related to organizations are critical for UGC adoption (Massey & Levy, 1999; Paulussen, 2011; Shoemaker, 1991, Paulussen & Ugille, 2008;); while other research findings suggested that journalists' values and beliefs are more powerful in deciding to what extent UGC is adopted than factors relating to organizations since journalists are a special professional group who has a lot of autonomy in their work process (Domingo et al.,2008; Nguyen, 2008; Singer, 2005). The purpose of the study is to explore the major factors within media organizations that influence the adoption of emerging innovations by looking at the level of UGC adoption by news organizations. Specifically, the study will try to find out how the organizational culture and professional cultures of journalism influence news organizations' UGC adoption and which type of culture is more dominant.

The study made both theoretical and practical contributions in this topic area. The theoretical framework of the study was built based on three theories: organizational culture, professional culture of journalism, and diffusion of innovation theory. First, Rogers (1995) identified some major organizational factors that can influence organizational innovation in his book "*Diffusion of Innovation.*" The study tested what relationships these organizational factors had with media organizations' adoption of UGC. Second, the study examined how different types of organizational culture were related to different levels of innovative performance. Third, the study examined the core values and beliefs of journalists in today's new media environment and journalists' perceptions of user generated content in order to see whether today's journalists have redefined the definition of news quality. Moreover, the study explored how journalists' professional beliefs influenced their use of user-generated content in the news production process. Finally, the study compared which type of culture between organizational culture and professional culture had stronger relationship with the level of media organizations' adoption of user-generated content.

The findings of the study will help media executives better understand the culture of their organizations and what cultural and organizational factors are important to the innovative performance of their organizations. Furthermore, the findings of the study can help media executives make appropriate innovation strategies and provide necessary support in the process of implementing innovation in order to achieve success.

There are a total of seven chapters in the dissertation. The first chapter is the introduction to the study, which briefly introduces the purpose and the contribution of the research study. In

addition, it provides the organization of the dissertation. The second chapter, the third chapter, and the fourth chapter include theories and the relevant literature review. In these three chapters, a theoretical framework was built based on three theories - organizational culture, journalistic culture, and diffusion of innovation. Previous relevant research studies were discussed thoroughly in order to propose research questions and hypotheses for the study. The fifth chapter is methodology. In this chapter, the research design and the method were discussed in detail. The sixth chapter includes the results of the study. The seventh chapter, which is the last chapter, includes discussion and conclusion. Specifically, a summary and discussion of the research findings were provided. Moreover, the chapter also includes a discussion of the significance of the study - theoretical contribution and practical contribution to news media industry. Additionally, the limitations of the study were discussed and suggestions for future studies were provided. Finally, a conclusion of the research study was given.

CHAPTER 2

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND PROFESSIONAL CULTURE OF JOURNALISM

2.1 Organizational culture

The importance of organizational culture

Organizational culture is an important topic in organizational studies since the literature shows that it has a significant influence on organizations' effectiveness, innovation and long-term performance, including financial performance (Cameron & Quinn, 2006; Wang et al., 2010). In addition, scholars have found that organizational culture has an impact on individual employees' commitment, empowerment, satisfaction, and productivity (Baird & Wang, 2008; Chen, 2004; Kozlowski et al., 1993). The stronger the organizational culture is, the more employees commit to an organization's goals (Schein, 2010). This is because if the organizational culture is strong, then the employees better understand the organization's goals; as a result, employees' commitment and motivation is enhanced (Chen, 2004; Kotter & Heskett, 1992).

Understanding the culture of an organization is especially important for the leaders and executives to successfully implement their strategies in the face of a changing outside environment. For example, if the leaders of a media company decide to adopt a technological innovation, they then need to make sure the norms of their organization can help implement the innovation strategy. When companies change their strategies, they sometimes fail because the

underlying assumptions and values of their employees do not fit the new working method (O' Reilly, 1989). In addition, Brown (1995) argued that some major functions of organizational culture are: conflict reduction, co-ordination and control, reduction of uncertainty, motivation, and competitive advantage. Thus, analyzing the organization's culture is important to making sense of various situations and issues related to employees' performance and the effectiveness of the whole organization.

Conceptualization of culture

To study the effects of organizational culture, it is important to understand the concept of culture first. Culture is an abstract concept. Anthropologists consider culture as the customs and rituals that a society or a group develops in a long period of time in history. Scholars of organizational studies believe that organizational culture is a reflection of norms and credo of an organization. Some other contents of an organizational culture include: artifacts, language, shared narratives, behavior patterns, heroes, symbols and symbolic action, history, shared socialization and so on (Brown, 1995; Hellriegel, Jackson, & Slocum , 1999).

Schein's (2010) definition of culture has been cited most frequently. He defined culture as a system of basic assumptions learned and held by a group when its members solve problems related to the organization. These assumptions are considered valid and are taught to new members as the best way to think and thus behave when facing various organizational problems. Schein argued that culture has three interconnected layers (2010). The first level includes artifacts - the visible products of the group such as its language, dress style, physical environment, and rituals. This level of culture is easy to observe but difficult to interpret. One

has to learn their underlying meaning by understanding deeper levels of culture. If one lives in the organization long enough, then he or she will interpret the meaning of artifacts more easily. Another method to understand the level of culture is to talk to the members of the organization or group to analyze the rules and norms based on which the members guide their behavior.

The second level consists of espoused values and beliefs, including goals and strategies of a group (Schein, 2010). For example, when a company faces a problem or a new task, the solution reflects some members' assumptions about what will work or not work. Those members who can influence the group to take a certain solution will be considered as the leaders of the group; however the group hasn't any shared knowledge about what the members should do. The solution only reflects the leader's perceptions. Espoused values and beliefs sometimes only reflect the expected behavior but may not be reflected in observed behavior. Therefore, this level of culture cannot always explain all the behavior. In other words, it can only explain a piece of the culture (Schein). Trouble may arise when leaders' espoused values are inconsistent with the general assumptions of the culture. For example, Yılmaz and Kılıçoğlu (2013) argued that ideological differences and usual manner of behaving were obstacles for educational organization change.

The third level of culture is the deepest one. This level refers to the basic underlying assumptions, which means taken-for-granted beliefs and those unconscious perceptions the groups have when they do their daily work (Schein, 2010). It is formed when a solution to an issue works effectively again and again. Once the basic assumptions are formed, it would be very difficult to change since the change will cause anxiety and defensiveness. This level includes the

essence of a culture. If one can understand this level of culture, he or she can easily understand the other two levels (Schein).

How is an organizational culture formed? Ott (1989) argued that it is formed from three elements: first, the national culture or the broader societal culture within which the organization operates; second, the characteristics of the organization's operating environment such as its market environment, work process, and the technologies its members use; third, the long-term influence of the organization's founders or dominant leaders in the early period of the organization's development. The three elements are not completely independent to one another. The national culture can influence the leader's assumptions and values. The organization's market environment is chosen based on the leader's assumptions. The business environment is influenced by the national culture. An organization itself is able to influence its business environment (Brown, 1995). Therefore, it is more helpful to consider the origins of the culture of an organization as a mixture of the three elements rather than to think of those elements as competitors in the formation of an organizational culture (Ott, 1989).

Schein (1996) argued that there are three cultures of management in an organization: the operators, the engineers, and the executives. The "operators" are the members who make and deliver the products and services that achieve the basic goal of the organization such as workers and line managers. The "engineers" refers to the technical staff and major designers in any group who provide technology-related skills for the organization. The "engineers" share the same professional culture. The "executives" are the top level of management people who are in charge of observing the market environment, making long-term strategies and balancing the needs of

different stakeholders in order to be competitive in the market. This categorizing method reflects the two types of sub-cultures discussed above: inter-organizational cultures and professional cultures.

Every organization usually has its own organizational culture, but there are also sub-cultures. Kung (2008) claimed that there are three major sub-cultures. The first one is professional cultures, which means that people who have the same profession or work background have the same professional cultures. For example, journalists and sales people will have different professional cultures. The second sub-culture is inter-organizational culture. This means that people who are at the same hierarchical level will share the same type of culture. The third type is industry cultures. It means that people who work in the same industry will share the same type of industry culture. For example, Hollifield et al. (2001) suggested that television stations and newspapers will have significantly different types of organizational culture because they have different market environment and technologies and belong to different industry sectors. Kung (2008) argued that the existence of the different sub-cultures implies that organizational culture has different dimensions and there might be conflicts among different sub-cultures.

In addition to these definitions, other researchers have recognized other aspects of organizational culture. For example, Berson et al. (2008) summarized three kinds of organizational cultures based on an organization's functioning or forms. The first dimension emphasizes creativity and risk-taking. The second one emphasizes rules, regulations, and efficiency. The third one involves a supportive orientation towards members in an organization. These competing definitions of organizational culture in the literature suggest researchers should

conceptualize and operationalize the variable of organization culture appropriately based on their research goals.

Typologies of organizational cultures

Scholars have developed a number of typologies or theoretical frameworks of organizational cultures. These typologies are different in the different variables they emphasize, their sophistication, and their applicability in different organizations. Therefore, it is helpful to have a review of them to understand the variations among cultures. Three typologies of organizational culture will be discussed in this section, and one of which - Cameron and Quinn's typology will be particularly emphasized because it will be used in the present study.

Harrison's typology

Harrison (1972) stated that there are four major types of organizational culture: power, role, task and person. This typology played an important role in helping culture scholars and executives in business understand how organizations work (Brown, 1995). First, an organization with a power culture has a single source of power that influences the entire organization, so the structure of the culture looks like a web. Resource power and charisma are the foundation for leaders to exercise their authority. The success of the organization depends on the abilities of the leaders in making quick and effective decisions; whereas individual employees are usually required to complete their tasks without asking too many questions or questioning their superiors (Brown, 1995; Harrison, 1972).

Second, the role culture emphasizes rules and procedures. Position and expert power are the foundation for leaders to exercise their power. The underlying ideology of the type of culture

is logic and rationality. The advantage of the role culture is related to its functions or specialties. Employees have their own defined area and don't need to be supervised directly from the top management (Harrison & Stokes, 1992). A weakness of the role culture is that organizations with this type of culture usually have slow reaction to changes. Employees who prefer security and stability will enjoy the culture; whereas those who are risk-taking and ambitious will feel frustrated in their work environment. Organizations with the role culture emphasize economies of scale more than adapting to changes, and they believe the technical expertise is more important than product innovation (Brown, 1995).

Third, organizations with a task culture value expertise rather than position. Task culture emphasizes completing tasks or the job at hand by gathering appropriate people and resources together. A strength of the task culture is that its organizing principles are adaptability, flexibility, individual autonomy, and mutual respect based on ability rather than status. So task culture is more effective in organizations that need constant innovation and are always in a competitive environment. The biggest disadvantage of the culture is that it cannot help organizations to achieve economies of scale and may fail to build up strong expertise (Brown, 1995).

Fourth, the main organizing principle of the person culture is that an organization will benefit more from collectivism than individualism; in other words, no individual dominates. Individual employees have almost complete autonomy and shared influence on the tasks. Power is assigned and exercised usually based on expertise. Rules and procedures are not significant and individual members can decide how to allocate their own work. Advantages of the person

culture include high motivation, team loyalty, high employee morale, which are helpful for enhancing organizational performance. However, an advantage of the person culture is that in order to ensure equal treatment, sometimes decisions may be made to keep everyone happy, which negatively influence an organization's efficiency (Brown, 1995; Harrison, 1972).

Scholz's typologies

Scholz (1987) explored the relationship between organizational culture and organizational strategies; specifically, Scholz suggested that organizational culture is helpful to solve the problem of strategic fit. He argued that there are three dimensions of corporate culture: (1). Evolution-induced, how cultures change in different stages a company has reached; (2). Internal-induced, how internal circumstance of the company is influenced by its culture; (3). External-induced, examine the relationships between the company and its environment. In each of the three dimensions, Scholz define several different types of organizational culture. For the evolution-induced dimension, he stated that there are five major types of culture: *stable, reactive, anticipating, exploring, and creative* culture. In terms of internal-induced dimension, he defined three types of culture: production, bureaucratic, and professional. He made the categories based on their degree of standardization, routineness, skill requirement, where the property rights are derived.

Cameron and Quinn's typology

Cameron and Quinn (2006) argued that organizational culture can be studied from are two main dimensions: flexibility versus control, and external focus versus internal focus. In these two dimensions, flexibility and external focus are considered to be positively related to

organizational innovation; on the contrary, control and internal focus are negatively related to organizational innovation. Based on these two dimensions, they identified four kinds of cultures: adhocracy, market, clan, and hierarchy cultures.

Adhocracy culture emphasizes flexibility and change and thus it is externally focused. This type of culture focuses on risk taking, dynamism, and creativity. It doesn't only make quick reaction to changes in the environment but also creates changes. Individual employees' initiative and flexibility is encouraged and rewarded (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

Market culture emphasizes control rather than flexibility, but it is externally focused. The kind of culture values efficiency and competitiveness such as profitability, sales growth, and market share. This culture doesn't emphasize promoting a feeling of membership in the organization; instead, members are encouraged to achieve their own financial goals (Hellriegel et al., 1996).

Clan culture emphasizes flexibility and internal control. This type of culture values teamwork and the organization's commitment to its employees. Moreover, some other attributes of clan culture include: tradition, loyalty, extensive socialization, self-management. In this culture, employees work for the organization beyond a simple exchange of labor for salary. They also enjoy the feeling of pride in membership(Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

Hierarchy culture emphasizes internal focus and internal control. Organizations that have this type of culture focus on hierarchical coordination, formalization, standard operating procedures, and rules (Hellriegel et al., 1996). In this culture, employees are required to follow standard rules and procedures, and the roles of managers are organizers, coordinators, and enforcers of written rules and standards.

Cameron and Quinn's (2006) framework of organizational culture will be chosen for the present study for two reasons. First, the framework has been used by many other scholars (Berrio, 2003; Valencia et al., 2010) in recent years in organizational studies and some researchers have validated it (e.g, Howard, 1998). Second, the framework emphasizes two important elements that are closely relevant to the topic of the present study – outside environment and internal control. Specifically, the two dimensions will help scholars understand how media executives react to the emerging innovations in the new and continuously competitive media environment (in this study, the exemplar of innovation is the rising of user-generated content in new industry) and maintain effective management inside their organizations (in this study, news managers need to effectively work with journalists in implementing the strategy of adopting user-generated content in news production).

The importance of the two dimensions to organizational innovation (internal vs. external focus; stability vs. flexibility) has also been emphasized by other scholars. Martins and Terblanche (2003) argued that flexibility and cooperative teamwork were helpful for promoting innovation, whereas Damanpour (1991) said that formalization and centralization in organizations (high level of internal control) was not helpful for promoting production innovation. In addition, the dimension of internal and external focus is similar to the concepts of strong and weak ties. "Strong ties" are connections in the immediate and direct social networks of an organization, while "weak ties" are the distant and indirect connections outside an organization's familiar environment (Becker et al., 2014). Weak ties are more helpful than strong ties for providing new ideas, because overreliance on strong ties can make the members of an organization overlook the outside influences (Becker et al.).

Valencia et al. (2010) applied this model to explore the relationships between the different types of organizational cultures and product innovation. They surveyed CEOs of more than 1000 Spanish organizations in various kinds of industries and found that organizational culture is important to product innovation. Specifically, they found that ad hocratic cultures were helpful for developing new products and services; while hierarchical culture negatively influenced innovation of products and services.

Berrio (2003) also used the Competing Values Framework developed by Cameron and Quinn in 1999 to examine the culture type of Ohio State University Extension (OSU Extension). The findings showed that the dominant culture of OSU Extension personnel was clan culture. Similar to the findings of other related studies, it was found in Berrio's study that administrators, trustees, and department chairpersons consider the Clan culture as the most effective culture type for universities.

Although there are some other typologies of organizational culture, they will not all be discussed one by one here. All in all, the literature demonstrated that there are some overlaps among different typologies in terms of the aspects of organizational culture they emphasized. In this present study, Cameron and Quinn's (2006) typology was adopted because it focuses on two dimensions that are closely related to the topic of this study (organizational innovation): stability/flexibility and internal/external. Moreover, based on the two dimensions, Cameron and Quinn developed the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI), which has been used extensively to assess organizational culture by many scholars (Ahmadi et al., 2012; Ashraf et al., 2013; Berrio, 2003; Oney-Yazıcı et al., 2007; Shurbagi & Zahari, 2013; Valencia et al.,

2010; Zahari & Shurbagi, 2012). Therefore, Cameron and Quinn's typology, along with their instrument, was used in this study.

2.2 Professional culture of journalism

Professional culture

Although it is assumed that an organization has a single organizational culture, there are subcultures in it. These subcultures may be compatible with the basic assumption of the dominant organizational culture and, therefore, enhance the dominant culture; however, sometimes they can cause conflicts and challenge the dominant culture because they have their unique components (Ott, 1989). Professional culture has been considered as a type of subculture that can cause tension between its major assumptions and that of the dominant culture of an organization (Hollifield, 2001; Kung, 2008; Soloski, 1989). It is also considered as the most frequently studied form of organizational subculture (Trice & Beyer, 1993).

Occupational communities can create cultures that cut across organizations and become subcultures in organizations (Schein, 2010). Trice and Beyer (1993) stated that occupational communities to which professional employees belong have some certain characteristics: "(1) members share a 'consciousness of kind'; (2) members of the occupational group take each other as reference points in deriving meaning from their experiences; (3) members have in common certain unusual emotional demands of their work; (4) members' self-images and social identities are enhanced by their work; (5) members extend their social relations into nonwork life" (p. 181).

Scholars argued that the goals and procedures of their professional employees can lead to conflicts with the goals and procedures of bureaucratic business organizations (Soloski, 1989). In other words, professional employees' adherence to their norms of the profession will cause a tension between them and their managers since their adherence can negatively influence the financial performance of the company or organization (Kornhauser, 1962). Why are the espoused values of professional subculture incompatible with the dominant culture of the organizational culture?

One reason is that professional employees usually maintain their professional identities and ideologies through membership in professional associations and networks of friendships (Trice & Beyer, 1993). These social experiences establish their expectations for their behavior in their work process. Therefore, sometimes professional employees compete with their managers for autonomy and control over their work behaviors because they believe they know the best way to finish their tasks. Moreover, these social groups they joined provide them social support and emotional reassurances. This will further strengthen their perceptions of their professional identity and their work ideology (Trice & Beyer).

Another important reason is that the ideology of professionalism has the characteristics of anti-profit and anti-market, which can be reflected in the idea of service to society (Soloski, 1989). Monetary reward is not viewed as the determining factor in the decisions of providing professional services (Larson, 1977; Soloski, 1989). For example, journalists provide news and information that are considered as public service, which should be available to every citizen no matter whether the person is rich or poor. Therefore, the public accepts a profession's monopoly

status in the marketplace since they believe that the profession is democratic – the acceptance of a professional by a professional organization or group is not based on the persons' social-economic status but on his or her education, intelligence, dedication, and perseverance. However, the characteristics of anti-profit will cause conflicts with the profit goals of the business organization (Bantz, 1997). In many cases, the professionals' norms and rules will be sacrificed in order to achieve the profit goals of the business organization (Shoemaker & Reese, 1996).

Although professionals sometimes face the challenge of adhering to their professional norms while achieving the business goals of their organizations, they try to consolidate their professional status and control the cognitive base of their profession through different methods (Soloski, 1989). First, they achieve this by receiving and giving professional education and standardized professional training, which are provided by professional schools. These professional schools not only give training of professional technique and professional norms but also make students learn how to socialize and live as a professional. Specifically, three goals will be achieved through professional education and training. 1. Students will learn the standard way of the production of the professional services. 2. The goals and ideals of the profession will be taught and emphasized to students in the process of education. 3. The future professionals will learn and master the cognitive base of a profession (Soloski).

In addition to professional education and training, professionals should also learn how much control their culture has on their members compared with the organizational cultures in order to understand their situation and keep their professional status (Trice & Beyer, 1993).

There are a few factors relating to the relative potency of a professional culture. First, some structural factors are important to be considered. 1. The number of professional members in an organization. This factor is important because the more members of a profession, the more support they can give to one another so that a potent subculture can be formed. 2. Its relative isolation from other occupations. The more the members of a profession interact with other group members in relative isolation from other groups in an organization, the more obvious their professional identity and the more powerful their professional culture will be. 3. The multiplicity of cultural forms that reflect the ideologies of a profession. If a profession shows many different culture forms such as rituals, taboos, jargon, and myths, then the professional culture will have more powerful influence on their members. 4. The arduousness of demands that are needed to acquire and maintain membership in the profession. These demands include a long period of education, facing dangers in their daily work, and receiving tough professional training. The more effort people have to make to meet these arduous demands, the more commitment they make to the profession (Trice & Beyer, 1993).

For example, an investigative journalist would like to write a news story about some unethical behaviors of an advertiser of the television station she or he works for. Although he or she faces pressure from the executives of the television station, the journalist still decides to make an investigation and disclose some facts that the advertiser tries to hide. The work experience above will increase the commitment the journalist has to the profession and he or she will more firmly abide by the professional rules and maintain the moral standards of a professional journalist.

Professional subcultures in an organization will influence organizational decision making. For example, when a media organization is making a decision on whether it should use photos and videos from non-professionals, there might be a conflict between two professional cultures – managerial subculture and journalism subculture. Management will emphasize on the general interests of the whole organization; while the journalists will be greatly influenced by their professional ideology and ethics. Thus, the opinions of the journalists may also influence the final decision made by the media organization. However, in previous research, the dominant organizational culture was often found to have more influence on management' decisions than professional sub-cultures. For example, Hollifield et al. (2001) conducted a study to explore whether news executives hire new employees with characteristics that are consistent with organizational culture or that reflect the professional culture of journalism. They found that news executives will give more emphasis to organizational culture. Specifically, they emphasize hiring journalists who have non-journalistic characteristics that are expected by the organization (such as working style and personality) than those characteristics that reflect the professional culture of journalism. The only exception was the priority placed on hiring people with good writing skills.

Some other scholars argued that the two cultures should not be considered as opposite poles on a continuum of control and freedom; instead, the two cultures should be viewed as complementary modes of work organization (Soloski, 1989). Trice and Beyer (1993) also argued that dual loyalty is more common than are competing loyalties. Ritzer ad Trice (1969) explored a group of personnel managers' commitments to both their organization and their profession. They found that most managers showed equal commitment to their professional roles and their

organizations. In addition, some scholars argued that the general climate of cooperation and conflict between an organization and professional groups inside it will affect whether or not its employees have dual loyalties (Altschull, 1997; Angle & Perry, 1986; Breed, 1955; Gieber, 1964).

Professional culture of journalism

To understand the professional culture of journalism, it is necessary to discuss the characteristics of the journalism profession. Some scholars argue that journalism is not a profession in a real sense compared to some other professions like doctors and lawyers. Then what is a profession? Roscoe Pound (1953) said that a profession is a group of people who pursue a learned art with the goal of serving the public. Pound's definition indicates three elements of a profession: special learning, practical needs of people, and public service. Abraham Flexner (1915) claimed that there are six attributes of a profession. First, professionals should have an extensive body of knowledge. Second, professionals must not only know what and how but also know why from a theoretical perspective. Third, professionals' knowledge must be applied. Fourth, there should be agreement about the education and training that is necessary to practice. Fifth, professionals are self-regulating, which means that they decide their own standards of ethics and find methods to enforce on their own members these rules and standards. Sixth, professionals should be altruistic in motivation (Flexner, 1915).

So what characteristics does the journalism profession have? Hodges (1986) argued that journalism has the most important characteristics of a profession, although it doesn't have all the six above-mentioned characteristics. First, journalists need to have rich knowledge of the world,

but they are not required to have an extensive body of knowledge about journalism. Second, journalists don't have to have theoretical knowledge to be journalists. Third, journalists' work meets the practical needs of people – to learn news information. Fourth, there are essential skills and techniques that all journalists need to have; in other words, they need to receive basic training and education in a journalism school. Fifth, the journalism profession is self-regulating. For example, professional associations of journalism develop codes of ethics for their members and promote professional ethical conduct in order to make journalism a real profession. Sixth, most journalists consider serving the public to be their fundamental goal and all their professional conduct is based on this goal. Therefore, journalism should be considered as a profession because it has most of the important characteristics of a profession (Hodges, 1986).

Then what is the journalistic professionalism? How should it be defined? The topic has been a hotly-debated one and the concept of the journalistic professionalism has been defined in different ways by many scholars. Zelizer (2004) claimed that for journalists in the U.S., the concept of professionalism gave an ideological orientation that helps maintain journalism's collective boundaries. In other words, the concept tells what ideological orientation that journalists should share. Glasser (1992) said that professionalism implies homogeneity and standardization. The professionals should unify the professional knowledge based on journalists' different experience. Soloski (1989) claimed that professionalism is a means of control in news media organization. Professionalism and newsroom policies are used together to reduce conflicts in the newsroom in order for media executives to make profits for the news organizations.

The professionalization of journalism in the U.S. developed gradually from 1920s under the pressure of government regulation of media (Baran & Davis, 2006). The successful

regulation of the radio industry by the Federal Radio Commission (FRC) encouraged efforts to regulate other media industries. Later, government censorship of movies was supported widely especially by religious groups. To avoid government regulation, the movie industry took various forms of self-censorship. With the rising threat of propaganda, even newspaper regulation was considered. For example, in 1942, the Hutchins Commission on Freedom of the Press was founded to weigh the advantages of newspaper regulation (Baran & Davis).

Leaders in the media industry made efforts to professionalize journalism with the pressure for greater media regulation. Professional awards for journalists were established. In 1917, American publisher Joseph Pulitzer established the Pulitzer Prize to award those who made contributions to journalism and literature. Later, Peabody Award was established in 1940 and is the oldest and most prestigious award for broadcast journalism. Another famous award about journalism is The Hearst Journalism Awards Program, which was founded in 1960. This award program was established to provide support and encouragement to journalism education at the college level (The William Randolph Hearst Foundation, n.d.).

In addition, instead of giving the whole control of media to government agencies, media managers actively made pledges to serve public needs by setting up professional standards and norms (Baran & Davis, 2006). In 1923, the American Society of Newspaper Editors (American Society of News Editors, n.d.) made a set of professional standards called "The Canons of Journalism." In 1975, the document was revised and renamed as "the ASNE Statement of Principles." Since then, almost every association of media has adopted similar standards. These standards include: responsibility, freedom of the press, independence, truth and accuracy,

impartiality, and Fair Play (American Society of News Editors, n.d.). The purpose of the establishment of these standards is to make media organizations to serve the public as effectively as possible. The Society of Professional Journalists (The Society of Professional Journalists, n.d.) was founded in 1909 and is one of the oldest professional organizations for journalists, dedicated to promoting high standards of ethical behavior of journalists, improving and protecting journalism. Sigma Delta Chi (the former name of SPJ) borrowed its first Code of Ethics from ASNE in 1926. In 1972, Sigma Delta Chi created its own code. After a few times of revision in 1982, 1987, 1996, the present version of the code was adopted: seek truth and report it, minimize harm, act independently, and be accountable (The Society of Professional Journalists, n.d.).

Soloski (1989) argued that news professionalism controls journalists' behavior because it not only sets norms and standards of behavior but also determines the professional reward system. A reward system is used to provide recognition of professional success to journalists. There are two types of career ladders: the management ladder and the professional ladder. The management ladder is used to reward successful employees by letting them get into the management hierarchy and have some decision-making power; while the professional ladder is used to reward excellent professionals by increasing their salaries and giving them more freedom to engage in their professional work without giving them management responsibilities (Soloski, 1989). The two career ladders were created to encourage employees who have different types of accomplishments in an organization. The management ladder is used for rewarding those who make direct contributions to the organization in terms of business profits; the professional ladder is to reward those who have outstanding professional performance without giving business

benefits to the organization. The reward system is created to ensure professional employees' loyalty. Most journalists consider the professional ladder as their success measure, which is determined by professional standards and norms (Soloski).

So what are the major values and beliefs of professional journalists? What scales did scholars use to measure journalistic professionalism? It should be realized that there are some differences in the major values between Western countries and non-Western counties. Scholars found that Western media systems share a set of beliefs about journalistic professionalism. For instance, Hanitzsch et al. (2011) compared journalists from 18 countries in terms of the professional culture of journalism and found that there are differences in journalists' understanding of journalism culture. The main difference is that Western journalists generally don't support certain social values and ideas (e.g., "to support official policies to bring about prosperity and development", p. 280), and they believe in universal principles of journalism (e.g., "There are ethical principles which are so important that they should be followed by all journalists, regardless of situation and context, p.285); however, non-western journalists are more flexible in their values about journalism culture (e.g., the scholars found that Chinese and Russian journalists were the most open to situational ethical practices; in other words, they tend to agree with "Ethical dilemmas in news coverage are often so complex that journalists should be allowed to formulate their own individual codes of conduct," p. 285) and sometimes support certain values that they believe will be good for the society (e.g., the government policies in developing countries and transitional democracies).

Although the scales scholars have used to measure journalistic professionalism were different, there are some certain aspects that they all emphasized such as public service

orientation, autonomy, and professional norms (e.g., Hallin & Mancini, 2004). Schwartz (1978) used sociologist Richard Hall's (1968) scale of professional orientation to study journalistic professionalism. The scale operationalizes five attributes that sociologists think are necessary for professionalism: 1. The use of the professional organization as a reference group; 2. Belief in public service; 3. Belief in self-regulation; 4. Sense of calling to the field; and 5. Feelings of autonomy. Moreover, the findings of Schwartz's (1978) study showed that journalists who had high scores in professionalism also had high degree of individualism, indicating that professional journalists should have both inner-directed and other-directed values. Inner-directed values means journalists should have a value structure anchored by selfhood, self-esteem, integrity, and self-satisfaction; while other-directed values refer to an orientation of concern for others.

Similar to Richard Hall's (1968) scale, Deuze (2005) argued that there are five typical values or elements in the professional ideology of journalism: First, journalists need to provide a public service (public service, e.g., as watchdogs); second, journalists should be objective, neutral, impartial, fair and credible (objectivity); third, journalists must be independent and autonomous in their work (autonomy); fourth, journalists must have a sense of immediacy and speed (immediacy); fifth, journalists must have a sense of ethics, legitimacy and validity (ethics). Deuze stated that the process of journalists' professionalization can be considered as a kind of ideological development, which helps refine and reproduce a consensus on what real journalism is and who are real journalists. Moreover, there is a dominant occupational ideology of journalism that most journalists hold in their work process, although journalists across media may interpret and apply it in different ways.

In addition to public service, autonomy, and ethics, some scholars argued that participating in professional activities should be taken into consideration when examining journalists' professionalism level. For example, Beam, Weaver, and Brownlee (2008) examined previous American journalists studies and concluded that there are four aspects of professionalism of U.S. Journalists: First, journalists' engagement with their professional culture such as reading online publications about the U.S. journalists or belonging to professional organizations and associations; Second, professional autonomy of journalists; Third, social functions and roles that journalists believe they should have including adversarial, interpretive, disseminator, and populist mobilize functions; Fourth, journalists' attitudes toward ethically controversial reporting practice. These four aspects also include both Schwartz's (1978) so-called "inner- directed values" and "other-directed" values.

Hanitzsch (2007) used a deductive approach to propose a conceptualization of professional culture of journalism, which he believed consists of three essential components: institutional roles, epistemologies, and ethical ideologies. These three components include the most important elements of journalistic professionalism discussed by other scholars. First, **institutional roles** refers to journalists' normative and actual functions in society and includes three dimensions: interventionism, power distance, and market orientation; Specifically, interventionism shows the extent to which journalists promote certain values and strive for certain goals, and power distance means journalists' position towards the loci of power in society, and market orientation refers to how journalist view and treat the audience – either as citizens or consumers. Second, **epistemologies** reflect the nature of acceptable evidence and the

accessibility of reality. There are two dimensions of journalism's epistemologies: objectivism and empiricism. Objectivism is concerned with a philosophical or absolute sense of objectivity (the opposite is subjectivism), and empiricism is concerned with the methods (empirically or analytically) journalists use to justify a truth claim. The third domain of professional culture of journalism is **ethical ideologies**. This constituent of journalism culture is related to the questions of how journalists react to ethical dilemmas. Psychologist Donelson R. Forsyth suggested that ethical ideologies can be organized along two basic dimensions: Relativism and idealism (Forsyth, 1980, 1981). Relativism refers to the extent to which journalists based their own ethical philosophies on universal moral rules; while idealism focuses on the importance of outcomes in journalists' responses to ethical dilemmas.

Similar to the different typologies of organizational culture, professional culture of journalism was also conceptualized differently by scholars, and there are overlaps among the aspects they emphasized. In this present study, Hanitzsch's (2007) conceptualization of journalistic professionalism was used. This is because most of the scholars only listed a few major attributes or characteristics of journalistic professionalism and did not provide a scale that can be used to examine the concept. However, Hanitzsch divided the concept into three components based on the functions and roles of journalists in their field and in society and developed an instrument based on these functions. Additionally, the three components can be used to examine how journalists view audiences or readers, which is helpful for developing innovative ways of news production in today's new media environment. Thus, it can be found whether there are different levels of innovation performance (i.e., innovative ways of reporting

news stories, such as UGC adoption) among journalists with different views of professional culture of journalism.

Today's new media environment has some new features compared with the one in the past. Therefore, journalistic professionalism may need to be reconsidered and redefined. Two important features are "multimedia" and "multicultural" (Deuze, 2005). The new media technologies' rapid development made today's news media provide news information on different platforms and in different forms; accordingly, news media staff also receive feedback from consumers in a variety of ways. In addition, multicultural journalism suggests that voices and different angles from diverse communities should be considered in today's news production process so that the real public engagement with news media would be achieved. It is because these two new features of today's media environment, the news production process is not a one-way one; instead, consumers also can now actively participate in the process, making it become a two-way process. They start providing news information through various functions or tools provided by news media organization such as reader' comments, blogs, online forums, user photos and videos, user-created news stories and so on. All of this content is called user-generated content or user-created content; and consumers who engage in it have been given a new name, commonly being called "co-creators" or "prosumers." In the next chapter, user-generated content will be discussed in detail. The conceptualization of user-generated content will be helpful for the discussion of the relationship among organizational culture of news organizations, professional culture of journalism, and the hotly-debated issue of user-generated content in journalism field.

CHAPTER 3

USER-GENERATED CONTENT

3.1. Introduction

User-generated content (UGC) has become a popular topic in both the media industry and academic field. It is a hotly-debated issue because media professionals have realized that it poses a challenge to their work and their professional culture; meanwhile, they also understand UGC can bring both economic and non-economic benefits to media organizations. Customers are not passive information receivers anymore; instead, they are more interested in two-way communication (Hermida & Thurman, 2008). So adoption of UGC by the news media has become a necessary component of news products. Previous scholars have discussed the issue of UGC from different angles such as customer's motivation for providing and using UGC (Shao, 2009), journalists' attitudes toward UGC, media executives' strategies of adopting UGC (Hermida & Thurman, 2008), media ethics related to UGC (Singer & Ashman, 2009) and credibility of user content (Johnson & Kaye, 2004). However, previous researchers haven't analyzed the reason for the sluggish adoption of UGC by news media from a cultural perspective. Such a perspective could be valuable in that it might provide suggestions for professionals and media executives that would help them to improve their news production work and make them more competitive in the media market.

Before achieving the research goal, it is necessary to explain the concept of UGC thoroughly. Therefore, the chapter will lay a solid foundation for the present study by conceptualizing the concept of user-generated content (UGC) and discussing the importance of adopting UGC. Moreover, the current situation of UGC use on the U.S. news media and its implications will be discussed.

3.2. The rise of user-generated content (UGC)

Today, as new media technologies are developing continuously, media consumers and users are not satisfied with traditional one-way communication; they are more interested in giving their opinions and having more interaction with other users and media professionals (Hermida & Thurman, 2008). Meanwhile, mainstream media professionals face the opportunities of extending their geographical reach and the challenge of involving users' voices that were usually excluded from mass media in the past (Chung, 2007). Although there isn't a mature model or method of the integration, the continuous rise of UGC deserves researchers' attention.

User-generated content is not a new concept. As early as 1879, the Philological Society of London decided to create a dictionary that would record the history of each word, so the editor issued an appeal to call for volunteers to read required publications, make word lists, and look for certain words that the editing team of the dictionary was interested. The team required those volunteers to submit a piece of paper to show where they found those words and a sentence for each word to illustrate its use. The editor predicted that he would receive no more than 100, 000 slips of paper; finally, he received six million slips of paper from tens of thousands of volunteers (Watson et al., 2005). This could be considered as a very early example of user-created content,

although the content was edited before it was put on the dictionary. This example suggested that non-professionals' contribution to public knowledge can be enormous and important.

In 1970s, futurist Alvini Toffler invented the word "prosumer" to describe the emergence of products with more customizability and individualisability, which marked a shift from mass production of industrial goods to a model of on-demand of custom-made goods (Toffler, 1970). Later, Marshall McLuhan and Barrington Nevitt (1972) in their book stated that consumers would become producers with the development of electric technologies. Driven by libertarianism and a similar positive belief in technology, alternative media and a culture of UGC developed and blossomed during the 1970s (Armstrong, 1981; Kim, 2010; Turner, 2006). In the 1990s, with the continuous development of media technologies, various forms of UGC came into being such as blogs, online self-publishing sites, social networking sites like Facebook and so on (Kim, 2010). Entering the 21st century, as the Internet continued to boom and become accessible to more and more people, the mainstream media started to incorporate the content created by users into their products. In 2005, The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) created a User Generated Content (UGC) Hub in the hope of capturing the best material (including picture, video, audio, and text messages) sent by audience. The BBC hoped that citizen journalists could share their stories related to social events and believed that they have great power. The facts showed that the BBC was correct. After the Asian Tsunami and the London bombings, the BBC received thousands of pictures from users. Later, the BBC spent more resources working with UGC. In order for quicker filtering, the BBC expanded the UGC team from three people to six people (Atkins, 2010). Now the UGC Hub is a permanent feature of BBC newsgathering operations.

In the U.S., in 2006, CNN initiated a project called "iReport" intending to gather news information from its users. FOX News Channel also launched a similar project called "uReport". These examples proved that large news organizations realized that information from users is helpful and are more willing to incorporate UGC into their news products. In 2006, user-generated content was named Person of the Year in *Time Magazine.* The Person of the Year was "you," referring to all the people who contributed to the development of user-generated content. The article on *Time Magazine* said: "It's about the many wresting power from the few and helping one another for nothing and how that will not only change the world, but also change the way the world changes" (Grossman, 2006).

3.3. What is user-generated content (UGC)?

Definitions of UGC

UGC has been continuously gaining attention and popularity and mainstream media realize that they are not in a monopoly position of providing information and entertainment anymore. So what is UGC? How should it be defined? Generally speaking, any media content that ordinary people or users contribute can be considered as UGC (Kim, 2010). Those users who both produce and consume media content are called "prosumers," a term combining producer and consumer, indicating they have two roles at the same time. Wunsch-Vincent and Vickery (2007) in their Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) report provided a definition of UGC by pointing out that it has three main characteristics: publication, creative effort, and creation outside of professional routines and practice. Specifically, publication means that the content is publicly accessible (however, they also stated

that theoretically UGC could be made and never published online or elsewhere); creative effort means that users need to add their own value to the work (the content could be created complexly by users or users could adapt existing work to build a new one); and the third characteristic requires that UGC should be produced by amateurs without an expectation of making profits. The definition of UGC is generally workable. However, There are exceptions to these three characteristics; for instance, some bloggers consider making profits by getting ads revenue (e.g., pay-per-click ads) as one of their purposes to write blogs. In addition, some mainstream media invite users to create UGC in order to make indirect profits (e.g., getting fame so that they will get more consumers) for their organizations. Therefore, it can't be said that UGC should not have an institutional or commercial market context, as what Wunsch-Vincent and Vickery suggested.

The opposite of UGC is professionally generated content (PGC) (Kim, 2010). Mainstream television and radio shows, national and regional newspapers, and movies created by studios owned by media conglomerates are all considered as PGC. Mainstream media organizations adopted content created by users in their production processes in the 1990s. For example, in 1990, ABC developed a show called "*America's Funniest Home Videos.*" Viewers were encouraged to submit humorous homemade videos and some of their submissions would be selected and edited into a TV show. Viewers were given different levels of monetary rewards based on the quality of their work. Similarly, cable TV also uses UGC in their production like VH1's *Show Us Your Junk* (Kim, 2010). These examples demonstrated that mainstream media would like to provide their platform for UGC and PGC and UGC could be well combined to meet consumers' needs.

Based on its connection with traditional media organizations, UGC can be categorized into two groups: UGC inside and outside traditional media organizations. The first category refers to those content users made through the platform of legacy media with the purpose of either complementing the existing information like "reader comments" or sharing something that hasn't been addressed by the media organization yet like "iReport", while the second category of UGC is those content users create for an alternative or independent media. For UGC outside traditional media organizations, there is a variety of UGC. They can be grouped based on their different functions: social networking websites (e.g., Facebook), online video websites (YouTube), blogs, online encyclopedias (e.g., Wikipedia), citizen journalism websites (e.g., OhmyNews International), user reviews (e.g., Amazon) and etc. The emphasis of the study is UGC inside traditional media organizations; therefore, a narrow definition of UGC is: content created and submitted to legacy media by consumers or users who work outside traditional media organizations.

UGC dimensions

Scholars have studied UGC from different dimensions and from different angles. Ornebring (2008) developed an analytical framework to examine UGC provision in two online newspapers. He analyzed UGC provision from three dimensions based on the content categories and contexts that UGC was produced: 1. The level of involvement; 2. the types of content that user produced; 3. the overall mode of production.

First, there are two levels of UGC involvement: customization and production. Customization means that users don't create actual content; instead, they are given opportunities

to customize the existing content (e.g, users get news by subscribing to an RSS feed) and make comments on existing content (e.g., users give reviews or comments on articles in either the form of texting or the form of grading). Some other scholars argued that simply customizing existing content but not creating actual content should not be considered as a type of UGC; however, Ornebring (2008) maintained that this kind of user behavior can influence the media content structure or design; thus, it should be viewed as a type of UGC, although this type of UGC has a low level of user involvement. Production is featured with a higher level of involvement compared to the level of customization. Production means that users create actual content that is then used by other users or media professionals for various purposes (such as learning what consumers are concerned about and getting news clues). For online media, this type of UGC includes textual production (such as user blogs, discussion on forums, user created news and so on), audio production (e.g., user-created podcasts), and video production (e.g., user-created video clips) (Ornebring, 2008).

Second, based on the types of UGC content, Ornebring (2008) divided UGC content into information versus entertainment, and public versus private. In terms of information versus entertainment, sometimes it is difficult to distinguish between the two content types because UGC can contain both elements of information/news and entertainment at the same time; however, one type of production context is usually dominant. An important reason for Ornebring to distinguish the two types of UGC content is that he thinks that how much freedom or power media organizations give to users is reflected from the amount of the informational content that users created. Allowing users to create more informational content than entertainment content

indicates that media organizations give relatively more power to users. Thus, the researcher can find out to what extent the media organization allows its users to influence its news production process. In addition, as for public versus private, it concerns whether users produce content that is in the public domain (like public events and political affairs) or create content that is related to their private or everyday lives (like producing pictures of their family events or writing diaries on their blogs) (Ornebring, 2008).

Third, the dimension of the mode of production is categorized into centralized and decentralized. On the one hand, centralized mode of production means that all the content created by users are managed by professional staff of news organizations. For example, a media organization decides a topic and then asks its users to create and submit relevant content by using certain tools. On the other hand, decentralized mode of production means that users are given power to judge what kind of topics are interesting to customers and decide what kinds of topic should be offered. For example, a user submitted a news story on the website and then the story is rated by users in terms of its credibility and relevance (Ornebring, 2008).

Some other scholars conceptualize UGC only based on the degree of control on media content (Bergstrom, 2008; McMillan, 2002). This is similar to one of Ornebring's (2008) dimensions of UGC: the mode of production - centralized versus decentralized. The difference is that Bergstrom and McMillan both take the element of interactivity into consideration. They made connections between degree of control and levels of interactivity. McMillan (2002) believes that there are two categories of UGC: user-to-user interaction and user-to-medium interaction. The former makes professionals have a lower level of control. Online forums are

examples of this category. In this context, users usually are all online at the same time and can freely discuss a certain topic. In this case, online editors usually are unable to control the content presented online. The latter allows professionals to have a higher degree of control. The reason is that the type of interactivity is not synchronous, which means that users may not be able to see the content created by other users at the same time it is posted. For example, users' comments on a news story are relatively easier to control.

UGC also can be studied from two different dimensions: the goals of media organizations as the providers of UGC tools, and in terms of users' intentions, addresses, and motives (Schweiger, 2009). The first dimension is helpful for studying UGC from the perspective of media management. There are four main types of goals of media organizations who provide UGC tools to users (Schweiger, 2009). First, media organizations hope that UGC can help them save cost since it can fill their websites with free content. However, some other scholars (Hurmida & Thurman, 2008) argued that news organizations were struggling to make a balance between getting potential and indirect profits through UGC and the labor and money that is used to manage UGC. Second, news organizations hope that they can use UGC to learn about their customers' needs and expectations so that they can provide more user-preferred media products. Here, UGC is a kind of tool for market research. For example, by looking at users' feedback such as ratings and comments on news stories, website editors will know what kinds of news topics interest users. Third, media organizations can use UGC to attract more customers, especially those who are not active. For active users, they like the idea of having a platform on which they can communicate with others; thus, UGC will help a media organization create an online

community in which users can exchange ideas. While for passive users, they are likely to be attracted by the content created by those active users. For instance, when a passive user doesn't know what to look at on the news media's website, they may select content that is highly rated by other users. In other words, active users help passive users get familiar with the website and the media organization. Fourth, news media expect that UGC can create a positive image for their organizations. If a media website allows users to express their opinions and make comments on various issues, then the image of the media organization will be more positive than those who don't provide UGC tools. As what Schweiger (2009) argued, a positive image of a news organization can enhance its users' engagement and loyalty.

The second dimension of UGC is concerned with users' intentions and motives (Schweiger, 2009). Users' intention includes three levels. 1. Users are completely aware that their content will be presented on the website and they intend to make the content public. For example, users need to get registered and log in to an online forum to give his or her opinion. 2. Users intend to present their content, but they may not know for sure whether the content will be made public on the website. For example, most of news media organizations have the function of "letters to editors" on their websites. This function gives users opportunities to give their voice, but it doesn't necessarily mean that the content will be shown to the public. 3. Users don't intend to present their content and they are not aware they provided some information to media organizations. For example, log-files allow website operators to know the online activities of users (e.g. which types of news stories were reviewed). This level of awareness may cause a debate since some other scholars consider that creativity and publicity are two important features of UGC. However, this function can be used to study users' general behavior when users use

websites that provide UGC tools so that news media can develop better strategies to attract customers (Schweiger, 2009).

Regarding user' motives, they can be analyzed by examining users' addressee of communication. 1. When users consider the public as their addressee, their motive is to express their opinions on certain public issues in the hope of giving some influence on these issues and related agencies. 2. When users consider other users as addressees, there are different motives. Users may want to build social relationships with other people through UGC functions. In addition, users may want to exchange opinions or make argument with other users. 3. When users consider the media organization as addressees, a motive might be that they are unsatisfied with existing media products and, therefore, give feedback or criticism to website editors. Another motive could be monetary rewards. Users may be encouraged to submit content by media organizations so that they can get prizes or rewards (Schweiger, 2009).

In this present study, Ornebring's (2008) analytical framework was used to examine UGC provisions on the websites of legacy media organizations in the U.S. There are a few reasons for selecting this particular framework. First, by categorizing UGC into customization style and production style, the level of involvement news organizations allow their users to have will be shown. Thus, the extent to which news organizations adopt innovative ways of news production can be demonstrated. Second, examining the content type of UGC can show how much freedom and power media organizations give to their users. As has been discussed earlier, news organizations that allow users to provide more informational content and content related to public and social affairs give their users more power than those organizations that only allow

users to create content related to personal lives and entertainment. Third, those analytical frameworks which are used to examine users' motives and intentions were not chosen, because the present study focuses on the innovative performance of news organizations rather than users' activities.

3.4. The importance of user-generated content in news media

UGC is a product in the new media environment where people expect to have two-way communication (Hermida & Thurman, 2008). However, it also has similar characters with traditional media. To learn the importance of UGC and what competitive advantage it can bring to media organizations, it is important to know why consumers use them. McQuail (1983) concluded that there are four major reasons for media use: information, personal identity, integration and social interaction, and entertainment. These four reasons can also be applied to study users' motivations to use and produce UGC, which is a new media phenomenon.

Many scholars have studied the motivations for consumers to use UGC using the model of uses and gratifications. Wunsch-Vincent and Vickery (2007) found that major motivating factors to use UGC include: connecting with friends, achieving a certain level of fame or prestige, and the desire to express oneself. Shao (2008) summarized four kinds of motivation for participation in UGC based on the analytical framework of uses and gratifications: information and entertainment, participating for social interaction and community development, self-expression and self-actualization, and interdependence of consuming, participating, and producing. First, UGC provides a good platform for people to acquire information and entertaining themselves. Today, people need to regularly get information about themselves, other

people, and the whole world. With UGC, traditional media is not the only way for people to know what happened around the world. Through UGC, people don't have to be restricted by the news information that traditional media provides; instead, they can actively search for the information they want and need. For example, they can find information they want but could not find on traditional media on some citizen journalism websites. Another example, people can find more information related to their everyday life on social media websites and online forums. Moreover, previous research showed that consumers consider other consumers' opinions on products to be more credible than the product information provided by the corporation (Cheong & Morrison, 2008; Goldsmith & Horowitz, 2006; Nielson.com, 2006, 2012). Regarding UGC's function of entertainment, UGC has a unique feature compared with traditional media: speed and convenience. It is just like "snack food" (Shao, 2008) and people can enjoy them easily, quickly, and at any time they want. For example, people can enjoy a short video clip produced by their friends on Facebook when they have limited time and want to have quick entertainment.

Second, UGC can promote social interaction among users and community development. People can have more interaction with both the media organization and other users. On the one hand, people can exchange opinions with media organizations' staffs by submitting letters to editors and discussing social issues with journalists on journalists' blogs. This interaction can benefit both media organizations and customers, although some scholars have found that the type of interactivity is low Chung, 2007, 2008; Massey & Levy, 1999). On the other hand, users can interact with those whom they don't know in their lives and then get to know each other so that social interaction will be enhanced. Gradually, an online community will be built and the

community will create a public sphere in which members can educate and inform one another (Meyer & Daniels, 2012). People in this kind of online community can further develop better relationships and become emotionally attached and thus committed to the community. For example, social media websites like Facebook and Linkedin serve this purpose. Another example would be online forums on the websites of traditional media organizations. This kind of community has a great value to media organizations who intend to keep their existing customers and attract new ones (Beck, 2008). The creation of the online community gives media organizations potential economic benefits. For example, it will be helpful for market research. Market researchers always face a serious problem: they always pay high prices but get low quality research information because it is difficult to gather the real opinions of their customers. In online communities, researchers can know their target customers much better and then increase the quality of study.

The third factor that motivates people to use UGC is self-identity and self-expression. According to Shao (2009), a person's self-identity is constructed in his or her self-expression. People expect that they can present a true picture of themselves to others so that other people can truly know them. UGC allows people to show others their inner world in various forms like blogging and sharing pictures and videos. One fundamental ideology rooted in the U.S. society and many other democratic countries is individualism and freedom of expression (Kim, 2010). The rise of personal media and UGC platforms on legacy media platforms help people actualize individualism and express their opinions at any time they want. This is especially for young people, who often are more technologically savvy and more eager to present themselves to the

outside world. For example, a study conducted by Chen (2008) showed that young people are more likely to consume content on YouTube. This is important for legacy media because young age group is their target audience from the standpoint of strategic management. To provide younger people opportunities to freely express themselves and build their identities may help attract them to the consumer media products of legacy media organizations.

All these motivation factors not only show the importance of UGC that should be understood by media professionals, but also further illustrate the concepts of user-generated content and prosumer. The concept "prosumer" is a combination of "producer" and "consumer". The concept suggests that a person can be both a producer and a consumer of media content. Producers and consumers/users are interdependent and the two roles are exchangeable when a person has both roles at the same time.

From the perspective of media management, UGC will help media organizations retain their existing customers and attract new customers. Product differentiation is important for all types of commercial corporations. In order to survive in the competition, traditional media organizations consider "hyperlocal" news as a new contested territory (Qing & Hollifield, 2011). In addition to the local news produced and provided by local media, adopting content created by amateurs has become an important strategy to differentiate media products and saving costs. As what Mersey (2010) argued, personalization of web sites can influence users and lead to users' positive evaluation of the web site. This doesn't mean that UGC (or citizen journalism or community journalism) would replace its industrial counterpart; instead, UGC could extend the breadth and depth of news coverage by legacy media when it is necessary. For example,

Paulussen & Ugille (2008) found that journalists did realize the complementary potential of UGC and professional content in the news production.

Bruns (2011) listed three key aspects that UGC can benefit traditional media organizations in terms of news coverage: First, it can extend the breadth of news coverage of legacy media since it can provide news information that professional journalists are unable to cover because of some certain restrictions like limited sources or territory inflexibility. This includes analysis that is highly specialized in some professional areas like economics and those issues that were ignored by professional journalists especially those related to local communities. Second, it can improve the depth of news coverage because users or citizen journalists can give a more detailed discussion and evaluation of current affairs and provide more different points of view and thus balanced news coverage may be more likely to be achieved. Third, it can extend the ongoing news coverage of professional journalists over time. This will be realized by citizen journalists or regular users who can provide information that can exist outside regular news cycle and can apply internet technologies to accumulate related information about certain issues and topics (Bruns, 2011).

The discussion above clearly suggests that UGC can be important for both media companies and customers from different perspectives. So do media executives also believe that UGC is important? How is the current situation of UGC adoption by legacy media? The next section will discuss to what extent legacy media organizations adopted UGC.

3.5. The current status of UGC adoption in the U.S. news media and implications

There are various types of UGC on both mainstream media and online media. Based on the type of content, UGC includes: text, fiction and poetry, photos and images, music and audio,

video and film, citizen journalism, educational content (e.g., syllabus-sharing sites such as H20), mobile content, virtual content (e.g., virtual goods that can be developed and traded on Second Life) and so on. The distribution platforms for UGC include: blogs (e.g., MSN Spances and Skyblog), Wikis and other text-based collaboration formats, sites allowing feedback and reviews, podcasting (e.g., iTunes), social networks websites, virtual worlds, content or filesharing sites (e.g., Digital Media Project) (Wunsch-Vincent & Vickery, 2007), the websites of legacy media and so on. Regarding UGC on online legacy media, the major formats are: blogs, comments on stories, reader blogs, user created media (photos, video audios), user-created story, online forums, polls, Q&As, and "have your says" (Thurman & Hermida, 2010).

The concentration of this study is UGC on online news media and therefore it is essential to look at the current situation of the adoption of UGC by online news media and what it suggests to scholars and media professionals.

Participatory news websites were founded in direct response to the shortcomings of news coverage by mainstream media (Deuze, 2008). For example, the rise and development of *Indymedia* is considered as an alternative to the highly conservative media in South Korea (Deuze, 2008). In order to maintain their customers and continue being competitive, traditional media organizations also started incorporating UGC in their media products. So to what extent the legacy media embrace UGC and to what extent UGC gets edited and filtered in the gatekeeping process of professional journalist? A study by Qing & Hollfield (2011) found that major UGC functions or tools on the websites of traditional media organizations were: user feedback, user blogs, user-submitted audio and video, online forums, user-created news, RSS

and Twitter. Although legacy media provide relevant UGC tools to their customers online, the results of the study showed that most of the established media organizations did not give users a lot of power to create actual content like writing and submitting news stories. The results were consistent with the findings of many other UGC studies. For example, Domingo et al. (2008) conducted a study on 16 online newspapers and found that the news organizations studied only involved limited user participation in news production (e.g., allow users to make comments on the work of professional journalists) and journalists still played a gatekeeping role in adopting UGC on their websites. Another example, Hermida and Thurman (2008) conducted a study on the UGC adoption of UK newspaper websites and found that journalists in the UK also retained the traditional gatekeeping roles when adopting UGC on their websites. The results of their study showed that only 12 out of the 118 blogs allowed users to post comments directly without journalists' checking and moderation. In addition, Singer (2005) conducted a content analysis of 20 professional journalists' blogs dealing with political or civic affairs. The study findings demonstrated that most journalists were keeping control over the information provided under their names and kept their gatekeeper function although the format of blog is an interactive one which should be used to increase participatory communication with their users. Dailey, Demo and Spillman (2008) conducted an analysis of staff-produced blogs at 42 daily newspapers one week before the 2006 election and found that blogs only had a small number of postings and generate little interaction between bloggers and newspaper readers. Similarly, Rebillard & Touboul (2010) analyzed the websites of four major newspapers in Europe and America and concluded that participation opportunities for users were limited, although all the home pages of

studied websites had links that invited users to participate. For instance, the online function of "express yourself" only allowed one type of expression of taking online surveys.

The literature suggests that most traditional media organizations have not taken advantage of UGC and the relevant technologies to have better interaction with their consumers. Instead, the online version of their media simply copied the model of the traditional one although some UGC tools are offered on their websites. In next chapter, the reasons for the issue will be analyzed in detail.

CHAPTER 4

THE RELATIONSHIP AMONG ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, JOURNALISTIC CULTURE, AND USER-GENERATED CONTENT

4.1. The obstacles of UGC development in news media

Many media executives have realized the importance of integrating UGC into their news production. For example, Alan Revell of Associated Newspapers in the UK said:

"We firmly believe in the great conversation. These businesses are about interactivity and it's about it being a two-way street and people joining the conversation rather than being lectured to or talked to. They do want to respond, not all of them, but people do want the ability to respond instantly and contribute and add (Hermida & Thurman, 2008, p.349)."

Kunelius (2001) also argued that news should be a conversation rather than a lecture. Specifically, Kunelius believed that with the rise and popularity of public or citizen journalism, journalists' role in social life should be reconsidered and journalists should start working its way towards more participatory forms. However, previous studies suggested that professional journalists are experiencing an uncomfortable transition because the internet technologies and their accompanying effects have posted a fundamental challenge to the existing model of centralized news production (Chung, 2007). UGC is not widely adopted by traditional news organizations (Qing & Hollifield, 2011), although there has been an increase in UGC adoption and in journalists' interest in UGC use compared to early years (Hermida & Thurman, 2008;

Paulussen & Ugille, 2008). So what are the main reasons? Why the slow development of UGC on online news media?

Scholars have pointed out some reasons for the slow adoption of UGC by traditional media organizations (Chung, 2007; Gade, 2003; Hurmida & Thurman, 2008; Paulussen et al., 2007; Singer & Ashman, 2009). First, professional journalists concern that the quality of the news created by amateurs will negatively influence the professionalism and credibility of the organization (Singer& Ashman, 2009). Second, UGC increased journalists' workload because they need to take more responsibility of reading and responding to users' content (Chung, 2007). Journalists still consider their routine work as the most important one and often neglect or don't have time to look at the user created content (Paulussen et al., 2007). Moreover, editors and journalists complained about the extra work they have to do in order to keep a certain standard of user's content: checking spelling, correcting grammar mistake, selecting newsworthy content, avoiding duplication and so on. Third, many media organizations especially small ones don't have enough resources to provide a platform for UGC since they can not balance the cost for UGC operation and extra profits they get from UGC (Hurmida & Thurman, 2008). Fourth, there is no effective communication between media executives and journalists in terms of the specific goals that news organizations will achieve by taking new strategies (Gade, 2003).

Based on the literature, it is can be argued that the obstacle for the slow development of UGC by legacy media is closely related to culture. Two types of culture are especially relevant: the culture of media organizations and the traditional journalistic culture. As what Paulussen et al. (2007) argued, "an analysis of the structural changes in work organization, routines and

professional values that have enabled relevant participation will be useful to asses to what extent participatory journalism can become a widespread practice in the media and what can be its consequences for the quality of journalism and the public sphere" (p.147).

4.2 Organizational culture and innovation

Organizational culture plays a significant role in organizational performance. Researchers have suggested that it is important to ensure that the organizational culture is compatible with its strategies and goals to stay competitive. If an organization wants to implement an innovation-related strategy, the leaders must realize that their organization needs an appropriate culture that can help achieve the innovation success. What will be the important elements of organizational culture that can enhance the organizational performance? Rogers (1995) argued that the characteristics of an organization's leaders and of organizational structure are important for organizational innovation. Smith (2003) conducted a study exploring 59 organizational change efforts that set culture change as a goal. It was found that the most common reasons for undertaking culture change are competition and customer suggestions, indicating that a company needs to have quick response to the market and consumer needs in order to improve its performance and adjust the organizational culture to a more appropriate one. The results also demonstrated that it is important to realize the crucial role of the middle rank of leadership at division or department level in the process of organizational culture change. Moreover, in successful companies, the needs of employees are addressed well, especially rewarding employees for their innovation performance. The results also showed that a good communication channel should be built in the whole process of cultural change so that employees can better

understand what to do and progress can be better tracked by their leaders. Mclean (2005) summarized some important cultural factors related to organizational innovation: organizational encouragement (such as encouraging risk taking, open flow of communication, supportive feedback of ideas, participative management and so on), supervisory encouragement (making clear what are the goals for a certain group, sufficient interaction, providing supervisory support for employees' ideas and work), resources (such as sufficient time and money), work group diversity, autonomy and freedom, and control (which is negatively related to innovation performance).

The findings of related research in media field are generally consistent with that of research in the management field in terms of the relationship between organizational culture and organizational performance. Wurff and Leenders (2008) conducted a study to investigate whether there are differences of organizational culture between different types of media organizations (commercial versus public-interest and information versus entertainment) and whether different dimensions of performance of media organizations are related to different dimensions of organization culture. They found that there was no significant difference of organizational culture between commercial and public media organizations. However, they found that there are significant differences of organizational culture between information-oriented companies and entertainment companies. This suggested that in this converging media environment, information and entertainment sectors are still separated. In addition, they found that organizational culture has more influence than professional culture on innovation performance in entertainment organizations in which innovation is viewed as a

market-driven process that is necessary to respond to trends (e.g., new technology) in a timely manner; whereas information providing companies consider providing quality content to be more important and as a different type of innovation, so professional culture (e.g., professional commitment) can more easily influence the organizations' innovative performance. Last, they found that there is more innovative performance in entertainment companies than information providers (Wurff & Leenders, 2008).

Some researchers have suggested that the issue of increasing work pressure on journalists because of a lack of resources is crucial in the development of participatory or interactive journalism (Hermida & Thurman, 2007; Nguyen, 2008). UGC popularity is driven by new media technology development; on the other hand, to integrate UGC into the news production, resources and technical training needs to be provided to employees. Many news media organizations would like to invest in new technology (e.g., online multimedia tools) but are struggling for economic viability (Paulussen et al., 2007). Therefore, journalists who work with interactive forms of journalism are experiencing a hard time in applying new technologies into their routine work without sufficient training. Chung (2007) pointed out that interactive features of journalism require extensive staff and computers and are expensive to implement and are costly to maintain. For example, message boards need to be moderated and filtered to prevent offensive language. The editor at LAtimes.com agreed that in order to adopt multimedia on its website, they must invest in new video and editing equipment and provide training to the staff (Chung, 2007). Moreover, when an innovation hasn't been fully adopted by an organization, employees will feel more pressured because they haven't completely got used to the new element

in their work, so they need to spend more time working with it. At this point, executives need to give support and understanding to employees so that employees won't get discouraged. Leaders' support is important in implementing innovation strategies because journalists' workload increased after interactive features were added into their work (Chung, 2007). This is because they need to read and respond to user comments and messages. They also need to spend time verifying the information provided by users to ensure objectivity and credibility of their news products. Most journalists have already felt difficulties with fulfilling their major work tasks; therefore, they feel they are unable or are unwilling to spend more time and effort on adopting the new feature into their news stories (Paulussen et al., 2007; Chung, 2007).

A factor relating to organizational culture and innovation performance is organization size. Organization size is considered as an important predictor of organizational performance. Lowrey (2006) suggests that organizational size can influence professional practices related to the challenge from blogs because larger media organizations have more resources and connections to take the outside challenge by creating new forms of online news stories and increasing specialization. Massey & Levy (1999) also argued that the size of an online newspaper staff can affect interactivity level. To make online newspaper interactive is time-consuming; so it is hard for newspapers with relatively small staffs to achieve the goals of interactivity including interacting with users; providing technical tools or support to users for asynchronous; one-to-many communication; offering a broad topical range of content, and so on. Shoemaker (1991) stated that organizational size plays a role in gatekeeping activities. For example, gatekeepers in larger newspapers are more likely to be required to apply organizational rules and less likely to rely on their own beliefs and values than those in smaller papers.

Organizational structure is another important factor that can influence the adoption of UGC on the websites of legacy media (Paulussen & Ugille, 2008; Paulussen, 2011). Generally speaking, a team-based structure is helpful for organizational innovation because teams create flat hierarchies (contrary to vertical hierarchies) that have fewer and less rigid rules and thus employees can obtain more motivation for innovation. It is believed that the adoption of new media technology is affecting the traditional structure of news organization or newsroom (Pavlik, 2000). In the past, the newsroom was characterized by centralization and hierarchy similar to how the military is structured. In the newsroom, there is a news director or a news editor who exert powerful control on the news operation; journalists and other employees need to follow their commands. The application of internet technology is changing the traditional structure greatly, as the structure of more and more newsrooms become flatter and the distance between top and bottom is decreased in many newsrooms (Pavlik, 2000). Some scholars argued that team-structured newsrooms are helpful for producing more news coverage on the same news topic than the beat system (Russial, 1997); however, some researchers found that the team structure made journalists in their study feel they had less authority getting their news story ideas into the paper than they did before the team structure of newsroom was instituted (Neuzil et al., 1999). Gade and Perry (2003) conducted a longitudinal study of newsroom cultural change at the St. Louis Post-Dispatch. The study results showed that employees who work in both interdepartmental and newsroom teams think the team structure gave them little empowerment. Journalists found the structure gave them less autonomy and authority over their work. Thus, an important question appeared: whether or not the newsroom culture which traditionally emphasizes individualism and personal skills and creativity is suitable for a team-based structure.

Another organizational culture factor that affects the adoption of UGC is communication channels between leaders and employees. Organizational scholars have confirmed that an effective communication channel can help leaders better clarify their goals and understand employees' perceptions of new strategies and the difficulties they are facing and help employees better understand the organizational strategies and goals (Daniels & Hollifield, 2002). In this way, it would be more likely that the innovation strategy would be implemented effectively and employees' work satisfaction and performance would be greatly enhanced. Scholars suggest that it is essential for organizational leaders to make the goal clear to employees (Paulussen, 2011; Ryfe, 2009) and ensure employees understand that the organizational goal and their individual career goals are compatible. The findings of Gade and Perry's study (2003) supported this point of view. They found that employees were optimistic about the new strategy of paying more attention to readers' needs and the market change in the initial stage of implementing the strategy. However, they also found that over time, the structural change of working in interdepartmental teams and new work requirements of aligning content with reader interests led the journalists involved to gradually believe that the innovation strategy of adopting public journalism was more a response to the economic challenges facing the newspaper than an attempt to improve the news quality. The journalists were confused about the underlying values associated with the change. Therefore, journalists' enthusiasm for the changes faded within a year and they eventually lost the motivation to innovate and adapt to the change. Therefore, keeping an effective communication channel and thus gaining mutual understanding is important for organizational innovation.

The leaders of news organizations not only need to understand well the culture of their organizations but also need to have effective methods to provide guidance to employees in the whole innovation processes. They must be able to effectively motivate journalists and other employees to innovate because individual enthusiasm and commitment are significant factors for the integrating participatory or interactive journalism into the newsroom culture (Paulussen, 2011). Moreover, media executives should realize that the innovation of adopting UGC is a step-by-step process during which a limited number of employees are involved and gradually the entire organization will eventually completely accept the new idea or practice (Bockzkowski, 2004). In the initial stage, leaders can try to let journalists holding a more skeptical attitude experience the benefits of user-generated content. In addition, the media executives should make sure that the newsroom managers truly believe in the value of UGC so that they can help newsrooms obtain resources that are necessary for participatory journalism (Paulussen, 2011). A fundamental reason for the gradual process of organizational culture change is because inside a news organization, besides the unwritten rules and tacit norms of the organization, there is an important sub-culture – professional culture of journalism, as has been discussed in the second chapter. The professional values and beliefs are rooted in the minds of journalists and embedded in their work habits; therefore, it is inevitable that the professional culture of journalism will affect the integration of user-generated content into news production.

4.3 Professional culture of journalism and innovation

The professional culture of journalism has been widely considered as a significant factor that influences the incorporation of UGC into new production. In the beginning part of the

chapter, it has been discussed that an important reason for journalists to resist UGC is that they worry that integrating UGC into the news production will negatively affect their credibility and news quality. However, some have argued that it may be time to reconsider the definition of news and the concept of news quality (Lowrey & Anderson, 2005; Qing & Hollifield, 2011). Lowrey and Anderson (2005) found that as weblogs are becoming more and more popular, the traditional concept of news is getting vaguer and being further redefined by users. In addition, the results of their study showed that participatory online news functions did not make journalists' work look less exclusive. Participants in community news creation still thought that journalism was an occupation based on a complex body of professional knowledge. However, many studies demonstrated that journalists' attitudes toward participatory journalism haven't changed significantly or that there is an inconsistence between their changing attitudes and their actual practice (Chung, 2007; Paulussen, 2004).

Nguyen (2008) has pointed out that professionalism and loyalty to the traditional media often make media professionals fail to use or fail to even try to use the new benefits that the Internet technology could bring to their work. Many journalists in traditional media organizations still firmly believe that they should keep their "gatekeeper" role in news making process (Domingo et al., 2008; Hermida & Thurman, 2008; Singer, 2005). "Gatekeeper" is described as "a main task of journalists, indicates their claim to be the ones who decide what the public needs to know, as well as when and how such information should be provided. The gatekeeper role is maintained and enforced by professional routines and conventions that are said to guarantee the quality and neutrality of institutional journalism" (Domingo et al., 2008, P.326).

Shoemaker (1991,1996) contended that there is a relationship between routines of communication work and gatekeeping decisions. This is because gatekeeping decisions are made based on a set of preestablished and generalized practice about how the work should be done and whether or not some certain news information or topics should be included in their news products.

Although some researchers predicted that the application of internet technology into the journalism field may cause a fundamental change in established "we write, you read" modes of modern journalism, it was still found that mainstream news organizations still keep traditional culture of journalism unchanged when they started providing participation opportunities for their audience – journalists still have the dominant power to decide what makes news and legacy media translate to the traditional way of making news to the web (Deuze, 2003). This may indicate that mainstream news organizations don't realize the impact interactivity can have on their traditional way of making news and their understanding of what is public and their roles in community (Hermida & Thurman, 2007). Paulussen et al. (2007) conducted a study to examine the development of participatory journalism in four European countries and the findings are consistent with what above-mentioned scholars found. The results showed that the media in these four countries give very limited opportunities for their audience to participate and the professional culture of journalism is the main factor that hinders the development of participatory projects, although the social environment and the increasingly competitive media market require traditional media organizations to engage consumers in their news production process. Thus, how professional journalists perceive their role in today's new media environment is directly related to the level of the UGC adoption.

Boczkowski (2004) found that the characteristics of journalists' practice were related to how information flows in the news-making process. Specifically, Boczkowski supported the idea that a trait of modern journalism is the notion of gatekeeping. This notion decides that journalists' work and the editorial function are associated with reproduction of conventional media's one-to-many message flows. However, in contrast, configuring journalists' tasks around the opposite way to gatekeeping will lead to the emergence of a multiplicity of information flows. In Boczkowski's study in 2004, the scholar examined the newsroom work practice of three online newspapers by focusing on the dynamic processes of how news workers adopt multimedia and interactivity technologies. The study findings showed that newspapers' adoption of user authorship was related to newsroom practices, such as technical support, community outreach, and database maintenance, that focused on facilitating multiple information flows. The type of practice represents a completely different model compared with the gatekeeping one. As what Jeff Jarvis, executive vice president of Advance Internet, said: "what we are really doing is enabling the audience to do what they really want to do…. We create the gathering place for that to happen" (Boczkowski, 2004, p.207). Therefore, studying work practice of news staff is helpful to understand the extent to which UGC is adopted by news organizations.

Scholars contended that journalists' attitudes toward users can greatly influence their adoption of UGC (Boczkowski, 2004; Paulussen & Ugille, 2008). On the one hand, considering readers/audience as consumers of media products will make journalists provide little space for users to express their opinions and thus adopt the traditional "we-publish-you-read" model. In this context, journalists view regular news production as their core task and pay little attention to

user-generated content on their websites. On the other hand, if journalists consider users as information producers, then they will be more likely to adopt UGC and have more interaction with users, which will lead to multiple information flows. Research showed that some journalists think that the news information provided by users is just soft news like pictures of family events and is not very important; whereas some journalists emphasized that UGC is very valuable especially their information relating to local news. In today's media market, producing hyperlocal news is an important strategy since it can help make news products different from competitors. However, journalists will unable to learn about and cover all the community stories timely; so users' input will be a significant contribution to news organizations. From the standpoint of public interest, it is also necessary to realize that media users have strong will to give their ideas and opinions and participate in the dialogues with professional journalists and other community members. Thus, whether or not journalists believe that user contribution is important for their work will directly associate with their adoption of UGC.

4.4. The relationship among organizational culture, professional culture of journalism, and innovation

The literature suggests that both organizational culture and professional culture of journalism can influence organizational innovation, which, in this study, is being examined through the incorporation – or lack thereof – of user content into news production by legacy journalism organizations. So one important question is: which type of culture inside media organization has more powerful influence on UGC adoption? Is there any difference in this regard among organizations in different sectors of media industry (like newspaper and television)

or of different sizes (e.g., newspaper's circulation size and the market rank of local TV station)? What are the reasons for the relative dominance of one type of culture over the other one?

Some studies demonstrated that organizational culture has more power of affecting the implementation of new strategies than professional culture. Shoemaker and Reese (1996) argued that media organizations often exert a lot of bureaucratic controls over the production of media content and these controls greatly restricted the influence journalists' professional orientations; therefore, journalists cannot always keep their professionalism like what physicians do (Breed, 1955; Gieber, 1956; 1964). In addition, they also argued that the larger a media organization is, the more difficult it will be for professional culture to influence on media content and thus the more influential the organizational culture will be. Lowrey (2006) supported the idea and argued that journalists working in professional media organizations have to compromise professional values and move in directions that enable their organizations to stay profitable and survive in market competition. For example, sometimes journalists are required to adopt a marketing or entertainment orientation and thus spend less time serving the public by offering in-depth news coverage. Similarly, Gieber (1956) found that newspaper gatekeepers – telegraph editors worked under organizational constraints like deadline pressure and space limitation and thus did not have too much activism in using their individual news values. In addition, Gierber (1964) contended that journalists don't consider the news policy made by their newspaper as a problem and accepted it as part of bureaucratic structuring; rather, they would complain if there was inconsistency in or lack of policy. Hollifield et al. (2001) also found that when news executives hire journalists, they emphasized more on the non-journalistic characteristics expected by the organization than those that are associated with professional culture of journalism.

Nevertheless, the research findings of some other scholars suggested that professional culture plays a more dominant role in the news production process; especially in the innovation process, journalists' insisting on adhering to professional rules can significantly affect the innovation outcome. Gade and Perry's (2003) study showed that when journalists in the studied newspaper did not see the organizational innovation of changing newsroom structure and culture toward a more market- and reader-oriented one could benefit their professional work or improve journalism; then they lost their initial understanding and support for the cultural change. Ryfe's (2009) study also indicated that professional journalistic culture was more influential than organizational culture. Ryfe made an ethnographic analysis of "The Daily News." In this study, a new editor asked his reporters to change the way they made news stories. The new editor did not ask reporters to stop serving the public and overlook the techniques of verification; rather, he merely asked them to not to attend to the meetings or events related to the public agencies they covered so closely. However, reporters quickly felt that the change introduced by the editor negatively affected their major practice like having routine interactions with officials in those public agencies. Reporters in the study felt confused and frustrated because they thought the change made them lose independence and encroached upon their professional area. Thus, the reporters ultimately rejected the new rules. This study suggests that journalists rely on the professional culture of journalism in judging how to respond to innovative experiments in their newsrooms.

The factor of media type should be taken into consideration in the analysis of the relationship between the professional culture of journalism and organizational innovation

performance. Although journalistic culture is considered as a culture that is shared by all the journalists in society, media professionals working in different sectors of media industry may have their own sub-cultures (Hollifield et al., 2001). It is usually believed that television stations primarily rely on newspapers for news ideas. Nevertheless, some scholars hold different opinions. Harmon (1989) found that newspapers were the main source of only seven of the 132 TV news stories analyzed in his study. This again shows that media type may cause differences in innovation performance since television and newspapers produce news on their own. Berkowitz (1990) found that television journalists and gatekeepers use their instincts about what makes a good news program in their news selection decisions. In addition, Berkowitz said that TV gatekeepers believe that three factors are important in their news selection process: interest, importance, visual quality, which are different than the counterparts used by newspaper editors and those taught in journalism schools. In addition, Abbott & Brassfield (1989) found that there are some differences in routines between television and newspapers gatekeepers. For example, television gatekeepers are more likely to reject news stories that don't have good visuals than newspaper gatekeepers. Shoemaker and Reese (1996) pointed out that television and radio are more sensitive to organizational profits than are newspapers and magazines, which indicated that journalists working in the older forms of media may hold professional beliefs more firmly than new media. In addition, Weaver and Wilhoit (1996) suggested that print media journalists were more likely than TV journalists to indicate that it was important for them to provide interpretation and analysis of the news to their audiences; whereas broadcast journalists were more likely than print journalists to express that getting a broader range of audience was

important and to say that getting information to the public was extremely important. Interestingly, Harmon (1989) in his study found that the traditional news values including proximity, prominence, consequence, significance, conflict and the unusual nature of the news story were the most common reasons television journalists gave to explain their news making decisions, although they admitted that they often plan sensational series during ratings sweeps weeks.

Given the inconsistent findings of previous studies, the goal of the present study is to answer the questions previously raised regarding which type of culture is more influential in deciding the innovation adoption level in news media organizations. To achieve this, the theory of diffusion of innovation, which has been used by many media scholars to examine media organizations' adoption of new technologies, will be integrated into the theoretical framework of the study and relevant literature will be reviewed before specific research questions and hypotheses are proposed.

4.5. Diffusion of Innovation

The Theory of Diffusion of Innovation

Scholar Everett Rogers originally applied the theory of diffusion of innovation to media companies and media technologies. He published a book called "Diffusion of Innovations" in 1960 based on his analysis of thousands of diffusion studies. Rogers found all these studies contain four important elements: an innovation, a community or a group, communication among group members, and time. In Rogers's book (1995), he defined diffusion as "the process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system. The main assumption of the theory of diffusion of innovation is that an

innovation diffuses across an organization or a society in a predictable way. Therefore, in the present study, the theory can be applied to study the process by which the idea of adopting UGC is diffused among journalists in local television stations and newspapers.

Rogers identified five innovation-adoption categories that different people belong to: innovators, early adopter, early majority, late majority, and laggards. Innovators are people who would like to take risk. The early adopters are usually considered as opinion leaders and their opinions are viewed as important by other group members. The early majority are people who help legitimize an innovation. The late majority are people who are always skeptical about the innovation and are very careful before their adoption. They won't adopt an innovation until they feel pressured from other group members. Rogers suggested that the economic situation is an important factor that the people of this category often consider. The laggards are people who are the last to adopt an innovation. They always stick to old ways to do things and reluctant to try new things. Two important factors related to this group of people are age and ideology (Rogers, 1995).

Roger argued that there are four steps in the diffusion process: knowledge, persuasion, decision, and confirmation. First, members of a group learn about a new innovation from some certain channel of communication including both media and interpersonal communication. Second, a person in a group weights the benefits of the innovation based on discussions with others. Then he or she makes an evaluation of the innovation and give a preference between adoption and rejection. Third, the person makes a final decision on whether he or she will adopt it. Fourth, after the person makes the decision, he or she will look for confirmation or validation of their adoption (Rogers, 1995).

In 1940s, the theory of diffusion of innovation has been used for studying the innovation patterns of a new kind of corn among a group of farmers in Iowa. This study is considered as one of the earliest diffusion studies. After that, the theory has also been used in various areas such as health communication area, news diffusion process, the diffusion of new media technologies in a group or in a society and so on. A recent trend about the application of the theory is that it has been used by management scholars to study organizations' innovation performance. According to Rogers (1995), there are some important factors that are related to organizational innovation. First, the size of an organization has been consistently found to be positively related to its innovation success. Size is often used because it is related to several dimensions that lead to innovation: total resources, technical expertise of employees, organizational structure and so on. Larger organizations usually have better innovation performances than smaller ones. Second, some structural characteristics are found to be related to organizational innovation including individual (leader) characteristics, internal organizational structural characteristics, and external characteristics of the organization.

The leaders' attitude toward change is positively related to innovative performance of the organization. The more the leaders are more open-minded to new ideas, the more innovativeness the organization has. In addition, Rogers (1995) stated that there are several structure variables related to the organizational innovativeness: (1) the degree of control (centralization) - the more the power is concentrated in an organization, the less innovative the organization will be. (2) Complexity - the degree to which the members of an organization possess a relatively high level of knowledge and expertise. Complexity encourages members to propose innovations but it is

hard to for them to achieve consensus of implementing them. (3) formalization – the degree to which an organization emphasizes rules and procedures in the work process of its members. Formalization inhibits organization members' consideration of innovations, but is helpful for implementing innovations. (4) interconnectedness – the degree to which interpersonal networks link the unites together in a social system; in other words, the degree to which organizations are linked by interpersonal networks. Interconnectedness has a positive relationship with organizational innovativeness. (5) organizational slack – the degree to which an organization have uncommitted resources available to members. This variable is positively related to organizational innovativeness, especially when the innovation cost is high (Rogers, 1995). Finally, Rogers pointed out that external characteristics of the organization are related to its innovation performance. Specifically, the more an organization is open to its external environment and tries to adapt to the changes outside, the better the members will do in terms of innovation inside the organization. Granovetter (1973) had a similar argument – the concept of strong ties and weak ties. Specifically, "weak ties" are distant connections outside an organization's familiar environment; while "strong ties" are connections within an organization's immediate social networks. It was found that "weak ties" were more likely than "strong ties" to provide new ideas (Becker, et al., 2014; Granovetter, 1973; Powell et al., 1996; Swan & Scarbrough, 2005).

Rogers (1995) suggested that there are five stages in an organizational innovation process. First, agenda setting happens at the beginning of the process when an organization identifies a problem that needs an innovation. Second, matching happens when a problem facing the

organization can be solved by the innovation. Third, restructuring happens when the innovation is re-structured in order to make it better fit with the organization's needs. Fourth, clarifying is a step that will happen when the innovation is clearly understood and adopted by majority of the people in the organization. Fifth, routinizing happens when the innovation has become part of the routine work process in the organization.

Literature review

The theory of diffusion of innovation has been applied broadly in social sciences including the field of mass communication and media studies. Some scholars have explored the technology innovation on individual level (Jeffres & Atkin, 1996; Lin & Jeffres, 1998). For example, Lin & Jeffres (1998) examined audience's intentions to adopt multimedia cable technology services and found some variables like existing media use patterns, media content satisfaction, and demographic variables were predictors of the adoption. Some other scholars explored the use of computer and online information technologies in newsroom (Davenport et al., 1996; Garrison, 2000; Garrison, 2001a, 2001b; Maier, 2000; Niebauer Jr, et al., 2000).

Some researchers studied the innovation management process in news media organizations. Saksena and Hollifield (2002) found that the innovation-management processes used by newspaper managers in their adoption of internet technology for their online operation were generally haphazard. Specifically, few of the newspapers studied conducted market research before creating their online editions and few had looked at reader feedback in the innovation process. Few newspapers fully tapped the expertise to form multi-department development team. None of the newspapers had made specific goals for their online editions so

that future investment on the innovation could be better determined. The study findings also suggested that the senior executives' perception of the nature of new technologies was related to how an organization responded to them. Adams (2008) examined how U.S. weekly newspapers adopted and managed online newspapers using Everett Rogers' theory of innovation in organizations. Adams' findings supported what Saksena and Hollifield (2002) found: a lack of innovation management strategy, no specific business plan and goals, and no audience and market research. Adam suggested that the knowledge of the innovation of the Internet created a need of launching online newspapers rather than addressed an observed need in organizations. These studies have similar implications with some of the research related to user-generated content: media executives adopted technology-based innovation mainly because they don't want to fall behind their competitors. They may not fully understand the potential of the innovation and therefore did not make clear goals and allocate sufficient resources.

Some researchers used the theory of diffusion of innovation to study the diffusion of convergence in newsrooms (Dailey, Demo & Spillman, 2005; Singer, 2004). Dailey, Demo, and Spillman (2005) proposed a conceptual framework of convergence continuum and suggested that the model can be viewed from the theoretical framework of diffusion of innovation. Every stage in the model can be considered as an innovation that will be diffused across different organizational cultures in the convergence process. The theory of diffusion of innovation can be applied to predict the adoption rate of each stage of the convergence continuum and to explain the complex process of communicating new ideas. Singer (2004) examined newsroom convergence using the theory of diffusion of innovation. She found that journalists understood

the advantages in convergence policy. In addition, Singer indicated that the diffusion of newsroom convergence was hindered by cultural and technological differences in news making process and by a lack of training to decrease concerns about the complexities of new media formats. The two studies suggested that the theory of diffusion of innovation is appropriate for studying news organizations' adoption of user-generated content in their news production process. The convergence phenomenon changed the methods of news production and thus is considered as an innovation in news media industry; likewise, integrating UGC into news production has changed the way journalists work and is thus also an innovation in news organizations.

In addition to the research studies using the theory of diffusion of innovation, organizational innovation has also been studied extensively from some other angels based on the characteristics and functions of innovation. Some scholars put organizational innovation into two categories: administrative innovation and product innovation (Becker et al., 2014; Carmen & Jose´, 2008; Damanpour, 1991). Administrative innovation (or structural innovation) pertains to "those linked to organizational structure or administrative processes" (Carmen & Jose´, 2008, p.419) and is "controlled at the managerial or ownership level" and "directly related to the management of work" (Becker et al., 2014, p.2). On the other hand, production innovation, which is also called technical innovation (Wang &Ahmed, 2004), refers to "those linked to technology applied to products, services or production processes" (Carmen & Jose´, 2008, p.418) and is related to "daily work activities and the resulting products and processes (Becker et al., 2014, p.2).

Similar to the findings of some studies discussed earlier in this chapter, previous research using this innovation categorization (administrative innovation and product innovation) also showed that organizational structure and professionalism level were important factors influencing organizational innovation. Additionally, scholars who used this innovation categorization found the two types of innovation were influenced by different dimensions of organizational structure and professionalism level. High centralization and formalization (stricter rules and policies) and low professionalism facilitate administrative innovation, whereas a low level of centralization and formalization and high professionalism encourage product innovation (Becker et al., 2014; Damanpour, 1991; Kimberly & Evanisko, 1981). More specifically, tighter organizational structures are helpful for making decisions on organizational restructuring, which usually happens at the higher levels of an organization, because there is more direct and effective supervision. Nevertheless, looser organizational structures are helpful for generating new ideas about news products during the daily work process at the lower levels of an organization where there is a lack of direct supervision and control from higher levels of the organization (Becker et al., 2014; Damanpour, 1991).

In this present study, UGC can be considered as product innovation, because providing UGC and relevant tools to users is a new type of news product and service. Although adopting UGC may require structural changes in news organizations and thus can also be viewed as administrative innovation, structural change is not the focus of this study. Therefore, based on the findings of previous research, news organizations with a low level of centralization (i.e., with team-structured newsrooms) and with a high level of journalistic professionalism should have better innovation performance, providing users more UGC tools.

The literature review chapters show that organizational culture, some major organization characteristics, and professional culture play an important role in influencing the innovation performance of news organizations (more specifically, for the purposes of this study, their UGC adoption). The following two tables (Tables 1 and 2) summarize the components of organizational and professional culture respectively:

Table 1
Components of Organizational Culture

	Components	**Key aspects**
Organizational culture	Clan (flexibility and internal focus)	Dominant characteristics (climate)
	Adhocracy (flexibility and external focus)	Management of employees (Style)
	Market (stability and external focus)	Strategic Emphases (Strategies)
	Hierarchy (stability and internal focus)	Criteria of success (outcomes)
Organization characteristics	Organization size (circulation and DMA rank)	
	Newsroom structure (centralization- based and team-based)	
	Organization longevity	
	Media type (newspapers and TV)	

Table 2
Components of Professional Culture of Journalism

Components	Sub-components
Institutional roles	Interventionism
	Power distance
	Market orientation
Epistemologies	Objectivism
	Empiricism
Ethical ideologies	Relativism
	Idealism
Journalism education	
Work longevity	
Professional reading	
Participation of professional activities	
Professional autonomy	
Priority between professionalism and organization interests	

4.6. Research questions and hypotheses

Based on the literature review, the research questions and hypotheses of the present study were proposed below. First, the current UGC adoption level of news organizations must be examined so that the further question of how cultural factors influence the levels of UGC adoption can be explored. The present study focuses on two types of legacy media – newspapers and television. Therefore:

RQ1(a): To what extent do the traditional news organizations adopt UGC?

Previous research suggests that older media have a lower level of UGC adoption compared with newer media. An important reason is the difference in the use of new media technologies. For example, television stations use more new technologies than newspapers

because of the different natures of the two types of media. Another reason is that newspaper staffs have a relatively conservative attitude toward UGC, although previous studies showed that for all the traditional news organizations, the customization style of UGC (e.g., users' comments on news stories) was much more common than the production style of UGC (e.g., user-submitted news articles). Therefore:

H1 (a): The proportion of television stations that have adopted UGC in its population is higher than that of newspapers.

H1 (b): Television stations provide their users more online UGC tools than daily newspapers.

H2 (a): Customization style of UGC is more dominant than production style of UGC on the websites of traditional news organizations (newspapers and television).

H2 (b): Television stations provide more production style of UGC than newspapers.

H2 (c): Television journalists use UGC more frequently than newspaper journalists in news production.

To further explore the extent to which news organizations adopted UGC on their websites, the participants of the study were asked which content types of UGC were more dominant, because previous studies have shown that allowing users to provide more UGC related to information and political issues would give more power to users in the news production process. Therefore:

RQ1(b): Which type of content is more dominant on news organizations' websites (entertainment versus information, everyday life versus political/social issues)?

According to the theory of diffusion of innovation, there are five categories of innovation adopters based on the adoption speed. The researcher of the study tried to find out which kinds of UGC tools were adopted relatively early. Therefore:

RQ1(c): How quickly did media organizations adopt each UGC function?

Previous studies found that legacy media had not fully adopted UGC; instead, most of the UGC on their websites was in the customization style, because today's media professionals still play a gatekeeper role in the news production process. Therefore:

RQ 1 (d): Which style of UGC between customization and production did news organizations adopt relatively quickly?

Previous researchers found that some media executives and journalists had a positive attitude toward UGC, while some did not. Some common reasons for adopting UGC were: to learn users' needs, to attract more consumers, the desire not to fall behind their competitors, etc. Some common reasons for not adopting UGC were: insufficient resources, concern for their credibility, insufficient staff, etc. Therefore:

RQ1(e): What are media executives' reasons for adopting and not adopting UGC?

The theory of diffusion of innovation, along with some relevant research, showed that some organizational characteristics can influence innovation performance. Some major characteristics include organization size, organization structure, leaders' attitudes toward innovation, and news executives' innovation management. Therefore:

RQ2 (a): What organizational characteristics are related to UGC adoption level of traditional news organizations?

Research suggested that there is a positive relationship between organization size and innovation performance. This is because larger organizations usually have more resources – including funding, staff, training, technologies and so on – than smaller organizations. Therefore:

H3 (a) Organization size is positively related to news organizations' adoption of customization style of UGC.

H3 (b) Organization size is positively related to news organizations' adoption of production style of UGC.

Earlier studies found that organization structure is an important factor influencing innovation performance. Specifically, team-based structure is more helpful for innovation, because organizations with this type of structure usually have less strict rules and policies than organizations with vertical structure. Therefore:

H4 (a): News organizations with a team-based newsroom structure have a higher level of UGC adoption than organizations with a centralization-based newsroom structure.

H4 (b): News organizations with a team-based newsroom structure use UGC more frequently in their news production process than organizations with a centralization-based newsroom structure.

H4(c): News organizations with a team-based newsroom structure adopted UGC earlier than organizations with a centralization-based newsroom structure.

Research demonstrated that the attitudes of organization leaders and professionals toward innovation can significantly affect organizational innovation adoption. Organizations with open-minded leaders are more likely to have better innovation performance than organizations with relatively conservative leaders. Therefore:

RQ2(b): How were news executives' attitudes toward UGC and innovation management related to UGC adoption of their organizations?

H5 (a): News managers' positive attitudes toward UGC predict the overall UGC adoption level of their organizations.

H5 (b): News managers' positive attitudes toward UGC predict the frequency of journalists' UGC usage in their news production.

H5 (c): News managers' positive attitudes toward UGC predict the UGC adoption rate of their organizations.

Previous studies indicated that the effectiveness of organization leaders' innovation management has a significantly positive relationship with innovation adoption. Specifically, an effective leader should have a specific goal regarding how to use an innovation and conduct market research before adopting an innovation. Moreover, the leader should also make specific rules on using the innovation and provide ongoing support in the process of innovation adoption. Additionally, keeping effective communication with employees, providing them with necessary training, and making sufficient technology investments are all dimensions of effective innovation management. Therefore:

H6 (a): News managers' innovation management predicts the overall UGC adoption level of their organizations.

H6 (b): News managers' innovation management predicts the frequency of journalists' UGC usage in their news production.

H6 (c): News managers' innovation management predicts the UGC adoption rate of their organizations.

H7 (a): Organization size predicts the overall UGC adoption level of their organizations.

H7 (b): Organization size predicts the frequency of journalists' UGC usage in their news production.

H7 (c): Organization size predicts the UGC adoption rate of their organizations.

Understanding the organizational culture is important for making effective management decisions for an organization, such as whether to adopt an innovation. Organizations or companies in different industries or different sectors of the same industry may have different cultures. Many researchers suggested that there are four types of organizational culture based on two dimensions - internal/external focus and control/flexibility: clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy. Therefore:

RQ2(c): What is the dominant type of organizational culture in traditional news organizations in the U.S.?

Scholars argued that organizational culture has six aspects: organizational characteristics, organizational leaders, management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphasis, and criteria of success (the present study focused on four of the six aspects because they are more closely related to the purpose of the study than the other two aspects). Research showed that congruent cultures in an organization are more likely to lead to good performance. Therefore:

RQ2 (d): Is there congruence in the four aspects (dominant characteristics, management of employees, strategic emphases, and criteria of success) of organizational culture of traditional news organizations?

Scholars argued that professional culture of journalism consists of three major components: institutional roles, epistemologies, and ethical ideologies. Journalists may have different values regarding the three components, especially in different societies. The present study only focused on journalists in the U.S.; however, studies showed that many media executives had a positive attitude toward UGC, an innovative way of news production, which indicated that the concept of journalistic professionalism may have been redefined in today's new media environment. Therefore:

RQ3 (a): What are the core professional values of journalists in traditional news organizations?

Research suggested that newspaper journalists and television journalists have different views on what makes a high-quality news story, although they have similar opinions on some major aspects of professional journalism. Therefore:

RQ3(b): Are there any significant differences in journalists' core professional beliefs between daily newspapers and television?

In addition to the three major components (institutional roles, epistemologies, and ethical ideologies), scholars argued that journalistic professionalism also includes some other elements such as professional education and training, professional work experience, reading of professional sources (magazines, online journals, and blogs), participation in professional activities, professional autonomy in the work process and so on. Therefore:

RQ3 (c): Is there a significant difference in overall journalism professionalism level between daily newspapers and television stations in the U.S.?

Research suggests that both organizational culture and professional culture of journalism can influence organizational innovation. Some studies demonstrated that organizational culture has a greater influence on innovation performance, whereas some other studies showed that professional culture plays a more important role in affecting innovation adoption. Therefore:

RQ4: Is there a significant relationship between culture and news organizations' UGC adoption?

Again, Cameron and Quinn (2006) argued that there are four major types of organizational culture – clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy – based on two dimensions: internal/external focus and stability/flexibility. Previous research indicated that adhocracy culture is the most helpful for organizational innovation, while hierarchical culture is the most harmful for innovation. Therefore:

H8 (a): Organizational culture type had a significantly influence on news organization's UGC adoption.

Studies found that more flexible organizations foster organizational innovation, whereas more stable organizations hamper innovation. This is because strict rules and policies hinder the development of employees' ability to adapt to change and thus they are reluctant to take the risk of adopting innovation in their work (Valencia et al., 2010). Therefore:

H8 (b): News organizations with an emphasis of flexibility in their organizational culture had a significantly higher level of UGC adoption than organizations with an emphasis of stability.

Research suggested that organizations with an external focus pay more attention to the environmental changes (market changes) and thus have better innovation performance than those with an internal focus. Therefore:

H8 (c): News organizations with an external focus in their organizational culture had a significantly higher level of UGC adoption than organizations with an internal focus.

Previous studies showed that professional culture of journalism can significantly affect news organizations' innovation adoption. Nevertheless, many studies found that organizational culture was more powerful in influencing news organizations' innovation performance than professional culture of journalism. Therefore:

H9: Professional culture had a significantly influence on news organizations' UGC adoption.

H10: Organizational culture had significantly more influence on news organizations' UGC adoption than professional culture of journalism.

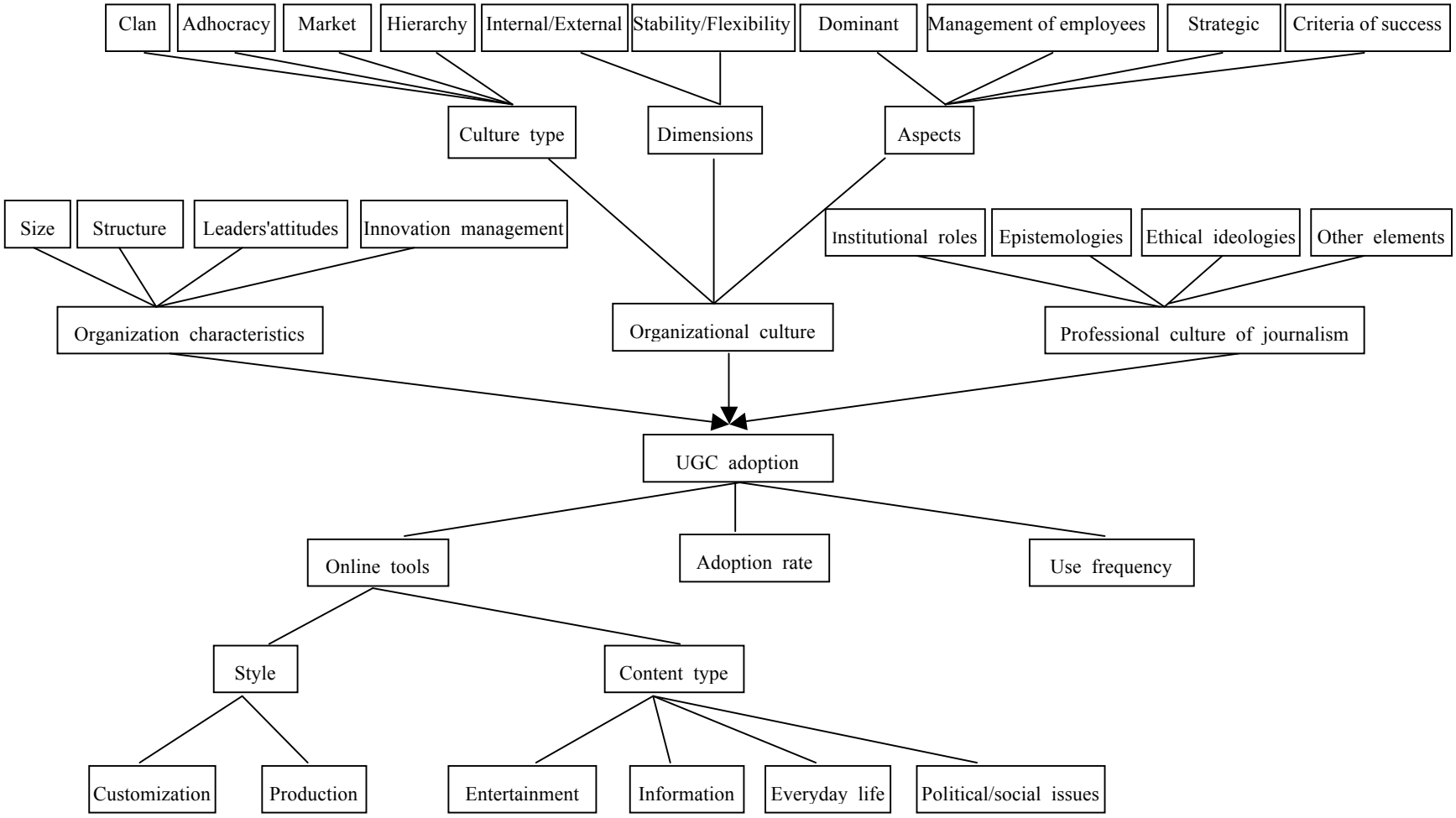


Figure 1. Relationships among major variables in this study – organizational culture, professional culture of journalism, and UGC adoption

CHAPTER 5

METHODOLOGY

The goal of the chapter is to explain how the study was designed and conducted in detail. There will be two parts in this chapter. First, the research design will be discussed in general. Second, the detailed research procedure, including variable operationalization, questionnaire construction and sampling method will be explained.

5.1 Research Design

The purpose of the research is to explore how organizational culture and professional culture influence media organizations' adoption of user-generated content (UGC). The levels of UGC adoption of different media organizations will be compared across their different types of organizational culture. Middle-level management will be invited to participate in the study, because they have both management and professional journalism experience and know their organizations well. Therefore, the primary unit of analysis is individual media organizations, and the secondary unit of analysis is individual media professionals.

A cross-sectional survey method was used in the present study. This method was chosen is because its advantages are helpful for collecting the data based on the research questions. First, surveys can reach a relatively large group of people with relatively reasonable costs (Wimmer & Dominick, 2006). This study needs to reach a lot of media executives of media organizations of difference types in the U.S. Therefore, using a combination of different survey modes (including

web and telephone modes) to reach these potential participants will be effective, and the researcher can control the expenses. Second, a large amount of data can be collected from a large group of people with relative ease without the restriction of geographic boundaries. In this study, a lot of questions about organizational culture and professional culture will be given to media executives of traditional media organizations all over the country, so the survey method is relatively fast in getting their responses.

5.2 Procedure

Population and sample

This study will focus on two media types – television and newspaper. These two traditional media types were chosen because they are used by traditional news providers who are facing challenges from new media and struggling with the conflict between adopting UGC and maintaining their professional norms of journalism. The newspaper sample is the whole population of U.S. daily newspapers and the television sample is the whole population of major network affiliates in the U.S. (ABC, CBS, NBC, and FOX).

The names of media executives and their contact information were obtained from online media organization directories – *Editor & Publisher Yearbook* and *Newsblu.com*. For those executives whose contact information was not available from these two sources, websites of media organizations were visited and phone calls were made to get the contact information of individual media managers.

In total, editors of 1,368 daily newspapers in the U.S. received invitation emails to participate in the study. Only one editor (either the executive editor or the managing editor) in each organization was contacted. Among those who received the emails, 161 were qualified for

the study because they completed more than 90% of the questions on the questionnaire, and the questions relating to major variables were answered. The response rate of newspaper editors was 11.77%. Regarding television stations, news directors of 567 broadcast network-affiliated TV stations received the invitation emails. Only one email was sent to those news directors who supervised more than one station. Among these news directors, 74 responses were qualified for the study because they completed more than 90% of the survey questions. The response rate of TV stations was 13.05%. The total number of the respondents was 235 (the total number of media managers who received invitation emails was 1935); and the response rate for both newspapers and television stations was 12.14%.

In this study, the population of daily newspapers was divided into five size categories based on average weekday paid circulation: Very small (1-10,000; 51.8%; n = 702), Small (10,001-25,000; 27.4%; n = 371), Medium (25,001-50,000; 10.6%; n = 143), Large (50,001-100,000, 5.4%; n = 73); and Very large (100,001+; 4.9%; n = 66). The sampling error of newspaper sample was± 6.82%. The category proportions of respondents' newspapers well reflect the size distribution of the whole population of daily newspapers in the U.S. (See Table 1).

The population of television stations was also divided into five market categories based on Nielsen Designated Market Area (DMA) sizes. These size categories include: very small market (151-210 DMA; 16.4%; n = 93); small market (101-150 DMA; 22.9%; n = 130); medium market (51-100 DMA; 28.0%; n = 159); large market (26-50 DMA; 16.0%; n = 91); major market (top 25 DMA; 16.6%; n = 94). The sampling error of television sample was ±9.90%. Again, the proportion of each market category of respondents' stations is consistent with that of

the population of broadcast television network affiliates in the U.S., suggesting both newspapers and television samples are accurate and representative (See Table 3).

Table 3
The Comparison of Market Size Proportions between Population and Sample

Media	Market size	Population (number)	Population (percentage)	Sample (number)	Sample (percentage)	Difference (between sample and population)
Newspapers (SE: ±6.82%)	Very small (1-10,000)	702	51.8%	73	45.6%	-6.2%
	Small (10,001-25,000)	371	27.4%	44	27.5%	+0.1%
	Medium (25,001 -50,000)	143	10.6%	20	12.5%	+1.9%
	Large (50,001 -100,000)	73	5.4%	11	6.9%	+1.5%
	Very large (>100,000)	66	4.9%	12	7.5%	+2.6%
	Total	1355	100%	160	100%	
Television (SE: ±9.90%)	Very small (DMA 151-210)	93	16.4%	8	10.8%	-5.6%
	Small (DMA 101-150)	130	22.9%	23	31.1%	+8.2%
	Medium (DMA 51 -100)	159	28.0%	21	28.4%	+0.4%
	Large (DMA 26 -50)	91	16.0%	14	18.9%	+2.9%
	Very large (DMA 1 -25)	94	16.6%	8	10.8%	-5.8%
	Total	567	100%	74	100%	
Total (newspapers and television)		1922	100% (99.33)	234	100% (99.57%)	

Note. SE = sampling error

Procedure

Considering the relatively large size of the two samples of the study, an online survey was used for data collection. A questionnaire was constructed on www.qualtrics.com (Appendix A). About ten present and former newspaper editors and television news director were invited to participate in the pre-test. They are researcher's friends and are not included in the sample of the study. The goal of the pre-test is to see whether the potential participants will fully understand all the questions, whether the online questionnaire is well organized, and how likely it is that they will complete the whole questionnaire. Then the researcher modified aspects of the questionnaire (e.g., question order and wording) based on the opinions of pre-testers.

After the pre-test procedure and the questionnaire revision, invitation emails with a brief introduction to the study and the link to the online questionnaire were sent to media executives of selected media organizations (Appendix B). One week after sending out the first round of emails, a second round of emails was sent to those managers to remind them to consider participating in the study. In total, five rounds of invitations were sent to potential participants within a time interval of one week: one original invitation and four reminder emails. Each of the five emails was phrased differently, but all precisely explained the study purpose and emphasized the protection of confidentiality.

In addition to the five invitation emails, other collection methods were also employed to boost the survey response rate. First, the researcher took the opportunity to attend the annual convention of the Radio Television Digital News Association (RTDNA) in order to invite the news directors who attended the convention and were in the target population of the present

study. Those news directors that the researcher met at the convention either completed the paper version of the questionnaire during the convention or finished it online afterwards. Second, the American Society of News Editors (ASNE) was contacted for help with the data collection. An advertisement was made on the weekly newsletter of the professional organization to invite its members and some non-members (mostly in the newspaper industry) to participate in the study. The advertisement included a short introduction to the researcher and the purpose of the study. Third, some phone calls were made to persuade the potential participants to help with the study by completing the online questionnaire. This same method was used to contact those potential participants who agreed to help with the study at the convention but had not finished the questionnaire yet; moreover, it was used for those who were not attendees of the convention but had partially finished the questionnaire online.

Questionnaire construction and operationalization

A questionnaire was constructed based on the measures of previous culture and user-generated content studies. There were, in total, 45 questions on the questionnaire, which were grouped into five sections: (1) the use of user-generated content, (2) organizational culture, (3) organization characteristics, (4) professional culture of journalism, and (5) demographic questions.

The questionnaire began with an information page explaining the purpose of the study, the content of the questionnaire, survey instructions, confidentiality issues, the potential risks of taking the survey, and the researcher's contact information. On the bottom of the information page, participants were offered four options allowing them to either start the survey or quit the

study: (1) “Yes, I would like to participate in the study. And please email me a copy of the study results.” (2) “Yes, I would. However, I don't need a copy of the study results.” (3) “No, I would not. But I would like a copy of the results by email.” (4) “No, I would not. And I am not interested in getting a copy of the results.” No matter which one of the four options the respondents chose, they were thanked for their time and consideration. The questionnaire can be seen in Appendix A.

The rest of this section will discuss the measures used to address the research questions and hypotheses. The first three parts of the survey questionnaire included variables relating to use of user-generated content, organization characteristics, and organizational culture; the fourth and fifth parts include variables relating to journalistic culture and personal information.

UGC adoption

Media organizations’ adoption of user-generated content is the dependent variable in the present study. The study measured media organizations’ UGC adoption by asking the respondents (media executives) what functions they provided to their customers for creating user content on their websites, how often journalists use UGC in their news production process, when different types of UGC were adopted, and so on.

First, respondents were asked whether or not they provided UGC functions or tools on their websites. If yes, they were asked about the driving factors for their organizations to use UGC by selecting one or more of the eleven response options (1. Improve news quality, 2. Attract more consumers, 3. Save cost, 4. Lack of resources; 5. Afraid of being left behind by competitors, 6. Learn about customers’ needs and expectations, 7. Create a positive image for

your organization, 8. Differentiate media products, 9. Customers' suggestions, 10.Other reason(s). 11. Don't know). Then they were required to complete other relevant questions in this section. If respondents answered "no," then they were asked the reasons for not adopting UGC by choosing one or more of the eight response options (A. Hurt news credibility; B. Hurt journalists' professionalism; C. Give extra work to journalists; D. Journalists are reluctant to use it in their news production; E. No sufficient money for the necessary technologies; F. No enough staff for managing it; G. Other reasons; H. Don't know). Then they were led to the next section of the questionnaire.

Second, to measure the level of UGC adoption, respondents whose organizations adopted UGC were asked to tell what UGC functions were provided on their websites and when those functions were adopted. Twelve response options were provided: 1. Comments on news stories, 2. Regularly-produced blogs by non-employees, 3. User blogs, 4. User-submitted pictures, 5. User-submitted audio, 6. User-submitted video, 7. User-submitted news stories, 8. User-submitted video packages (news reporting), 9. Online forums, 10. RSS, 11. Twitter, 12. Facebook. Moreover, they were asked approximately how long their organizations had provided these functions online. A 7-point scale was used ("1-2 years ago" to "13-14 years ago"). Beyond that, two options – "Haven't adopted it" and "Don't know" – were also provided.

Third, questions relating to UGC operation by the newsroom staff were given. They include: the major type of content, UGC moderation by employees, news managers' goals, whether audience research has been done before adopting UGC, support provided by managers to employees, and perceived usefulness of UGC in improving news quality. A 7-point semantic

differential scale was used (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) in these questions. Moreover, respondents were asked to tell how often their journalists use UGC in their news production process by selecting one of the eight response options: 1. Never use, 2. Less than once a month, 3. Once a month, 4. 2-3 times a month, 5. Once a week, 6, 2-3 times a week, 7. Daily, 8. Don't know. Last, respondents were asked what the likelihood was that they would provide more UGC in the future. The likelihood was measured with one statement on a 5-point scale (1= not likely at all to 5= very likely) – "How likely is it your news organization will provide more user-generated content functions online to the users in the future?"

Organizational culture

Organizational culture functions as an independent variable in the related research questions. The organizational culture assessment instrument (OCAI), which was developed by Cameron and Quinn (2006), was used to measure the organizational culture of each media organization in the study. There were, in total, six questions/dimensions of organizational culture in the instrument: dominant characteristics (e.g., the organization is very result-oriented), organizational leadership, management of employees, organization glue, strategic emphases, and criteria of success. In this study, the researcher used four of the six dimensions of organizational culture: dominant characteristics, management of employees, strategic emphases, and criteria of success. These four dimensions were chosen because they are the most relevant to the research questions for this study. Previous scholars have also used part of the scale in their organizational studies (E.g., Valencia, et al., 2010).

In the second section of the questionnaire, there are four questions representing the four culture dimensions. In each question, there is one statement for each of the four culture types

(adhocracy, clan, market, and hierarchy). There are two ways of using the culture scale: the first way, known as the ipsative rating scale, is the original way created by the developers of the assessment, in which respondents are asked to divide 100 points among these four alternatives based on the extent to which each alternative is similar to their own organizations; the second way is the Likert scale (used more often in quantitative studies), in which respondents are asked to select one of the seven options (from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) based on how similar each statement is to their organizations. The scholars who developed the culture scale said that both types of response scales can be used in organization culture studies. They suggested that scholars choose the statistical technique that best matches their research questions and agendas (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

Both types of scales have their own advantages and disadvantages. The ipsative rating scale can force respondents to identify the trade-offs that actually exist in their organizations. In addition, it provides a 100-point scale which can lead to more differentiation in ratings. However, it costs respondents more time to answer all the questions, and standard statistical analyses are not appropriate for analyzing this type of data because independent responses on each statement are required. A Likert scale does not have the above-mentioned advantages of an ipsative rating scale; however, it has advantages that an ipsative scale does not have – it is good for standard statistical analysis and takes much less of the respondents' time. In the present study, a Likert scale was finally used in the data collection stage. This decision was made based on the consideration of all the factors mentioned above and pre-testers' feedback. In particular, all the pre-testers said that the ipsative scale took a long time for them to finish. Time is a very

important factor affecting survey response rate, especially since the response rate is getting lower and lower lately, and since no incentive was offered in the present study.

To interpret the culture types of the media organizations in the study, scores for each of the culture types were calculated from the mean of the four dimensions. For example, the scores of all item A responses (representing the adhocracy culture type) were added together and divided by four (corresponding to the four dimensions). In the results section, an explanation of the meaning of each of the average scores relating to a type of organizational culture will be provided in detail.

Organization characteristics

The third part of the questionnaire contains questions related to organization characteristics. These characteristics are a reflection of the culture of an organization and were chosen based on the literature review in the relevant topic area. They include the effectiveness of communication between media managers and journalists regarding news tasks, organizational resources (including technology investment and Internet technology training provided to journalists), organization size and basic structure, and how long ago their organizations were established.

Regarding the question of organization size, respondents were asked to write down the number of employees in their newsroom. Similarly, for the question of organization longevity, respondents also need to give a specific number in the text box provided. In terms of the organization structure, three response options were provided: 1. Team (independent teams covering different topic areas); 2. Centralization-based (regular newsroom structure); 3. Don't

know. Each of the rest of these questions relating to organization characteristics was measured with a statement on a 7-point scale (1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

Professional culture of journalism

The fourth part of the questionnaire includes questions relating to professional culture of journalism. Journalistic culture is the second independent variable of the study. The related literature shows that professional culture of journalism has been studied from several major dimensions: credibility, accuracy, quality of news stories, journalists' autonomy over their own behavior, responsibility and accountability (Singer, 2004, 2007; Singer & Ashman, 2009). In this study, journalistic culture was measured using 13 items.

First, three major dimensions of journalists' professional beliefs were used: journalists' institutional roles, journalism's epistemologies, and their ethical ideologies (Hanitzsch et al., 2011). They were measured with six statements on a 7-point scale. The six statements were:

1. Journalist's role is to concentrate on producing news that will attract the widest possible audience (1= Not at all important to 7= extremely important).
2. Journalist's role is to motivate people to participate in civic activity and political discussion (1= Not at all important to 7= extremely important).
3. I make claims only if they are substantiated by hard evidence and reliable source (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).
4. I provide analysis of events and issues in my work (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

5. What is ethical in journalism varies from one situation to another (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).
6. There are ethical principles which are so important that they should be followed by all journalists, regardless of situation and context (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

Second, professional culture of journalism was also measured with another six items including journalistic education, the length of their professional work experience, the frequency of their reading professional magazines and other sources, the frequency of their participation in the activities organized by professional organizations, whether they think professional autonomy in their work process is important, and whether they would prioritize professional journalism values over the interests of their organizations if there were a conflict. These dimensions were chosen because the literature review indicated that they are related to journalists' professional beliefs and values. The six items were:

1. Journalistic education. Participants were provided with six response options: 1. none. 2. two-year college degree 3. Bachelor degree 4. Master's degree 5. Ph.D. degree 6. Other education or training. Please specify:_____
2. The length of their professional work experience. Two questions were given to the respondents. The first question asked how much management experience the respondents had in their current positions. The second questions asked how much professional experience the respondents had.

   How many years have you worked in your current position?_____

   How many years have you worked in the news media industry?_____

3. Participation in professional activities. First, respondents were asked to tell how often they read professional magazines or other sources about journalism and news media by selecting one of the seven response options (1. Never; 2. Less than once a month; 3. Once a month; 4. 2-3 times a month; 5. Once a week; 6. 2-3 times a week; 7. Daily).
4. Second, respondents were asked to tell how often they participate in the activities organized by the professional journalism associations of which they were a member by selecting one of the seven response options (1.No membership with any professional association; 2. Have membership but never participate in any activities; 3. Less than once a year; 4. Once a year; 5. A few times a year; 6. Once a month; 7. A few times a month).
5. Journalist's autonomy. Journalist's autonomy was measure with one statement "Journalists in your organizations fully enjoy the professional autonomy in their work process" on a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).
6. How firm journalists hold their professional values. Respondents were asked to rate the statement "My organization prioritizes professional journalism values over organization interests when there is a conflict between the two" on a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

Demographics

The last section of the questionnaire includes five demographics questions: the full name of respondents' organizations, organization size (TV – Nielsen DMA rank; newspapers – average weekday circulation), their current work titles, age, and gender.

Validity

The measures used in this present study have different types of validity. First, the measure of organizational culture – the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) that was developed by Cameron and Quinn (2006) – has been used in many organizational culture studies (Ahmadi et al., 2012; Ashraf et al., 2013; Berrio, 2003; Oney-Yazıcı et al., 2007; Shurbagi & Zahari, 2013; Valencia et al., 2010; Zahari & Shurbagi, 2012). Therefore, this measure has consensual validity, which means the measure has become a standard one and there is a consensus on the validity of the measure among scholars.

Second, the measure of journalistic professionalism has face validity. A measure has face validity when a researcher reviews individual items and decides that it is a good measure of the relevant construct based on his or her subjective judgment. In this study, the measure of journalistic professionalism includes 12 items that are the major components of journalistic professionalism based on the literature; the researcher went through all the items and, using personal judgment, decided that it is a valid measure. In addition, the researcher asked some experts (scholars and media professionals) in the field of journalism to review all the items of the measure, and they all said it appears to be a valid measure of journalistic professionalism.

Third, the measure of professional culture of journalism also has content validity. Based on the relevant literature, the researcher of the present study chose a scale developed by a group of scholars in recent years (Hanitzsch et al., 2011) and used part of the scale based on the purpose of the study. Moreover, the researcher added some items that are considered as major elements of journalistic professionalism to strive to achieve the content validity. The researcher

tried to tap all the dimensions of journalistic professionalism, although some elements of the construct were not included in the measure, because they do not have direct relevance to the research topic.

Fourth, the measure of innovation adoption (user-generated content adoption by legacy media) has convergent validity, which is a type of construct validity. Convergent validity is shown when two measures of different constructs that are theoretically related are proved to be correlated. In this study, there are three sub-measures for UGC adoption in general: the total number of online UGC tools, the UGC adoption rate, and the frequency of journalists' UGC use. These three constructs are theoretically related because they are dimensions of the construct of UGC adoption in general.

In order to determine whether these three constructs are actually related, a correlation analysis (Pearson's r) was performed. Results indicated that there was a strong and statistically significant relationship between the total number of online UGC tools and the UGC adoption rate, $r\ (176) = .74$, $p < .001$. Moreover, the results showed that there was a moderate yet significant relationship between the total number of online UGC tools and the frequency of journalists' UGC use, $r\ (233) = .23$, $p < .001$. However, there was not a significant relationship between the UGC adoption rate and the frequency of journalists' UGC use. Therefore, generally it can be said that the measure of UGC adoption has convergent validity, although the frequency of journalists' UGC use doesn't have a strong correlation with the other two sub-measures.

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS

In this chapter, data collected from media executives will be analyzed using appropriate statistical techniques; thus hypotheses will be tested and research questions will be answered. Specifically, first, a detailed description of the data collected for this present study will be provided. It includes the major characteristics of media organizations that participated in the study (media type, organization size, newsroom size, organization longevity, and newsroom structure) and the respondents' demographics (professional education, professional work experience in their organizations, work experience in journalism field, age, and gender).

Second, the study results will be presented regarding to what extent traditional news organizations adopt UGC (user-generated content), what are the main factors for them to adopt or not UGC, and approximately how long they have adopted different UGC functions respectively.

Third, the dominant style of organization culture of these news organizations and media managers' attitudes toward UGC will be provided. Moreover, how organization factors are related to organizations' UGC adoption will be analyzed.

Fourth, the respondents' professional beliefs will be discussed and the differences between newspapers journalists and television journalists will be compared. In addition, how respondents' journalistic professionalism is related to organizations' UGC adoption will be analyzed.

Finally, the relative importance of culture type between organizational culture and professional culture of journalism to news organizations' innovativeness - UGC adoption will be analyzed.

6.1 Major characteristics of news organizations and respondents' demographics

Major characteristics of news organizations

In the present study, two types of news media were focused: all the daily newspapers and broadcast television network-affiliated stations (ABC, CBS, NBC, and FOX) in the U.S. Among the 235 news organizations who participated in the study, there were 161 daily newspapers (68.5%) and 74 television stations (31.5%). The daily newspapers sample is larger than the television sample is because the total population of daily newspapers in the U.S. (n = 1368) is larger than that of television stations (n = 567) (See Table 4).

As what was discussed in method section, both newspapers and television stations were divided into five size categories based on their average weekday circulation (newspapers) and Nielsen Designated Market Area (DMA) sizes (television): very small (n = 81, 34.6%) , small (n = 67, 28.6%), medium (n = 41, 17.5%), large (n = 25, 10.7%), and very large (n = 20, 8.5%). More than 60% of the organizations fell into "very small" and "small" size categories. This is because 79.2% of the total populations of newspapers in the U.S. are either very small or small in terms of circulation size.

Table 4

Organizational characteristics of traditional media (daily newspapers and television stations)

Characteristics	Categories	Total number	Percent	Cumulative percent
Media type	Daily newspapers	161	68.5%	
	Television stations	74	31.5%	
Organization size	Very small (circulation 1-10,000/ DMA 151-210)	81	34.6%	34.6%
	Small (circulation 10,001- 25,000/ DMA 101-150)	67	28.6%	63.2%
	Medium (circulation 25,001- 50,000/ DMA 51-100)	41	17.5%	80.8%
	Large (circulation 50,001- 100,000/ DMA 26-50)	25	10.7%	91.5%
	Very large (circulation above 100,000/ DMA 1-25)	20	8.5%	100.0%
Newsroom size	1-20	95	40.8%	40.8%
	21-40	59	25.3%	66.1%
	41-60	28	12.0%	78.1%
	61-80	20	8.6%	86.7%
	>80	31	13.3%	100.0%
Longevity	1-50 years	29	12.3%	12.3%
	51-100 years	75	31.9%	44.3%
	101-150 years	95	40.4%	84.7%
	151-200 years	30	12.8%	97.4%
	>200 years	6	2.6%	100.0%
Newsroom structure	Team	90	38.5%	
	Vertical/centralization based	140	59.8%	

Seventy-three newspapers (45.6%) had a circulation of 10,000 or less; forty-four newspapers (27.5%) had a circulation between 10,001 and 25,000; twenty newspapers (12.5%) had a circulation between 25,001 and 50,000; only 11 newspapers (6.9%) had a circulation between 50,001 and100, 000; and there were 12 newspapers (7.5%) with a circulation above 100,000. Regarding television stations, only eight TV stations had a DMA rank between 151 and 210; twenty-three stations (31.1%) had a DMA rank between 101 and 150; there were 21 stations (28.4%) had a DMA rank between 51 and 100; 14 stations (18.9%) had a rank between 26 and 50; and only eight stations (10.8%) had a DMA rank of 25 or lower.

About two thirds of the news organizations in the study had small newsrooms in terms of the total number of employees. There are 95 organizations (40.8%) with 20 employees or less in their newsrooms; fifth-nine news organizations (25.3%) had between 21 and 40 employees in their newsrooms; twenty-eight organizations (12.0%) had between 41 and 60 employees in their newsrooms; only 20 organizations (8.6%) had between 61- 80 employees in their newsrooms; and 31 organizations (13.3%) had 80 or more employees in their newsrooms.

As to the history of the news organizations in the study, a majority of the organizations had a history of more than 50 years. Twenty-nine organizations (12.3%) were established between one and 50 years ago; 75 organizations (31.9%) were established between 51and 100 years ago; one hundred and twenty-five organizations (53.2%) were established between 100 and 200 years ago; and only six organizations (2.6%) were established more than 200 years ago. For newspapers, organizations were established between 11 and 229 years ago. The average length of the newspapers' history in the study is 127 years. The television stations in the study were

built between 19 and 68 years ago. The average length of the television stations' history is 54 years.

The organizations' newsrooms in the study were divided into two categories: team and centralization-based structure. Team structure refers to those with independent teams covering different topic areas; while the centralization-based structure is traditional and refers to those were managed in a vertical way. In this present study, newsrooms with a centralization-based structure account for a relatively higher percentage in all the organizations' newsrooms. One hundred and forty organizations (59.8%) had a vertical newsroom structure; while only 90 organizations (38.5%) had a team-based newsroom structure. Table 4 displays these characteristics of news organizations.

Respondents' demographics

There were totally 235 news managers (news directors in television stations and news editors in daily newspapers) who participated in the study and finally completed the whole questionnaire online. Some respondents' questionnaires were eliminated from the study for the following reasons: not news managers, completed less than 90% of the questions on the questionnaire, and from organizations that were not in the population of the study. More than two thirds of the participants were male (76.6%). In addition, more than half of them were over age 45 (68.1%). More than four fifth of the participants (84.3%) had a bachelor's or higher degree in journalism or related field; and 33 participants (14.1%) had a master's degree in journalism or related filed (See Table 5).

Ninety-five news managers (40.6%) had worked in their current organizations for no more than five years. There were 35 news managers (15.0%) who had worked in their current organizations between 6 to 10 years. Fifty-six managers (23.9%) had worked in their current organizations for more than 20 years. Nevertheless, most of the managers had worked in news industry for a long time. About two thirds of the news managers (67.2%) had worked in news media industry for more than 20 years; moreover, there were 86 news managers (36.8%) who had worked in news media industry for more than 30 years. Thirteen managers (5.6%) had worked in news industry for more than 40 years. See more details in Table 5.

Table 5

Participant demographics

Variables	**Categories**	**Number**	**Percentage**	**Cumulative percentage**
Journalism education	No journalism-related degree	33	14.0%	14.0%
	Two-year college degree	4	1.7%	15.7%
	Bachelor's degree	165	70.2%	86.0%
	Master's degree	31	13.2%	99.1%
	Ph.D. degree	2	0.9%	100.0%
Years in their organizations	1-5 years	95	40.6%	40.6%
	6-10 years	35	15.0%	55.6%
	11-15 years	29	12.4%	67.9%
	16-20 years	19	8.1%	76.1%
	>20 years	56	23.9%	100.0%

Table 5 (Continued)

Variables	Categories	Number	Percentage	Cumulative percentage
Years in news media industry	1-10 years	19	8.1%	8.1%
	11-20 years	57	24.4%	32.5%
	21-30 years	72	30.8%	63.2%
	31-40 years	73	31.2%	94.4%
	>40 years	13	5.6%	100.0%
Age	18-25	7	3.1%	3.1%
	26-35	22	9.6%	12.7%
	36-45	44	19.2%	31.9%
	46-55	77	33.6%	65.5%
	56-65	69	30.1%	95.6%
	> 65	10	4.4%	100.0%
Gender	Male	180	76.6%	76.6%
	Female	55	23.4%	100.0%

6.2 Organizations' adoption of user-generated content (UGC)

Test for data normality of distribution and media organizations' UGC adoption level

Test for data normality of distribution

The normal distribution of data is a prerequisite for many parametric statistical tests such as t-test, analysis of variance (ANOVA), and regression. Therefore, an assessment of normal distribution of the data in this present study was conducted. Two methods were used for the assessment –numerical method and graphical method.

First, numerically, skewness and kurtosis were used to assess the data normality (See Table 6). For normal distribution of data, the acceptable range of skewness is from -0.8 to 0.8

and the acceptable range of kurtosis is from -3.0 to 3.0. In this study, the skewness values of the three dependent variables are: -0.38 (the total number of online UGC tools), 0.60 (the average UGC adoption rate), -0.19 (the frequency of journalists' UGC use). The kurtosis values for the three variables are: -1.02 (the total number of online UGC tools), 0.06 (The average UGC adoption rate), and -0.48 (the frequency of journalists' UGC use). Therefore, the data set of the study is normally distributed based on the numerical test.

Second, graphically, the normal Q-Q plots were used to test the data normality (See Figure 2-4). If the data dots are close to the diagonal line, then the data are normally distributed; while if the data dots are far away from the line and the shape of these dots is non-linear, then the data are not normally distributed. The normal Q-Q plots of the three dependent variables in this study are presented below. It is obvious to see that the data of the three dependent variables are normally distributed.

Table 6
Skewness and Kurtosis of the Data in the Study

Variable	Skewness	Kurtosis
The total number of UGC tools	-0.38	-1.02
The average UGC adoption rate	0.60	0.06
The frequency of journalists' UGC use	-0.48	-0.48

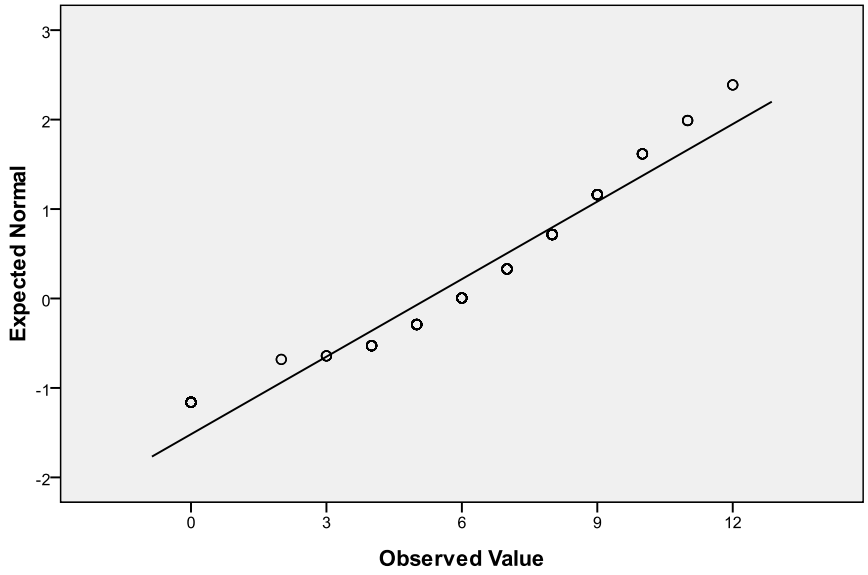


Figure 2. The normal Q-Q plot of the total number of online UGC tools

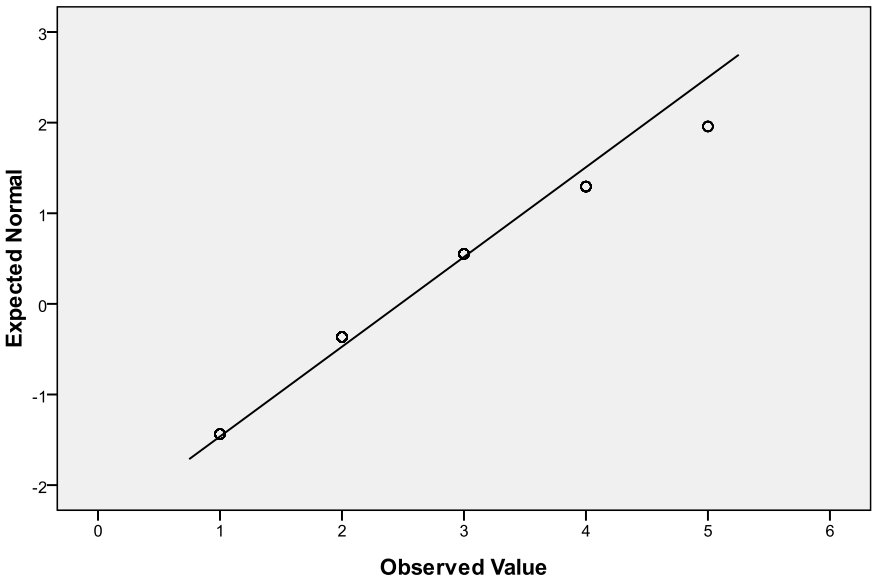


Figure 3. The normal Q-Q plot of the average UGC adoption rate

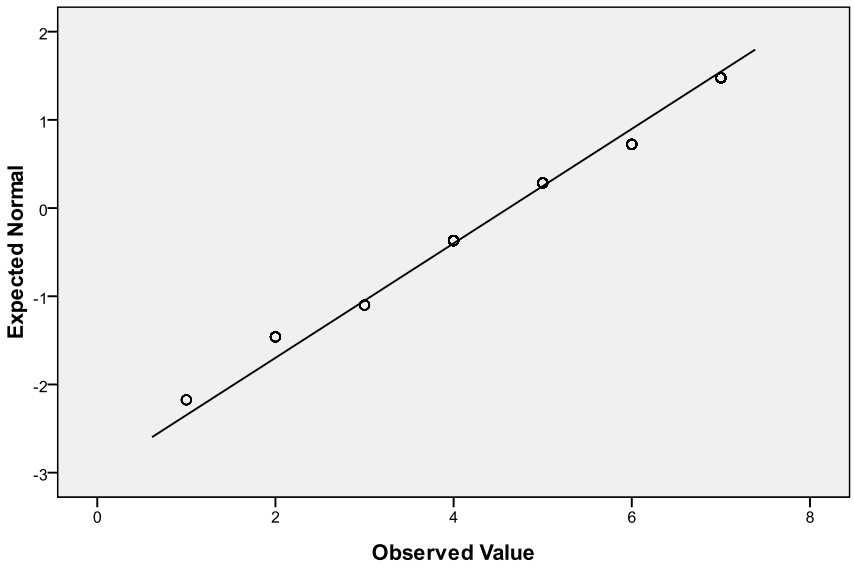


Figure 4. The normal Q-Q plot of the frequency of journalists' UGC use

Media organizations' UGC adoption level

RQ1(a): To what extent do the traditional news organizations adopt UGC?

Research question 1(a) predicted to what extent traditional news organizations (newspapers and television in this study) adopt UGC. According to the respondents' answers, 178 organizations have adopted UGC, which accounts for 75.7% of the 235 news organizations in the study (See Table 7). The results showed that more than three fourths of the news organizations have adopted UGC.

H1 (a): The proportion of television stations that have adopted UGC in its population is higher than that of newspapers.

Hypothesis 1(a) predicts that proportion of television stations that have adopted UGC in its population is higher than that of newspapers. The results showed that among the 161 newspapers, 115 organizations have adopted UGC, accounting for 71.4% of all the newspapers.

Among the 74 television stations, 63 organizations, accounting for 85.1%, have adopted UGC. The proportion of television stations that have adopted UGC is 13.7% higher than that of newspapers. Therefore, hypothesis 1(a) is supported.

Table 7
News Organizations' UGC Adoption Proportions (Newspapers and Television)

Media	UGC adoption proportions	Number	Total number
Television	85.1%	63	74
Newspapers	71.4%	115	161
Total	75.7%	178	235

H1 (b): Television stations provide their users more online UGC tools than daily newspapers.

Hypothesis 1(b) predicted that television stations provide their users more online UGC tools than daily newspapers. The variable "UGC adoption level" is the total number of individual UGC tools news organizations provide on their websites. On the questionnaire, respondents were asked to tell which specific UGC function they provided. One point will be given if an individual UGC function was selected. Thus, the total score indicates the total number of UGC tools they provided. If the option "don't know" was chosen, respondents will get no point for that specific UGC item. There are totally 12 UGC items on the questionnaire, so a respondent can get a score from 0 to 12.

In order to test hypothesis 1(b), an independent - samples *t* test was conducted. Levene's test for equality of variance was significant, $F = 15.78$, $p < .01$, indicating that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not tenable (See Table 8). The *t* test was not significant, $t (185.44) = -1.24$, $p > .05$. The results indicated that television stations ($M = 5.62$, $SD = 2.78$) don't have significantly higher level of UGC functions on their websites than newspapers ($M = 5.08$, $SD = 3.73$). Therefore, hypothesis 1(b) is not supported (See Table 9).

Table 8

A Comparison of Online UGC Tools between Newspapers and Television – Independent Samples T Test

Dependent variable	**Levene's test for equality of variances**		**T-test for equality of means**			
	F	*p*	*t*	*df*	*p*	Mean difference
Online UGC tools	15.78	.000	-1.24	185.44	.217	-0.54

Table 9

Means and Standard Deviations for the Total Number of Online UGC Tools (Newspapers and Television)

Media	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**Number**
Television	5.62	2.78	74
Newspapers	5.08	3.73	161

H2 (a): Customization style of UGC is more dominant than production style of UGC on the websites of traditional news organizations

Hypothesis 2(a) proposed that there is more customization style of UGC than production style of UGC on the websites of traditional news organizations (newspapers and television). As what is discussed in literature review, UGC can be divided into two categories based on the level of user involvement – customization and production. Customization style of UGC means that users are given opportunities to customize the existing content rather than create actual content (Ornebring, 2008). In this study, it includes five items: comments on news stories, non-employee blogs, RSS, Twitter, Facebook. Production style of UGC has a higher level of user involvement. It means that users create actual content for media organizations and other users. In this study, it includes seven items: user blogs, user-submitted pictures, audio, and video, user-submitted news articles, user-submitted news packages, and online forums.

The results showed that the most frequent UGC function provided on organizations' websites were Facebook and Twitter –175 respondents (74.79%) said they have adopted Facebook and 173 respondents (73.93%) reported that have adopted Twitter (See Table 10). The function "comments on news stories" was also reported very frequently by respondents – 157 news managers (69.16%) said their organizations provided the tool on their websites. User-submitted audio and user-submitted video packages (news reporting) were the least frequently reported UGC function – only 34 respondents (15.11%) said they allowed users to submitted audio on their websites and 23 respondents (10.04%) reported that they have adopted user-submitted news packages. See Table 10 for more detailed information about the adoption rate of different UGC tools.

Table 10
Adoption Rate of Different UGC Tools (from highest to lowest)

UGC function	Content type	Total number of "Yes"	Adoption rate
Facebook	Customization	175	74.79%
Twitter	Customization	173	73.93%
User-submitted picture	Production	166	72.17%
Comments on news stories	Customization	157	69.16%
RSS	Customization	122	57.82%
User-submitted video	Production	117	51.77%
Online forums	Production	96	42.48%
User-submitted news articles	Production	82	35.65%
Non-employee blogs	Customization	68	29.57%
User blogs	Production	54	23.89%
User-submitted audio	Production	34	15.11%
User-submitted news packages	Production	23	10.04%

Table 10 provides a rank of adoption rate of each UGC tool with the highest – Facebook on the top and the lowest – user-submitted news packages on the bottom. It showed that among the five most adopted UGC tools, only one tool is production- style of UGC; while among the least five adopted UGC tools, there are four production-style of UGC. Thus, in general, customization style of UGC has a relatively higher adoption rate than production style of UGC.

In order to confirm the finding, a paired-samples *t* test was conducted to evaluate whether news organizations (who reported that they have adopted UGC in Question 1 on the questionnaire) adopted significantly more customization-style of UGC than production-style UGC (See Table 11 and Table 12). The results indicated that the mean score for customization-style of UGC ($M = 3.87$, $SD = .93$) was significantly greater than the mean score of production-style of UGC ($M = 3.06$, $SD = 1.55$), $t(177) = 6.90$, $p < .01$. The 95% confidence interval for the mean difference between the two scores was .58 to 1.04. Therefore, hypothesis

2(a) was confirmed. Traditional news organizations adopted more customization style of UGC than production style of UGC on their websites.

Table 11

A Comparison of Online UGC Tools between Customization Style and Production Style – Paired Samples T Test

	95% Confidence interval of the difference						
Pair	Lower	Upper	*t*	*df*	*p*	Mean	Standard deviation
Customization - Production	0.58	1.04	6.90	177	.000	0.81	1.57

Table 12

Means and Standard Deviations for the Two UGC Styles – Customization and Production (Newspapers and Television)

UGC style	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**Number**
Customization	3.87	0.93	178
Production	3.06	1.55	178

H2 (b): Television stations provide more production style of UGC than newspapers.

Hypothesis 2(b) predicted that television stations provide more production style of UGC than newspapers. An independent - samples *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis (See Table 13-14). Levene's test for equality of variance was significant, $F = 4.61$, $p < .05$, suggesting

that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not tenable. The *t* test was not significant, t (158.60) = .97, p > .05. The results indicated that among the 178 news organizations that adopted UGC, television stations (M = 2.92, SD = 1.27) didn't have significantly more production style of UGC on their websites than newspapers (M = 3.14, SD = 1.69). Therefore, hypothesis 2(b) is not supported.

Table 13

A Comparison of Production Style of UGC between Newspapers and Television – Independent Samples T Test

Dependent variable	**Levene's test for equality of variances**		**T-test for equality of means**			
	F	*p*	*t*	*df*	*p*	Mean difference
Production style of UGC	4.61	.03	0.97	158.60	0.33	0.22

Table 14

Means and Standard Deviations for the Production Style of UGC (Newspapers and Television)

Media	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**Number**
Newspapers	3.14	1.69	115
Television	2.92	1.27	63

H2 (c): Television journalists use UGC more frequently than newspapers journalists in news production.

Hypothesis 2(c) predicted that television journalists use UGC more frequently than newspapers journalists in news production (See Table 15-16). To test the hypothesis, an independent - samples *t* test was conducted. Levene's test for equality of variance was significant, $F = 11.66$, $p < .01$, suggesting that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not tenable. The *t* test was significant, $t (163.08) = -4.55$, $p < .001$. The results suggested that among the 178 news organizations that adopted UGC, television journalists ($M = 5.51$, $SD = 1.31$) used UGC more frequently than newspapers journalists ($M = 4.43$, $SD = 1.81$) in their news production. Thus, hypothesis 2(c) is supported.

Table 15

A Comparison of the Frequency of Journalists' UGC Use between Newspapers and Television – Independent Samples T Test

Dependent variable	**Levene's test for equality of variances**		**T-test for equality of means**			
	F	*p*	*t*	*df*	*p*	Mean difference
The frequency of journalists' UGC use	11.66	.001	-4.55	163.08	.000	-1.07

Table 16

Means and Standard Deviations for the Frequency of Journalists' UGC Use (Newspapers and Television)

Media	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**Number**
Television	5.51	1.31	63
Newspapers	4.43	1.81	115

Major content type of UGC on the websites of news organizations

RQ1(b): Which type of content is more dominant on news organizations' websites (entertainment versus information, everyday life versus political/social issues)?

Table 17

Respondents' Proportions regarding their Opinions about UGC Content Types (Entertainment/Information; Daily Life/Political Issues)

UGC content type	Proportion (respondents)	Number
Information	56.7%	80
Entertainment	43.3%	61
Total	100%	141
Everyday life	53.9%	82
Political/social issues	46.1%	70
Total	100%	152

Research question 1(b) asks which type of content is more dominant on news organizations' websites (entertainment versus information, everyday life versus political/social issues). The results showed that only 61 respondents (43.3%) believed UGC on their websites contained more entertainment elements; while 80 respondents (56.7%) said that UGC on their websites contained more information elements if the two kinds of elements were not equal (See Table 17). In addition, the results showed that 82 respondents (53.9%) believed that there were more UGC relating to users' everyday lives than UGC about political and social issues on

websites of their organizations; while only 70 respondents (46.1%) had opposite opinions. Therefore, according to the news managers in the study, information type of UGC and UGC relating to users' everyday lives was dominant on news organizations' websites.

UGC adoption rate of news organizations

RQ1(c): How quickly did media organizations adopt each UGC function?

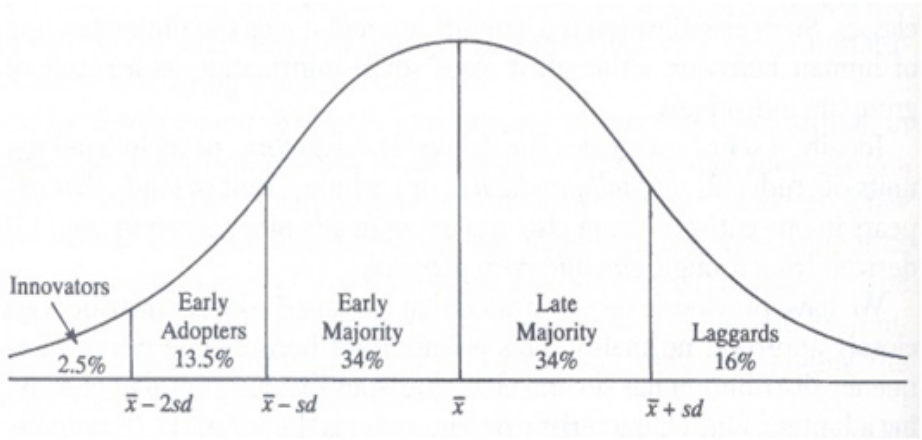
Research question1(c) asks how quickly media organizations in the study adopted each UGC function. In order to answer this question, Rogers (1995)' method of adopter categorization was used to divided news organizations into five adopter categories based on how early they adopted each UGC tool. As what was discussed in literature review section, the standard set of five adopter categories includes: innovators (2.5%), early adopters (13.5%), early majority (34%), late majority (34%), and laggards (16%) (See Figure 5). Thus, mean and standard deviation of each UGC's adoption time was calculated to figure out the five adopter categories.

Table 18 shows the percentage of media organizations (compared with the total number of adopters of each UGC function) in each innovator category for individual UGC tools. Regarding user-submitted news articles and user-submitted news packages (news reporting), no news organizations in the study were classified into innovators as described in Roger's diffusion of innovation theory. Moreover, in terms of online forums, Twitter, and Facebook, no news organizations were classified into laggards (Table 18).

Table 18

Adopter categories by individual UGC tools (% of organizations)

UGC style	UGC tools	Innovators	Early adopters	Early majority	Late majority	Laggards	Total
Customization	Comments on news	7.0%	15.9%	25.5%	45.2%	6.4%	100%
	Non-employee blogs	6.0%	9.0%	34.3%	35.8%	14.9%	100%
	RSS	5.9%	15.1%	25.2%	31.1%	22.7%	100%
	Twitter	3.5%	22.7%	49.4%	24.4%	**0%**	100%
	Facebook	5.2%	29.3%	48.9%	16.7%	**0%**	100%
Production	User blogs	6.0%	10.0%	36.0%	32.0%	16.0%	100%
	User-submitted pictures	9.2%	14.1%	21.5%	46.6%	8.6%	100%
	User-submitted audio	6.7%	23.3%	30.0%	26.7%	13.3%	100%
	User-submitted video	3.5%	8.8%	29.2%	34.5%	23.9%	100%
	User-submitted news articles	**0%**	25.3%	19.0%	45.6%	10.1%	100%
	User-submitted news packages	**0%**	16.7%	27.8%	27.8%	27.8%	100%
	Online forums	9.8%	17.4%	33.7%	39.1%	**0%**	100%



Source: Everett M. Rogers' *Diffusion of Innovation* (1995, p. 262)

Figure 5. Adopter Categorization on the Basis of Innovativeness

RQ1(d): Which style of UGC between customization and production did news organizations adopt relatively quickly?

Research question 1 (d) asks which style of UGC between customization and production traditional news organizations (who reported that they have adopted UGC in Question 1 on the questionnaire) adopted relatively quickly. In order to answer this question, a paired-samples *t* test was conducted (See Table 19-20). The results showed that the mean score for adoption rate of customization-style of UGC (M = 3.19, SD = .94) was significantly greater than the mean score of adoption rate of production-style of UGC (M = 2.40, SD = 0.99), t (134) = 10.06, p < .01. The standardized effect size index, *d*, was .87, suggesting that the magnitude of mean difference is large. The 95% confidence interval for the mean difference between the two scores was .63 to .93. Therefore, traditional news organizations adopted customization style of UGC more quickly than production style of UGC on their websites.

Table 19

A Comparison of Adoption Rate between Customization-style and Production-style UGC – Paired Samples T Test

	95% Confidence interval of the difference						
Pair	Lower	Upper	*t*	*df*	*p*	Mean	Standard deviation
Customization - production adoption rate	0.63	0.93	10.06	134	.000	0.78	0.90

Table 20

Means and Standard Deviations for Adoption Rate – Customization-style and Production-style UGC (both Newspapers and Television)

Adoption rate	Mean	Standard deviation	Number
Customization	3.19	0.94	135
Production	2.40	0.99	135

News managers' reasons for adopting and not adopting UGC

RQ1(e): What are media executives' reasons for adopting and not adopting UGC?

Research question 1(e) asks what are media executives' reasons for adopting and not adopting UGC. Results showed that among the 178 news organizations (newspapers and television stations) that have adopted UGC, 134 news executives (75.3%) considered "attract more consumers" is a main reason for them to adopt UGC; while 116 news managers (65.2%) thought that UGC is helpful for improving news quality (e.g., extend the breadth and depth of news coverage); ninety one news executives (51.1%) believed that UGC can help create a positive image for their organizations (See Table 21). Other reasons for media executives to adopt UGC include: allow them to participate in the news production process, get news information about communities and schools, create consistent interaction with readers/viewers, diversify voices, take the advantage of expertise that doesn't exist on staff, collect eyewitness accounts and photos of news events, and get story ideas.

Table 21
Media executives' reasons for adopting user-generated content (UGC)

Reasons	**Yes**
Attract more consumers	75.3%
Improve news quality	65.2%
Create a positive image for your organization	51.1%
Learn about customers' needs and expectations	37.1%
Customers' suggestions	25.8%
Lack of resources	25.3%
Save cost	23%
Differentiate media products	17.4%
Other reasons	16.9%
Afraid of being left behind competitors	8.4%

Fifty seven out of the 235 news organizations in the study haven't adopted UGC. The results showed that more than forty percent of the news executives (43.9%) explained that an important reason for not adopting UGC was that they didn't have enough staff to manage it (See Table 22). Another important reason for not adopting UGC is credibility issue – about one fourth of the media managers (24.6%) worried that UGC could hurt their news credibility. Table 5 lists the details about the reasons for why some news organizations haven't provided UGC functions on their websites. In addition to the six major reasons in Table 22, media executives also provided some other reasons for not adopting UGC including: worried that journalists would be replaced with users' content, did not consider UGC to be valuable, news fairness would be hurt by agenda-driven partisans, couldn't verify information from users, no accountability, viewed

UGC to be less interesting and timely than professional journalists' content, didn't need UGC because there was no competition in the same market, and planned to use it but hadn't actualized it yet.

Table 22
Media executives' reasons for not adopting user-generated content (UGC)

Reasons	Yes
No enough staff for managing it	43.9%
Other reasons	31.6%
Hurt news credibility	24.6%
No sufficient money for the necessary technologies	15.8%
Give extra work to journalists	10.5%
Hurt journalists' professionalism	8.8%
Journalists are reluctant to use it in their news production	7.0%

6.3 Organizational culture and journalistic professional culture

Organizational characteristics and UGC adoption

RQ2 (a): What organizational characteristics are related to UGC adoption level of traditional news organizations?

H3 (a): Organization size is positively related to news organizations' adoption of customization style of UGC.

Hypothesis 3 (a) predicted that organization size is positively related to news organizations' adoption of customization style of UGC. In order to test the hypothesis, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. The ANOVA was significant, $F(4, 229) = 8.06$, $p < .01$ (See Table 23, Table 25, and Figure 6). The strength of the relationship between organization size and the adoption of customization style of UGC, as assessed by $\eta 2$, was strong, with organization size accounting for 12.3% of the variance in news organizations' adoption of customization style of UGC. Post hoc test using Fisher's LSD were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means. Results indicated that very small organizations ($M = 2.09$, $SD = 1.92$) adopted significantly less customization style of UGC than small organizations ($M = 3.24$, $SD = 1.71$), medium-size organizations ($M = 3.24$, $SD = 1.64$), large organizations ($M = 3.40$, $SD = 1.63$), and very large organizations ($M = 4.05$, $SD = 1.50$). However, small organizations, medium-size organizations, large organizations, and very large organizations did not differ significantly from one another. Thus, hypothesis 3 (a) is supported.

Table 23

One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of the Total Number of Customization-style UGC Tools by Organization Size

Source	***df***	***SS***	***MS***	***F***	***p***	***Partial η2***
Between groups	4	98.68	24.67	8.06	.000	0.12
Within groups	229	701.09	3.06			
Total	234	2805.00				

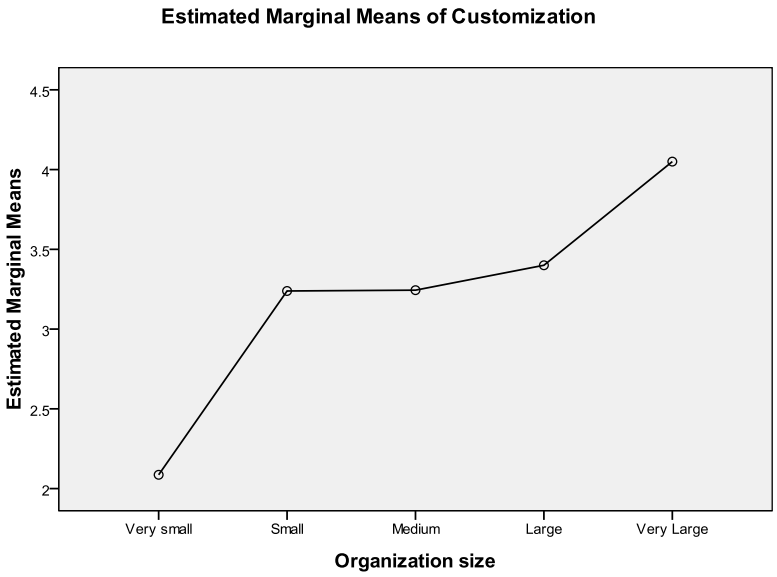


Figure 6. The relationship between organization size and the adoption of customization style of UGC

H3 (b): Organization size is positively related to news organizations' adoption of production style of UGC.

Hypothesis 3 (b) proposed that organization size is positively related to news organizations' adoption of production style of UGC. In order to test this hypothesis, again, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. The ANOVA was significant, $F(4, 229) = 3.97$, $p < .01$(See Table 24, Table 25, and Figure 7). The strength of the relationship between organization size and the adoption of production style of UGC, as assessed by $\eta 2$, was moderate, with organization size accounting for 6.5% of the variance in news organizations' adoption of production style of UGC. Post hoc test using Fisher's LSD were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means. Similar to customization style of UGC, results showed that very small organizations ($M = 1.74$, $SD = 1.83$) adopted significantly less production style of UGC than small organizations ($M = 2.40$, $SD = 1.88$), medium-size organizations ($M = 2.71$, $SD = 1.75$), large organizations ($M = 3.16$, $SD = 2.04$), and very large organizations ($M = 2.65$, $SD =$

1.63). However, small organizations, medium-size organizations, large organizations, and very large organizations did not differ significantly from one another. Therefore, hypothesis 3 (b) is supported.

Table 24

One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of the Total Number of Production-style UGC Tools by Organization Size

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*	*Partial η2*
Between groups	4	53.59	13.40	3.97	.004	.07
Within groups	229	772.07	3.37			
Total	234	2095.00				

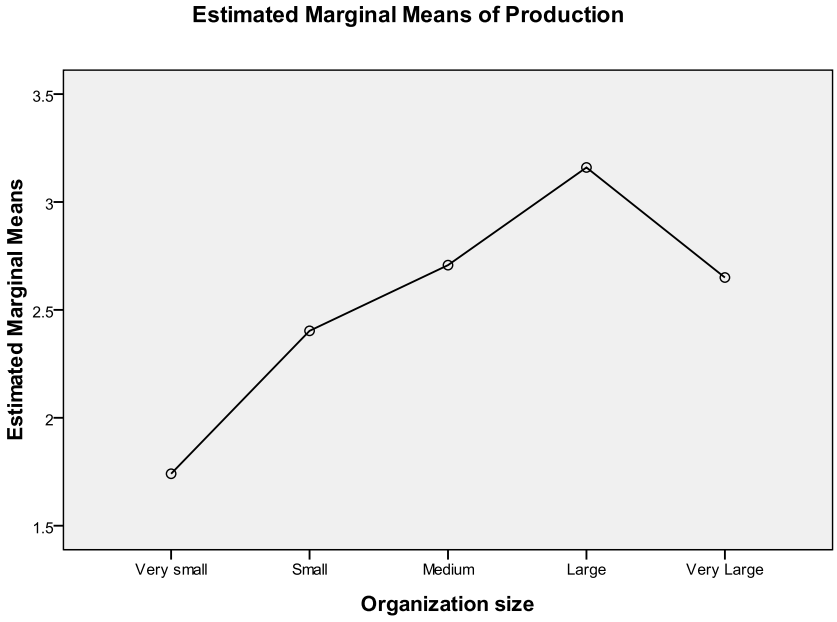


Figure 7. The relationship between organization size and the adoption of production style of UGC

Table 25

Means and Standard Deviations for UGC Adoption (Customization and Production Styles)

UGC style	Size	Mean	Standard deviation	Number
Customization	Very small (circulation 1-10,000/ DMA 151-210)	2.09	1.92	81
	Small (circulation 10,001-25,000/ DMA 101-150)	3.24	1.71	67
	Medium (circulation 25,001-50,000/ DMA 51-100)	3.24	1.64	41
	Large (circulation 50,001-100,000/ DMA 26-50)	3.40	1.63	25
	Very large (circulation above 100,000/ DMA 1-25)	4.05	1.50	20
	Total	2.93	1.85	234
Production	Very small (circulation 1-10,000/ DMA 151-210)	1.74	1.83	81
	Small (circulation 10,001-25,000/ DMA 101-150)	2.40	1.88	67
	Medium (circulation 25,001-50,000/ DMA 51-100)	2.71	1.75	41
	Large (circulation 50,001-100,000/ DMA 26-50)	3.16	2.04	25
	Very large (circulation above 100,000/ DMA 1-25)	2.65	1.63	20
	Total	2.33	1.88	234

H4 (a): News organizations with a team-based newsroom structure have a higher level of UGC adoption than organizations with a centralization-based newsroom structure.

Hypothesis 4(a) posited that news organizations with a team-based newsroom structure have a higher level of UGC adoption than organizations with a centralization-based newsroom structure. To test this hypothesis, an independent samples *t* test was conducted (See Table 26-27).

Levene's test for equality of variance was not significant, F = .76, p = .39, suggesting that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was tenable. The *t* test was not significant, t (71) = -.35, p > .05. The results indicated that news organizations with a team-based newsroom structure (M = 5.48, SD = 3.02) didn't have a significantly higher level of UGC adoption than organizations with a centralization-based newsroom structure (M = 5.72, SD = 2.70). Therefore, hypothesis 4(a) is not supported.

Table 26

A Comparison of the Total Number of Online UGC Tools between Centralization Structure and Team Structure – Independent Samples T Test

Dependent variable	**Levene's test for equality of variances**		**T-test for equality of means**			
	F	*p*	*t*	*df*	*p*	Mean difference
Online UGC tools	0.76	.385	-0.35	71	.731	-0.24

Table 27

Means and Standard Deviations for the Total Number of Online UGC Tools - Centralization Structure and Team Structure

Newsroom structure	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**Number**
Centralization	5.72	2.70	46
Team	5.48	3.02	27

H4 (b): News organizations with a team-based newsroom structure use UGC more frequently in their news production process than organizations with a centralization-based newsroom structure.

In order to test hypothesis 4(b) - news organizations with a team-based newsroom structure use UGC more frequently in their news production process than organizations with a centralization-based newsroom structure, an independent samples *t* test was conducted (See Table 28-29). Levene's test for equality of variance was not significant, $F = 3.72$, $p = .06$, suggesting that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was tenable. The *t* test was significant, $t (171) = 2.40$, $p < .05$. The results indicated that news organizations with a team-based newsroom structure ($M = 5.17$, $SD = 1.55$) use UGC significantly more frequently in news production process than organizations with a centralization-based newsroom structure ($M = 4.53$, $SD = 1.81$). Therefore, hypothesis 4(b) is supported.

Table 28

A Comparison of the Frequency of Journalists' UGC Use between Centralization Structure and Team Structure – Independent Samples T Test

Dependent variable	**Levene's test for equality of variances**		**T-test for equality of means**			
	F	*p*	*t*	*df*	*p*	Mean difference
The frequency of journalists' UGC use	3.72	.055	2.40	171	.017	0.64

Table 29

Means and Standard Deviations for the Frequency of Journalists' UGC Use - Centralization Structure and Team Structure

Newsroom structure	Mean	Standard deviation	Number
Team	5.17	1.55	70
Centralization	4.53	1.81	103

H4(c): News organizations with a team-based newsroom structure adopted UGC earlier than organizations with a centralization-based newsroom structure.

Hypothesis 4(c) predicted that news organizations with a team-based newsroom structure adopted UGC earlier than organizations with a centralization-based newsroom structure. To test this hypothesis, an independent - samples *t* test was conducted (See Table 30-31). Levene's test for equality of variance was significant, $F = 6.11$, $p < .05$, suggesting that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not tenable. The *t* test was significant, $t (123.28) = 2.59$, $p < .05$. The results suggested that among the 178 news organizations that adopted UGC, organizations with a team newsroom structure ($M = 2.73$, $SD = 1.13$) adopted UGC significantly earlier than those with a centralization-based newsroom structure ($M = 2.31$, $SD = 0.89$). Thus, hypothesis 4(c) is supported.

Table 30

A Comparison of Media Organizations' UGC Adoption Rate between Centralization Structure and Team Structure – Independent Samples T Test

Dependent variable	Levene's test for equality of variances		T-test for equality of means			
	F	*p*	*t*	*df*	*p*	Mean difference
Media organizations' UGC adoption rate	6.11	.014	2.59	123.28	.011	0.41

Table 31

Means and Standard Deviations for Media Organizations' UGC Adoption Rate - Centralization Structure and Team Structure

Newsroom structure	Mean	Standard deviation	Number
Team	2.73	1.13	70
Centralization	2.31	0.89	108

News managers' attitudes toward UGC adoption and innovation management

Four statements were used to examine news editors and directors' attitudes toward adopting user-generated content (UGC). These four statements include whether news managers think UGC improves the news quality of their organizations, whether UGC helps their organizations become more competitive in their markets, whether there is an increase in circulation/viewership since their organizations started adopting UGC, and whether their organizations will provide more UGC functions online to their users in the future. Moreover,

media managers' overall attitudes were obtained by calculating the average score of the means of the four statements.

Table 32
News Managers' Attitudes toward User-generated Content (UGC)

Statements	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
UGC improves the news quality of your organization.	2.2%	3.9%	3.4%	12.9%	27.5%	36%	14.0%
Using UGC helps your organization become more competitive in your market.	0.6%	5.1%	2.8%	9.7%	27.3%	41.5%	13.1%
There is an increase in circulation/viewership since your organization started adopting user generated content.	1.9%	10.2%	6.4%	32.5%	17.2%	25.5%	6.4%
How likely is it that your news organization will provide more UGC functions online to the users in the future.	1.2%	3.0%	0%	10.7%	20.1%	31.4%	33.7%

In general, media managers held a positive attitude toward adopting UGC, although it was not very strong (See Table 32). The average score of managers' attitudes is 5.21 (between option 5 "somewhat agree" and option 6 "agree"). Specifically, among the 178 news managers

who said their organizations had adopted UGC, one hundred thirty-eight managers (77.5%) believed that UGC improved the news quality of their organizations (M = 5.24 , SD = 1.36), and one hundred forty-four (81.9%) news managers agreed that using UGC helped their organizations become more competitive in their markets (M = 5.35 , SD = 1.26). However, only 77 news managers (49.1%) believed that adopting UGC helped them increase circulation and viewership (M = 4.55 , SD = 1.46), while 144 managers (85.2%) said it was likely that their organizations will provide more UGC tools online to their users in the future (M = 5.75 , SD = 1.30).

A reliability analysis was conducted on the four statements relating to news managers' attitudes toward UGC adoption (See Table 33). Each of the four items was positively correlated with the total score for managers' attitudes (with the item removed). All the correlations were above .50, indicating strong relationships. The Cronbach's alpha of the attitude scale including the four items is .78, suggesting it is adequate.

Table 33

Correlations of Individual Items with the Scale of News Managers' Attitudes toward User-generated Content (UGC) (with the Item Removed) - Reliability Analysis

Statements	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
UGC improves the news quality of your organization.	0.66	0.78
Using UGC helps your organization become more competitive in your market.	0.63	
How likely is it that your news organization will provide more UGC functions online to the users in the future.	0.54	
There is an increase in circulation or viewership since your organization started adopting user generated content.	0.52	

Seven statements were used to explore how well news managers managed their newsrooms in terms of creating an appropriate environment for adopting user-generated content. These seven statements include: whether news managers had a clear goal regarding how to use UGC in news production, whether audience research was conducted before implementing UGC adoption strategy, whether newsroom leaders gave ongoing support in the UGC adoption process, whether news managers made specific rules for journalists in terms of integrating UGC into their news stories, whether there is effective communication between journalists and newsroom leaders, whether sufficient technology investment had been made in the last five years in their organizations, and whether necessary training on how to use new media technologies in journalists' work was offered on a regular-basis. The overall innovation management score of news managers was obtained by calculating the average score of the means of the seven statements.

Generally speaking, news editors and directors had a moderate score for their innovation management (See Table 34). The average score of managers' innovation management is 4.85 (the scores range from 1 to 7). Specifically, among the 178 news managers whose organizations had adopted UGC, there were 133 news managers (74.7%) agreed that they had a clear vision or a specific goal regarding how to use UGC in their news production (M = 5.21, SD = 1.45), while only 40 news managers (27.0%) believed that audience research was conducted before their organizations adopted UGC (M = 3.22 , SD = 1.45). One hundred twenty-four news managers (70.4%) thought that ongoing support was provided to journalists in the process of integrating UGC in news production (M = 5.08 , SD = 1.46), while 129 news managers (73.4%) said

newsroom leaders made specific rules for journalists in terms of integrating UGC into their news stories (M = 5.15 , SD = 1.57). Moreover, one hundred sixty-nine news managers (95%) agreed that there was effective communication between newsroom leaders and journalists (M = 5.75 , SD = 0.92), while only 105 news managers (59%) believed that sufficient technology investment had been made in the last five years in their organizations (M = 4.45 , SD = 1.92). Finally, one hundred sixteen news managers (65.1%) thought necessary training on how to use new media and Internet technologies in journalists' work was offered on a regular-basis (M = 4.73 , SD = 1.60).

A reliability analysis was conducted on these seven statements proposed to assess how well news managers managed newsroom regarding adopting UGC (See Table 35). Each of the seven items was positively correlated with the total score for innovation management (with the item removed). All the correlations were greater than .30, indicating moderate relationships. The Cronbach's alpha of the management scale including the seven items is .74, suggesting the scale is adequate.

Table 34
Media Executives' Innovation Management

Statements	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
News directors/edited have a clear vision or a specific goal regarding how to use UGC in news production.	0.6%	6.7%	8.4%	9.6%	19.1%	41.0%	14.6%
Either audience or market research was conducted before your organization adopted UGC.	13.5%	39.2%	4.7%	15.5%	10.1%	14.9%	2.0%
Newsroom leaders have been giving ongoing support in the process of integrating user generated content in journalists' news production.	1.7%	5.7%	8.5%	13.6%	19.9%	38.6%	11.9%
News managers made specific rules for journalists in terms of integrating UGC into their news stories or assignments.	1.1%	8.5%	9.1%	8.0%	20.5%	34.1%	18.8%
There is effective communication between journalists and newsroom leaders regarding news tasks.	0%	0.6%	3.4%	1.1%	28.1%	48.9%	18.0%
Sufficient technology investment has been made in the last five years in the organization.	10.7%	9.0%	15.2%	6.2%	20.8%	25.3%	12.9%
Necessary training on how to use news media and Internet technologies in journalists work is offered on a regular-basis.	2.8%	8.4%	16.3%	7.3%	25.8%	29.2%	10.1%

Table 35

Correlations of Individual Items with the Scale of Media Executives' Innovation Management (with the Item Removed) - Reliability Analysis

Statements	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Necessary training on how to use news media and Internet technologies in journalists work is offered on a regular-basis.	0.60	
News directors/edited have a clear vision or a specific goal regarding how to use UGC in news production.	0.55	
Newsroom leaders have been giving ongoing support in the process of integrating user generated content in journalists' news production.	0.51	
News managers made specific rules for journalists in terms of integrating UGC into their news stories or assignments.	0.49	0.74
Sufficient technology investment has been made in the last five years in the organization.	0.41	
Either audience or market research was conducted before your organization adopted UGC.	0.37	
There is effective communication between journalists and newsroom leaders regarding news tasks.	0.31	

RQ2 (b): How were news executives' attitudes toward UGC and innovation management related to UGC adoption of their organizations?

H5 (a): News managers' positive attitudes toward UGC predict the overall UGC adoption level of their organizations.

H6 (a): News managers' innovation management predicts the overall UGC adoption level of their organizations.

H7 (a): Organization size predicts the overall UGC adoption level of their organizations.

Hypotheses 5 (a), 6 (a), and 7 (a) proposed that media managers' positive attitudes, innovation management, and organization size were predictors of the overall level of news organizations' UGC adoption. To test these three hypotheses, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted with organization size, managers' attitudes, and their innovation management as independent variables and the total number of UGC tools as dependent variable (See Table 36). Because previous analysis demonstrated that organization size was positively related to organizations' UGC adoption, organization size was entered into the first block. Next, managers' positive attitudes toward UGC and their innovation management were entered together into the second block and stepwise method was chosen.

Results indicated organization size, which was the first variable entered, significantly predicted the overall level of UGC adoption, $\beta = .28$, $t\ (172) = 2.36$, $p < .05$, indicating that the larger a news organization is, the more UGC functions were provided on their website. Organization size explained a significant proportion of variance in the total number of UGC functions, $R^2 = .03$ (adjusted to .025), $F\ (1, 175) = 5.55$, $p < .05$.

In the second model of the regression, managers' innovation management was added and the variable of organization size was kept. The results indicated that managers' innovation management significantly predicted the total number of UGC functions on their websites, $\beta = .35$, $t\ (172) = 2.18$, $p < .05$, suggesting that when controlling the variable of organization size in the model, the better managers managed the newsroom regarding UGC adoption, the higher their overall UGC adoption level was. The variable of innovation management uniquely added (R^2 change) three percent explained variance to the prior model, bringing the adjusted R^2 to .05,

suggesting that two predictors in the second model explained a significant proportion of variance in the overall UGC adoption level, $R^2 = .06$ (adjusted to .05), $F(2,175) = 5.22$, $p < .01$.

However, the results demonstrated that the variable of managers' attitudes toward UGC was not a significant predictor of organizations' overall UGC adoption level. Thus, organization size and managers' innovation management were significant predictors of the overall level of UGC. Therefore, hypotheses 6 (a) and 7 (a) were supported but hypothesis 5 (a) was not supported.

Table 36

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting the Total Number of UGC Tools (N=176) – News Executives' Attitudes toward UGC, Executives' Innovation Management, and Organization Size

	Model	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*p*
1	(Constant)	6.27	0.33		19.18	.000
	Organization size	0.28	0.12	0.18*	2.36	.020
2	(Constant)	4.66	0.80		5.80	.000
	Organization size	0.25	0.12	0.16*	2.14	.034
	Innovation management	0.35	0.16	0.16*	2.18	.030

Note. $R^2 = .03$ for Model 1; $R^2 = .06$ for Model 2.
*p < .05. **p< .01.

H5 (b): News managers' positive attitudes toward UGC predict the frequency of journalists' UGC usage in their news production.

H6 (b): News managers' innovation management predicts the frequency of journalists' UGC usage in their news production.

H7 (b): Organization size predicts the frequency of journalists' UGC usage in their news production.

Hypotheses 5 (b), 6 (b), and 7 (b) posited that media managers' positive attitudes, innovation management, and organization size predicted the frequency of journalists' UGC usage in their news production. To test these three hypotheses, a stepwise regression analysis was conducted (See Table 37). The independent variables were organization size, managers' attitudes, and their innovation management; and the dependent variable was the frequency of journalists' UGC usage.

The results indicated organization size didn't significantly predict the frequency of journalists' UGC usage. Moreover, the results showed that managers' positive attitudes toward UGC significantly predicted the frequency of journalists' UGC usage, $\beta = .77$, $t\ (164) = 6.51$, $p < .01$, suggesting that the more positive managers' attitudes toward UGC adoption were, the more frequently their journalists used UGC in news production. The model explained a significant proportion of variance in the frequency of journalists' UGC usage, $R^2 = .20$ (adjusted to .199), $F\ (1, 167) = 42.37$, $p < .01$.

In the second model of the regression, managers' innovation management was added and the variable of positive attitudes toward UGC was kept. The results demonstrated that managers' innovation management significantly predicted the frequency of journalists' UGC usage, $\beta = .54$, $t\ (164) = 4.03$, $p < .01$, suggesting that the better news managers managed the newsroom regarding UGC adoption, the more frequently their journalists used UGC in news production. The newly-added variable of innovation management uniquely added (R^2 change) 7% explained variance to the prior model, bringing the adjusted R^2 to .27, indicating that the two predictors in

the second model explained a significant proportion of variance in the frequency of journalists' UGC use, $R^2 = .28$ (adjusted to .27), $F(2,167) = 31.27$, $p < .01$. Thus, managers' positive attitudes toward UGC and their innovation management were significant predictors of the frequency of journalists' UGC use. Therefore, hypotheses 5 (b) and 6 (b) were supported; while hypothesis 7 (b) was not supported.

Table 37

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting the Frequency of Journalists' UGC Usage (N=168) – News Executives' Attitudes toward UGC, Executives' Innovation Management, and Organization Size

	Model	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*p*
1	(Constant)	0.85	0.63		1.36	.176
	Executives' attitudes toward UGC	0.77	0.12	0.45**	6.51	.000
2	(Constant)	-0.69	0.71		-0.97	0.33
	Executives' attitudes toward UGC	0.57	0.13	0.33**	4.53	.000
	Innovation management	0.54	0.13	0.29**	4.03	.000

Note. $R^2 = .20$ for Model 1; $R^2 = .28$ for Model 2.
*p < .05. **p< .01.

H5 (c): News managers' positive attitudes toward UGC predict the UGC adoption rate of their organizations.

H6 (c): News managers' innovation management predicts the UGC adoption rate of their organizations.

H7 (c): Organization size predicts the UGC adoption rate of their organizations.

Hypotheses 5 (c), 6 (c), and 7 (c) suggested that media managers' positive attitudes, innovation management, and organization size predicted the UGC adoption rate of news organizations. Again, a stepwise regression analysis was conducted to test these three hypotheses with organization size, managers' positive attitudes toward UGC, and their innovation management as independent variables and the UGC adoption rate of news organizations as the dependent variable (See Table 38).

The results indicated that organization size significantly predicted the UGC adoption rate of news organizations, $\beta = .21$, $t(172) = 3.74$, $p < .001$, suggesting that the larger a news organization was, the more quickly it adopted UGC functions on its website. The model accounted for a significant proportion of variance in UGC adoption rate of news organizations, $R^2 = .07$ (adjusted to .069), $F(1, 175) = 13.98$, $p < .001$. However, the results showed that news managers' attitudes toward UGC and innovation management did not significantly predict the UGC adoption rate of their organizations. Therefore, hypotheses 5 (c) and 6 (c) were not supported; while hypothesis 7 (c) was supported.

Table 38

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting UGC Adoption Rate of News Organizations (N=176) – News Executives' Attitudes toward UGC, Executives' Innovation Management, and Organization Size

	Model	***B***	***SE***	***β***	***t***	***p***
1	(Constant)	1.96	0.16		12.35	.000
	Organization size	0.21	0.06	0.27	3.74**	.000

Note. $R^2 = .27$ for Model 1.

*p < .05. **p< .01.

Organizational culture of traditional news organizations

RQ2(c): What is the dominant type of organizational culture in traditional news organizations in the U.S.?

Research question 2(c) asks what is the dominant type of organizational culture in traditional news organizations in the U.S. The results showed that among the 235 news organizations in the study, eighty-three organizations (36.1%) had market type of organizational culture; eighty-two organizations (35.7%) had clan type of organizational culture; thirty-five organizations (15.2%) had adhocracy type of organizational culture; and 30 organizations (13.0%) had hierarchy type of organizational culture (See Table 39). However, the 235 organizations got a mean score of 5.12 (on a 7- point Liket scale, from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) for clan type of organizational culture, which was the highest one comparing to the other three types of culture (See Table 40 and Figure 8). The mean score for market type of culture was 5.01, for adhocracy type of culture was 4.65, and for hierarchy type of culture was 4.28. This indicated that the clan cultural values were more emphasized in all the 235 organizations.

Table 39

Distributions of Organizational Culture Types in Traditional News Organizations in the U.S.

Media / Culture	Clan	Adhocracy	Market	Hierarchy	Total
Newspapers and TV	35.7% (n = 82)	15.2% (n = 35)	**36.1% (n = 83)**	13.0% (n =30)	100% (n =235)
Daily newspapers	**37.3% (n = 59)**	18.4% (n = 29)	27.2% (n = 43)	17.1% (n = 27)	100% (n =161)
Television stations	31.9% (n = 23)	8.3% (n = 6)	**55.6% (n = 40)**	4.2% (n = 3)	100% (n = 74)

Table 40

Mean Scores of Organizational Culture Types in Traditional News Organizations in the U.S.

Media / Culture	Clan	Adhocracy	Market	Hierarchy	N
Newspapers and TV	**5.12**	4.65	5.01	4.28	235
Daily newspapers	**4.98**	4.49	4.71	4.21	161
Television stations	5.43	5.00	**5.68**	4.45	74

It seemed like there was a discrepancy in the results between frequency analysis and mean score comparison; however, the difference between the percentage of organizations with market culture and organizations with clan culture was very small – only 0.4%. Moreover, the mean score difference between the two types of culture was also very small – only 0.11.

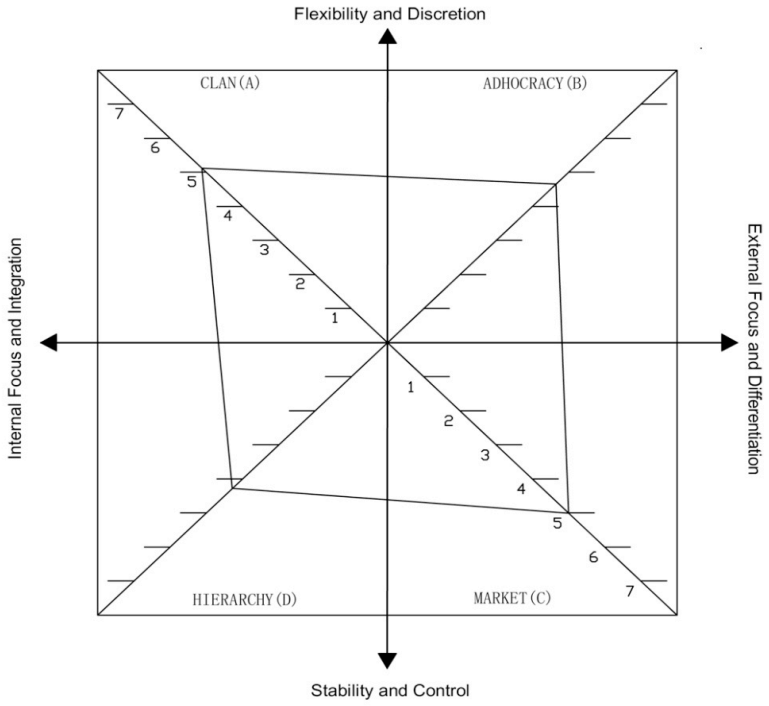


Figure 8. The dominant organizational culture in traditional news organizations (Newspapers and TV) in the U.S.

To further examine whether there was a significant difference in the mean scores between market and clan culture, a paired-samples *t* test was conducted (See Table 41 and Table 42). The results indicated that the mean score for clan culture type (M = 5.12, SD = .99) was not significantly greater than the mean score of market culture type (M = 5.01, SD = 1.12), t (230) = 1.34, p > .05. Therefore, the results again demonstrated that market culture and clan culture were both dominant types of organizational culture in traditional news organizations (daily newspapers and broadcast network-affiliated television stations) in the U.S.

Table 41

A Comparison of the Mean Scores between Clan Culture and Market Culture – Paired Samples T Test

	95% Confidence interval of the difference						
Pair	Lower	Upper	*t*	*df*	*p*	Mean	Standard deviation
Clan- Market	-0.05	0.28	1.34	230	.183	0.11	1.31

Table 42

Means and Standard Deviations for Clan Culture and Market Culture

Culture type	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**Number**
Clan	5.12	0.99	231
Market	5.01	1.12	231

Among the 161 newspapers, fifty-nine organizations (37.3%) had a clan type of culture; while 43 organizations (27.2%) had a market type of organizational culture. There were 29 organizations (18.4%) with an adhocracy type of culture; while only 27 (17.1%) organizations had a hierarchy type of culture (See Figure 9, Table 39, and Table 40). Moreover, the 161 daily newspapers got a mean score of 4.98 (on a 7- point Liket scale, from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) for clan type of organizational culture, which was the highest one comparing to the other three types of culture. The mean score for market type of culture was 4.71, for adhocracy type of culture was 4.49, and for hierarchy type of culture was 4.21. Thus, clan type of culture was dominant in daily newspapers in the country.

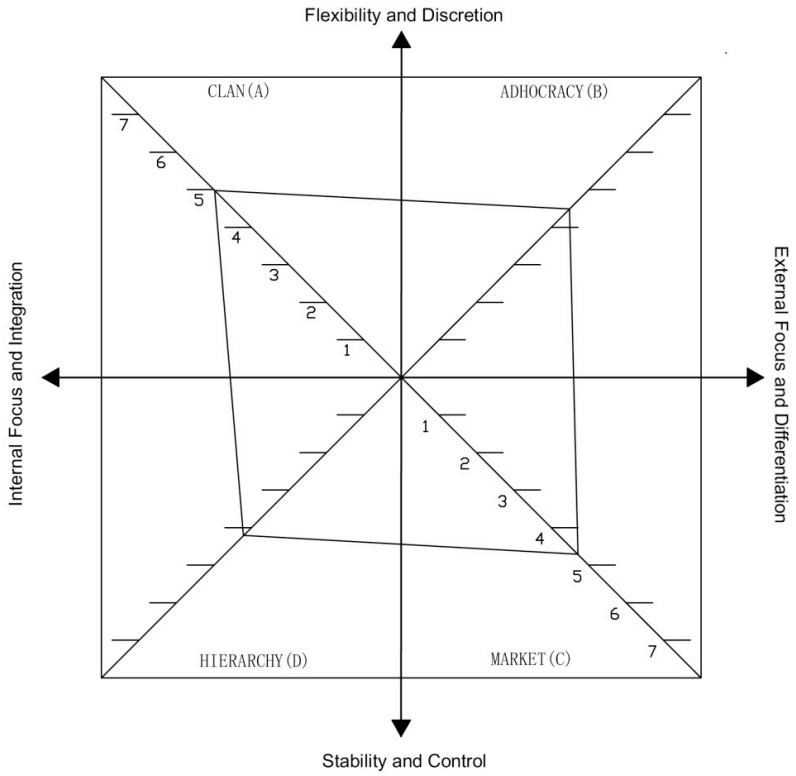


Figure 9. The dominant organizational culture in U.S. daily newspapers

Regarding the 74 broadcast network- affiliated television stations, forty organizations (55.6%) had a market type of organization culture, while 23 organizations (31.9%) had a clan type of organizational culture. Six organizations (8.3%) with an adhocracy type of culture, while only three organizations (4.2%) had a hierarchy type of organizational culture (See Figure 10, Table 39, and Table 40).

In addition, the 74 television stations got a mean score of 5.68 (on a 7- point Liket scale, from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) for market type of organizational culture, which was the highest one compared to the other three types of culture. The mean score for clan type of culture was 5.43, for adhocracy type of culture was 5.00, and for hierarchy type of culture was 4.45. Therefore, different with daily newspapers, market type of organizational culture was dominant in broadcast network-affiliated television stations.

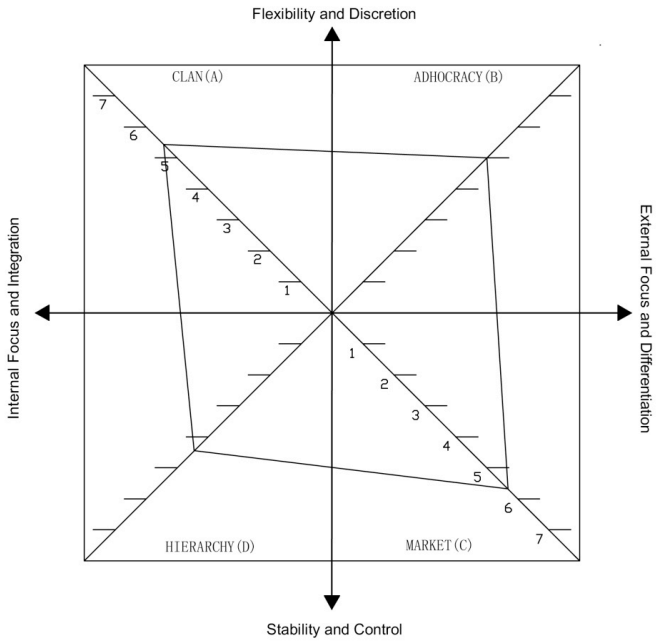


Figure 10. The dominant organizational culture in broadcast network-affiliated television stations

The results also indicated that the strength of the dominant culture in daily newspapers and television stations was different (See Table 43). Among the 59 newspapers with a clan type of organizational culture, the average score for this culture type was 5.68; while among the 40 television stations with a market type of organizational culture, the average score for this culture type was 6.14. This suggested that television stations had a relatively stronger culture than daily newspapers. Furthermore, among the 59 newspapers with a clan culture, less than half of these organizations (n = 26, 44.1%) had a score of more than six (6 = Agree, 5 = Somewhat agree); while among the 40 television stations with a market culture type, about two thirds of the stations (n = 27, 67.5%) with a score of more than six. Again, this confirmed the previous finding – in general, television stations had a stronger culture than daily newspapers.

Table 43

A Comparison of the Strength of the Dominant Organizational Culture between Newspapers and Television

Media	**Dominant culture**	**Mean**	**Number**	**Percentage** (score higher than 6.00= agree)	**Number** (score higher than 6.00=agree)
Television	Market	6.14	40	67.5%	27
Newspapers	Clan	5.68	59	44.1%	26

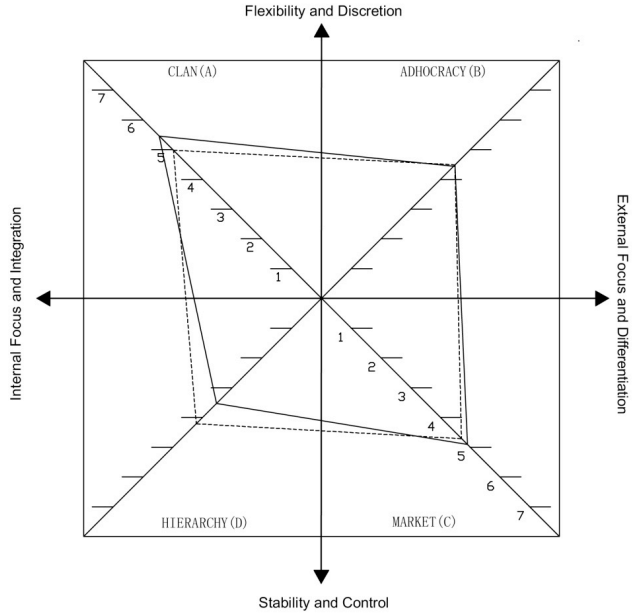
RQ2 (d): Is there congruence in the four aspects (dominant characteristics, management of employees, strategic emphases, and criteria of success) of organizational culture of traditional news organizations?

Table 44

Means Scores for the Four Aspects of Organizational Culture in Traditional News Organizations in the U.S

Media	Aspects	Clan	Adhocracy	Market	Hierarchy	Number
Daily newspapers	Dominant characteristics	**5.46**	4.45	4.91	3.53	161
	Management of employees	**5.42**	4.58	4.34	3.61	161
	Strategic emphases	4.74	**4.93**	4.58	4.43	161
	Criteria of success	4.28	4.02	4.99	**5.29**	161
Television station	Dominant characteristics	5.51	4.65	**5.68**	4.24	74
	Management of employees	**5.77**	4.86	5.38	3.73	74
	Strategic emphases	5.45	5.39	**5.49**	4.85	74
	Criteria of success	4.94	5.01	**6.15**	5.00	74

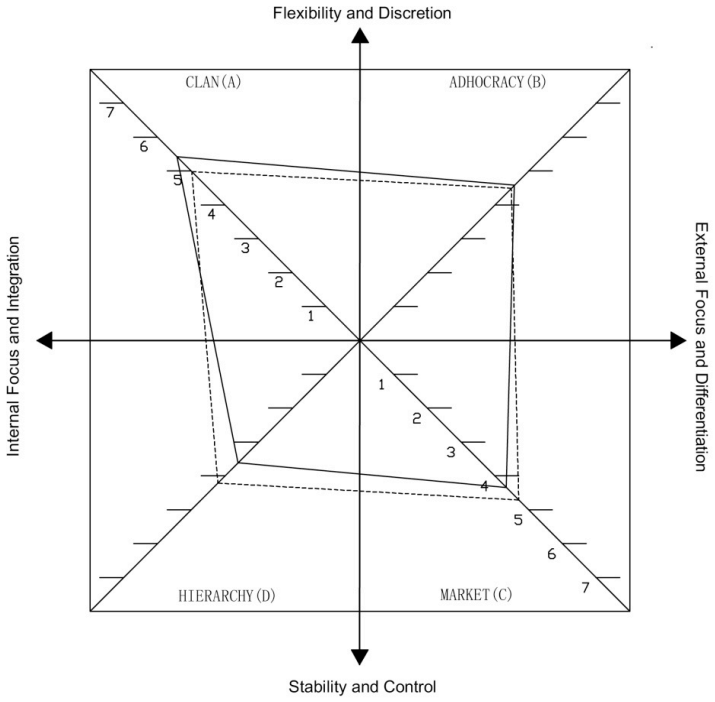
Research question 2 (d) asks whether there is congruence in the four aspects of organizational culture of traditional news organizations. The four aspects include dominant characteristics, management of employees, strategic emphases, and criteria of success. Analyses were conducted for daily newspapers and television stations separately (See Figure 11 -14 and Table 44). For daily newspapers, in terms of organizations' dominant characteristics, the average score for clan type of culture was the highest one (M = 5.46, SD = 1.23), indicating that daily newspapers' dominant characteristics was consistent with their overall cultural values. Similarly, as to daily newspapers' management of employees, the average score for clan culture type was also the highest one (M = 5.42, SD = 1.27). However, regarding daily newspapers' strategic emphases, the average score for adhocracy culture type was the highest (M = 4.93, SD = 1.55); while as for the aspect of criteria of success, the average score for hierarchy culture type was the highest (M = 5.29, SD = 1.08). Therefore, the results demonstrated that in the organizations of daily newspapers, the two aspects - dominant characteristics and management of employees were consistent with their overall cultural values – clan culture. Nevertheless, strategic emphases of newspapers emphasize a different type of cultural values - -adhocracy culture; and newspapers' criteria of success emphasized the values of hierarchy culture type.



_____ Dominant organizational characteristics

---------- Dominant organizational culture

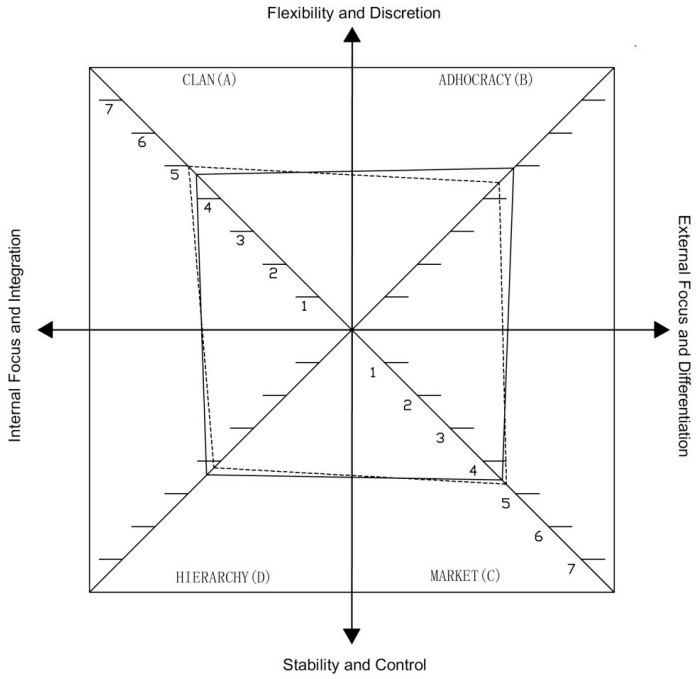
Figure 11. Dominant characteristics of U.S. daily newspapers



_____ Management of employees

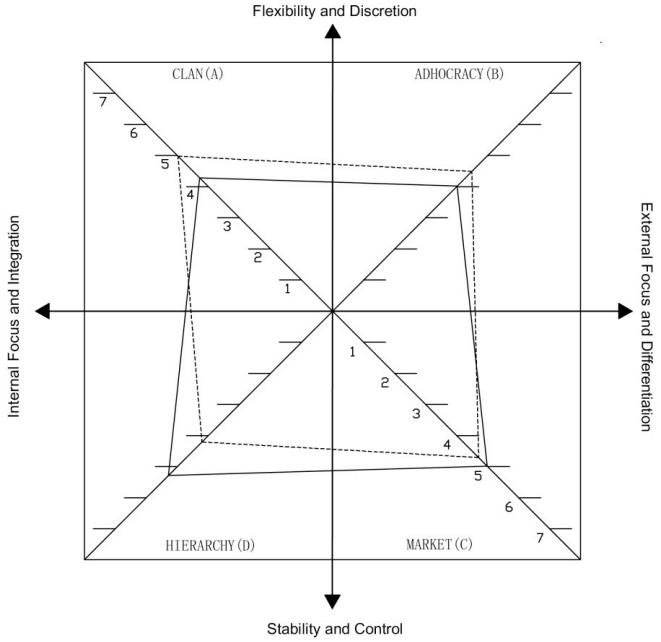
---------- Dominant organizational culture

Figure 12. Management of employees in U.S. daily newspapers



_____ Strategic emphases
---------- Dominant organizational culture

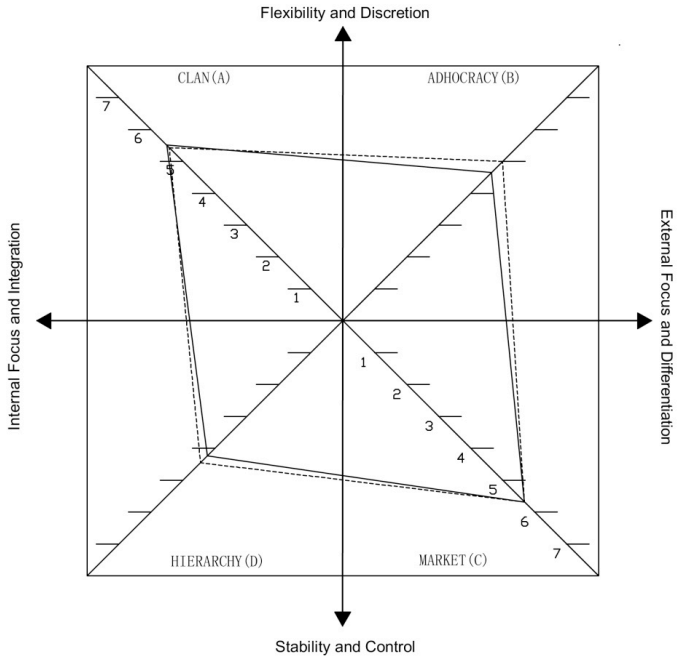
Figure 13. Strategic emphases in U.S. daily newspapers



_____ Criteria of success
---------- Dominant organizational culture

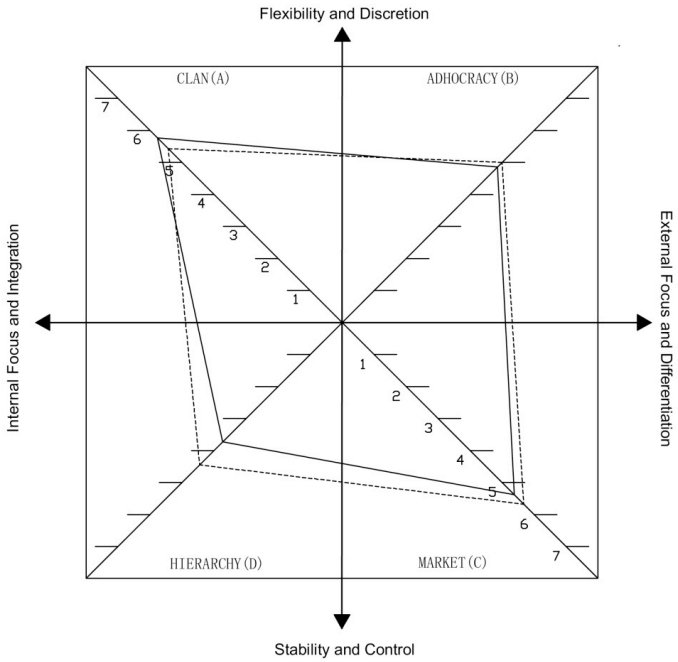
Figure 14. Criteria of success in U.S. daily newspapers

As to television stations, regarding organizations' dominant characteristics, the average score for market type of culture was the highest one (M = 5.68, SD = 1.11), suggesting that television stations' dominant characteristics was consistent with their overall cultural values (See Figure 15-18 and Table 44). However, in terms of television stations' management of employees, the average score for clan culture type was the highest one (M = 5.77, SD = 1.05). Moreover, regarding television stations' strategic emphases, the average score for market culture type was the highest (M = 5.49, SD = 1.30); while as for the aspect of criteria of success, the average score for market culture type was the also the highest (M = 6.15, SD = 1.10). Therefore, the results showed that in broadcast network- affiliated television stations, only the aspect of management of employees was not consistent with their overall cultural values; the other three aspects - dominant characteristics, strategic emphases, and criteria of success were all consistent with the overall cultural values – market culture. Thus, television stations had congruence in most of the aspects of their organizational culture. In other words, the same culture type – market culture was emphasized in most parts of television stations.



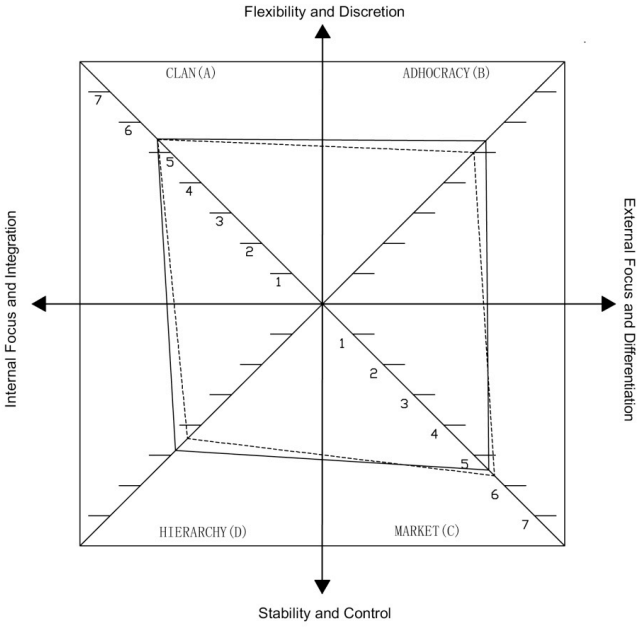
_____ Dominant organizational characteristics
---------- Dominant organizational culture

Figure 15. Dominant characteristics in broadcast network-affiliated TV stations



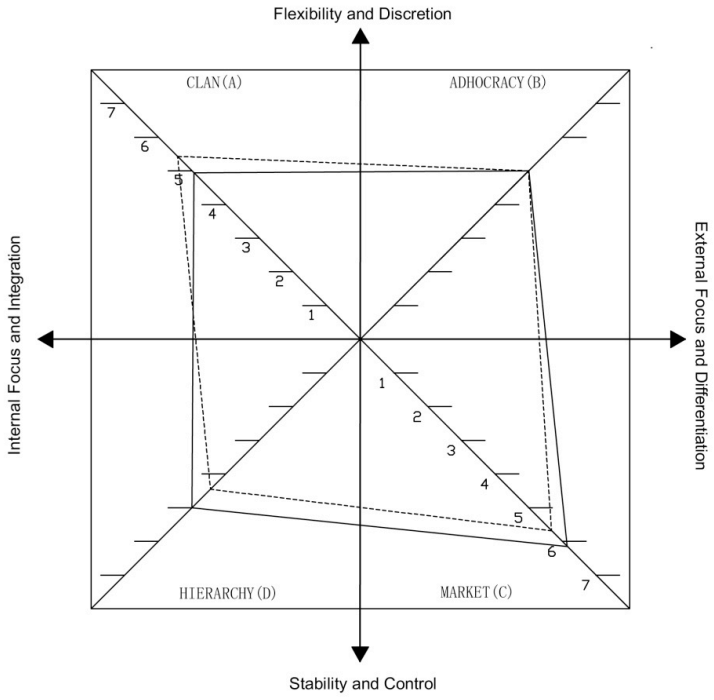
_____ Management of employees
---------- Dominant organizational culture

Figure 16. Management of employees in broadcast network-affiliated TV stations



_____ Strategic emphases
---------- Dominant organizational culture

Figure 17. Strategic emphases in broadcast network-affiliated TV stations



_____ Criteria of success
---------- Dominant organizational culture

Figure 18. Criteria of success in broadcast network-affiliated TV stations

A reliability analysis was conducted on the 16 statements relating to organizational culture of news organizations (See Table 45). Each of the 16 items was positively correlated with the total score of organizational culture (with the item removed). Ten of the 16 correlations were greater than .50, indicating strong relationships. The Cronbach's alpha of the organizational culture scale including the four items is .81, suggesting it is adequate.

Table 45

Correlations of Individual Items with the Scale of Organizational Culture (with the Item Removed) - Reliability Analysis

Statements	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Climate. A. My organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.	0.23	0.81
B. My organization is a very dynamic entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.	0.50	
C. My organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.	0.50	
D. My organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.	0.11	
Style. A. The management style in my organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.	0.51	
B. The management style in my organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.	0.50	
C. The management style in my organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.	0.47	
D. The management style in my organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.	0.03	
Strategies. A.My organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.	0.57	
B. My organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.	0.57	

Table 45 (Continued)

Statements	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
C. My organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.	0.54	0.81
D. My organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.	0.39	
Outcomes. A. My organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.	0.54	
B. My organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.	0.54	
C. My organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.	0.44	
D. My organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical.	0.18	

Core professional values of journalists in traditional news organizations

RQ3 (a): What are the core professional values of journalists in traditional news organizations?

Research question 3 (a) asks what are the core professional values of journalists in traditional news organizations. To answer this question, a 7-point Likert-scale (1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) including 12items was used. These 12 items or statements include: Journalists' institutional rules, journalism' s epistemologies, journalists' ethical ideologies, work experience, their engagement with their professional culture, perceived professional autonomy of journalists, journalism' education and training, and organizations' emphasis between professional values and organizations' interest. Each journalist' overall professionalism score was obtained by calculating the mean score of the 12 items.

Regarding journalists' institutional roles, among the 235 respondents, there were 224 news managers (95.3%) who believed that it was important for journalists to attract the widest possible audience (M = 6.06, SD = .95) (See Table 46); while 205 managers (87.2%) thought it was important for journalists to motivate people to participate in civic activity and political discussion (M = 5.52, SD = 1.10). In terms of journalism' s epistemologies, two hundred twenty-one news managers (88.6%) said they made claims in news production only based on hard evidence and reliable sources (M = 6.41, SD = .84); while 197 news managers (85.0%) said they provided analysis of events and issues in their news production work (M= 5.54, SD = 1.30). As to journalists' ethical ideologies, only less than one third of the news managers (29.7%) believed that what is ethical in journalism varies from one situation to another (M = 3.17, SD = 1.81); whereas 218 news managers (92.8%) thought that there are ethical principles which are so important that they should be followed by all journalists regardless of situation and context (M = 6.31, SD = 1.23).

Table 46

Core Professional Values of Journalists in News Organizations in the U.S.

Statements	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
The journalist's role in producing news that will attract the widest possible audience.	0.4%	0.4%	1.3%	2.6%	15.7%	45.1%	34.5%
The journalist's role in motivating people to participate in civic activity and political discussion.	0.4%	1.3%	3.0%	8.1%	34.9%	33.2%	19.1%
I make claims in news production only if they are substantiated by hard evidence and reliable sources.	0.4%	0%	0%	2.6%	8.3%	31.6%	57.0%
I provide analysis of events and issues in my news production work.	0.9%	3.4%	4.7%	6.0%	23.3%	39.7%	22.0%
What is ethical in journalism varies from one situation to another.	19.1%	30.2%	11.9%	8.9%	15.7%	10.6%	3.4%
There are ethical principles which are so important that they should be followed by all journalists, regardless of situation and context.	2.1%	1.3%	0.9%	3.0%	6.4%	25.1%	61.3%
Journalists in my organization fully enjoy the professional autonomy in their work process.	0.9%	3.9%	10.1%	14.9%	33.3%	28.5%	8.3%
My organization prioritizes professional journalism values over organization interests when there is a conflict between the two.	0.9%	4.3%	7.3%	22.3%	17.6%	30.5%	17.2%
	Never	Less than once a month	Once a month	2-3 times a month	Once a week	2-3 times a week	Daily
How often do you read professional magazines or other sources that report on or about journalism and news media?	0.4%	5.5%	9.8%	11.9%	10.2%	28.5%	33.6%
	Never (no membership)	Never (have membership)	Less than once a year	Once a year	A few times a year	Once a month	A few times a month
How often if at all do you participate in the activities organized by the professional journalism association of which you are a member?	14.0	6.4%	10.6%	15.3%	46.8%	3.8%	3.0%

Most of the respondents read professional sources regularly (M = 5.46, SD = 1.58). More than two thirds of the news managers (72.3%) said they read professional magazines or other sources that report on or about journalism and news media at least once a week; while only one third of the managers (33.5%) said they read professional sources everyday. On average, respondents participated in professional activities once a year (M = 3.98, SD = 1.59). Specifically, thirty-three managers (14.0%) said they did not have membership with any professional association; while 15 managers (6.4%) had membership with professional organizations but never participated in any activities. About two thirds of news managers (68.9%) participated in activities organized by professional organizations at least once a year; while only 16 managers (6.8%) participated in professional activities every month.

About two thirds of the news managers (68.1%) believed that their journalists in their organizations fully enjoy the professional autonomy in their work process (M = 4.95, SD = 1.29). Less than two thirds of the managers (65.2%) thought that their organizations prioritized professional journalism values over organization interests when there is a conflict between the two (M = 5.12, SD = 1.42).

RQ3 (b): Are there any significant differences in journalists' core professional beliefs between daily newspapers and television?

Research question 3 (b) asks whether there are any significant differences in journalists' core professional beliefs between daily newspapers and television. In order to answer this question, a series of independent samples *t* tests were conducted (See Table 47 and Table 48). Four *t* tests were significant. First, the *t* test relating to situational journalism ethics was significant, $t(233) = -3.50$, $p < .01$. The results indicated that newspapers journalists ($M = 2.90$, $SD = 1.73$) held a significantly more conservative attitudes toward situational journalism ethics than television journalists ($M = 3.77$, $SD = 1.85$). Second, the *t* test about universal ethical values was also significant, $t(103.27) = 2.46$, $p < .05$. The results again suggested that newspapers journalists ($M = 6.46$, $SD = 1.03$) held a significant firmer belief of universal ethical rules of journalism than television journalists ($M = 5.97$, $SD = 1.55$).

Third, the *t* test about the frequency of news managers' professional sources reading was significant. $t(151.36) = -3.06$, $p < .01$. The results demonstrated that television news directors ($M = 5.91$, $SD = 1.48$) read significantly more frequently professional sources than newspapers journalists ($M = 5.25$, $SD = 1.59$). Fourth, the t test relating to journalists' professional autonomy in their work process was significant. $t(226) = 2.38$, $p < .05$. The results showed that journalists in daily newspapers ($M = 5.08$, $SD = 1.25$) had significantly more perceived professional autonomy in their work process than journalists in television stations ($M = 4.65$, $SD = 1.34$).

Table 47

A Comparison of the Core Professional Beliefs between Newspapers Journalists and Television Journalists – Independent Samples T Test

Dependent variable	**Levene's test for equality of variances**		**T-test for equality of means**			
	F	*p*	*t*	*df*	*p*	Mean difference
The journalist's role in producing news that will attract the widest possible audience.	0.03	0.87	-1.73	233	.085	-0.23
The journalist's role in motivating people to participate in civic activity and political discussion.	4.86	0.03	1.59	119.25	.114	0.27
I make claims in news production only if they are substantiated by hard evidence and reliable sources.	2.84	0.09	-1.47	175.04	.143	-0.16
I provide analysis of events and issues in my news production work.	3.12	0.08	0.89	121.73	.377	0.17
What is ethical in journalism varies from one situation to another.	0.79	0.37	-3.50	233	.001	-0.87
There are ethical principles which are so important that they should be followed by all journalists, regardless of situation and context.	10.26	0.00	2.46	103.27	.015	0.49
Journalists in my organization fully enjoy the professional autonomy in their work process.	1.82	0.18	2.38	226	.018	0.44
My organization prioritizes professional journalism values over organization interests when there is a conflict between the two.	0.00	0.92	-0.95	231	.345	-0.19
How often do you read professional magazines or other sources that report on or about journalism and news media?	4.87	0.03	-3.06	151.36	.003	-0.65
How often if at all do you participate in the activities organized by the professional journalism association of which you are a member?	2.66	0.10	-1.74	233	.084	-0.39

Table 48

Means and Standard Deviations for the Scores of Professional Beliefs - Newspapers Journalists and Television Journalists

Professional beliefs	Media	Mean	Std. Deviation	Number
28. The journalist's role in producing news that will attract the widest possible audience.	Newspapers	5.99	1.01	161
	Television	6.22	0.78	74
29. The journalist's role in motivating people to participate in civic activity and political discussion.	Newspapers	5.60	1.02	161
	Television	5.34	1.25	74
30. I make claims in news production only if they are substantiated by hard evidence and reliable sources.	Newspapers	6.36	0.90	159
	Television	6.52	0.66	69
31. I provide analysis of events and issues in my news production work.	Newspapers	5.60	1.23	159
	Television	5.42	1.44	73
32. What is ethical in journalism varies from one situation to another.	Newspapers	2.90	1.73	161
	Television	3.77	1.85	74
33. There are ethical principles which are so important that they should be followed by all journalists, regardless of situation and context.	Newspapers	6.46	1.03	161
	Television	5.97	1.55	74
37. How often do you read professional magazines or other sources that report on or about journalism and news media?	Newspapers	5.25	1.59	161
	Television	5.91	1.48	74
How often if at all do you participate in the activities organized by the professional journalism association of which you are a member?	Newspapers	3.86	1.62	161
	Television	4.24	1.49	74
39. Journalists in my organization fully enjoy the professional autonomy in their work process.	Newspapers	5.08	1.25	157
	Television	4.65	1.34	71
40. My organization prioritizes professional journalism values over organization interests when there is a conflict between the two.	Newspapers	5.06	1.44	160
	Television	5.25	1.38	73

RQ3 (c): Is there a significant difference in overall journalism professionalism level between daily newspapers and television stations in the U.S.?

Research question 3 (c) asks whether there is a significant difference in overall journalistic professionalism level between daily newspapers and television stations in the U.S. To explore this question, an independent - samples *t* test was conducted (See Table 49 and Table 50). Levene's test for equality of variance was not significant, $F = .07$, $p > .05$, indicating that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was tenable. The *t* test was not significant, $t(218) = 1.36$, $p > .05$. The results indicated that there was no significant difference in the overall professionalism level between daily newspapers journalists ($M = 4.69$, $SD = .48$) and television journalists ($M = 4.60$, $SD = .47$).

Table 49

A Comparison of the Overall Journalistic Professionalism Level between Daily Newspapers and Television Stations in the U.S. – Independent Samples T Test

Dependent variable	**Levene's test for equality of variances**		**T-test for equality of means**			
	F	*p*	*t*	*df*	*p*	Mean difference
Overall journalistic professionalism level	0.07	0.79	1.36	218	.175	0.09

Table 50

Means and Standard Deviations for the Overall Journalistic Professionalism Level - Daily Newspapers and Television Stations in the U.S.

Media type	Mean	Standard deviation	Number
Newspapers	4.69	0.48	152
Television	4.60	0.47	68

To examine how these 12 items of journalistic professionalism were grouped, an exploratory factor analysis using a principal component extraction method and a promax rotation was conducted (See Table 51). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .60, indicating that roughly the correlations for factor analysis was a little inadequate. However, Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p < .001$), suggesting sufficient correlation between the variables to proceed with the analysis.

Based on the scree plot and using the Kaiser-Guttman retention criterion of eigenvalues greater than 1.0, a six-factor solution provided the clearest extraction. These six factors accounted for 66.08% of the total variance. After rotation, the first factor – organizational professionalism (six items) produced an eigenvalue of 2.11 and accounted for 17.56 of the variance; while the second factor – journalists' roles (three items) produced an eigenvalue of 1.54 and accounted for 12.84% of the variance. The third factor – journalists' ethical values (two items) produced an eigenvalue of 1.22, accounting for 10.17% of the variance, while the fourth factor - low importance of attracting the widest possible audience (one item) had an eigenvalue of 1.08 and accounted for 9.00 of the variance. The fifth factor – journalism education (one item)

produced an eigenvalue of 1.02 and accounted for 8.52% of the variance, and the sixth factor - work longevity in news industry (one item) had an eigenvalue of .96 and accounted for 8.01% of the variance. All of the six factors had positive loadings. See Table 51 for more detailed information about factor loadings.

Table 51

Journalistic Professionalism Factors - Exploratory Factor Analysis

Factors	Original item	Factor loading
1. Organizational professionalism	Q38. How often if at all do you participate in the activities organized by the professional journalism associations of which you are a member?	.736
	Q40. My organization prioritizes professional journalism values over organization interests when there is a conflict between the two.	.648
	Q37. How often do you read professional magazines or other sources that report on or about journalism and news media?	.628
	Q39. Journalists in my organization fully enjoy the professional autonomy in their work process.	.538
2. Journalists' roles	Q31. I provide analysis of events and issues in my news production work.	.758
	Q30. I make claims in news production only if they are substantiated by hard evidence and reliable sources.	.707
	Q29. The journalist's role in motivating people to participate in civic activity and political discussion.	.577

Table 51 (Continued)

Factors	Original item	Factor loading
3. Journalists' ethical values	Q33. There are ethical principles which are so important that they should be followed by all journalists, regardless of situation and context.	.744
	Q32. What is ethical in journalism varies from one situation to another.	.587
4. Low importance of attracting the widest possible audience	Q28. The journalist's role in producing news that will attract the widest possible audience.	.841
5. Journalism education	Q34. What level of degree in journalism or related field do you hold?	.879
6. Work longevity in news industry	Q36. How many years have you worked in the news media industry?	.892

In order to further identify a smaller number of components from items relating to journalistic professionalism, a second-order factor analysis using a principal component extraction method and a promax rotation was conducted (See Table 52). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .60, suggesting that generally the correlations for factor analysis was a little inadequate. Nevertheless, Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p < .001$), indicating sufficient correlation between the variables to continue the analysis.

Based on the scree plot and using the Kaiser-Guttman retention criterion of eigenvalues greater than 1.0, a three-factor solution provided the clearest extraction. These three factors

Table 52

Second-order Journalistic Professionalism Factors - Factor Analysis

Second-order factors	First-order factors	Original item	Factor loading
1. Personal beliefs of journalistic professionalism	3. Journalists' ethical values	Q33. There are ethical principles which are so important that they should be followed by all journalists, regardless of situation and context.	-.780
		Q32. What is ethical in journalism varies from one situation to another ("Extremely important" to "not at all important")	
	4. Low importance of attracting the widest possible audience	Q28. The journalist's role in producing news that will attract the widest possible audience. ("Extremely important" to "not at all important")	.618
	5. Journalism education	Q34. What level of degree in journalism or related field do you hold?	.617
2. Organizational professionalism	2. Journalists' roles	Q31. I provide analysis of events and issues in my news production work.	.746
		Q30. I make claims in news production only if they are substantiated by hard evidence and reliable sources.	
		Q29. The journalist's role in motivating people to participate in civic activity and political discussion.	
	1. Organizational professionalism	Q38. How often if at all do you participate in the activities organized by the professional journalism associations of which you are a member?	.675
		Q40. My organization prioritizes professional journalism values over organization interests when there is a conflict between the two.	
		Q37. How often do you read professional magazines or other sources that report on or about journalism and news media?	
		Q39. Journalists in my organization fully enjoy the professional autonomy in their work process.	
3.Work longevity in news industry	6. Work longevity in news industry	Q36. How many years have you worked in the news media industry?	.801

6.4. The relationships among organizational culture, professional culture of journalism, and UGC adoption of traditional news organizations

Correlations analysis of organization characteristics, organizational culture, professional culture of journalism, and UGC adoption

In order to explore whether there are relationships among variables relating to organizational culture, professional culture of journalism, and news organizations' UGC adoption, a Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis was conducted (See Table 53).

The results indicated that there were significant relationships among the three major variables relating to news organizations' UGC adoption: the total number of online UGC tools (overall UGC level), average UGC adoption rate of news organizations, and journalists' UGC use frequency. The relationship between the total number of UGC tools and average UGC adoption rate was strong and negative, $r = .739$, $p < .001$; whereas the relationship between the total number of UGC tools and journalists' UGC use frequency was moderate and positive, $r = -.234$, $p < .001$. However, there was no significant relationship between UGC adoption rate and UGC use frequency.

The results also demonstrated that except variables relating to culture, there were some other variables that had significant relationships with the three major variables relating to news organizations' UGC adoption. First, except culture-related variables, variables that had significant relationships with the total number of UGC tools included: organization size ($r = .287$, $p < .001$), education ($r = .185$, $p < .01$), organization longevity ($r = .178$, $p < .01$), and innovation management ($r = .172$, $p < .05$). Second, except culture-related variables, variables that had

significant relationships with organizations' average UGC adoption rate included: organization size ($r = .268$, $p < .001$), organization longevity ($r = .286$, $p < .001$), media type (newspapers) ($r = .223$, $p < .01$), and newsroom structure (team structure) ($r = .201$, $p < .01$). Third, except culture-related variables, variables that had significant relationships with journalists' UGC use frequency included: organization size ($r = .180$, $p < .01$), organization longevity ($r = -.143$, $p < .05$), managers' attitudes toward UGC ($r = .438$, $p < .001$), managers' innovation management ($r = .431$, $p < .001$), media type ($r = -.294$, $p < .001$), and newsroom structure (team structure) ($r = .151$, $p < .05$).

To sum up, except culture variables, those variables that had a significant relationship with at least one of the three major variables relating to UGC adoption included: organization size, education, organization longevity, innovation management, media type, newsroom structure, and managers' attitudes toward UGC. However, only two variables that had significant relationships with all of the three variables about UGC adoption: organization size and organization longevity.

The results also showed some organizational and demographic variables (except the three major variables relating to UGC adoption) were significantly related to culture variables. First, innovation management had a significant relationship with control-style of organizational culture, $r = -.212$, $p < .01$. Second, five variables had a significant relationship with internal-focus dimension of organizational culture: organization size ($r = -.369$, $p < .01$), organization longevity ($r = .160$, $p < .05$), UGC attitudes ($r = -.180$, $p < .05$), innovation management ($r = -.192$, $p < .05$), and media type (newspapers) ($r = .234$, $p < .001$). Third, there were three variables that had a significant relationship with overall professionalism level: organization size ($r = -.216$, $p < .01$), work longevity in news industry ($r = -.319$, $p < .001$), and age ($r = -.213$, $p < .01$). To summarize,

seven variables (except the three major variables relating to UGC adoption) had a significant relationship with culture: organization size, organization longevity, UGC attitudes, innovation management, media type (newspapers), work longevity in news industry, and age. However, only one variable had significant relationships with both organization culture and professional culture of journalism – organization size. See Table 53 for more details about the correlations among all the major variables.

Table 53

Correlations among Major Variables in this Study

ID		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	Total online UGC tools	1	.739**	.234**	.287**	.185**	.174**	.123	.031	.925**	.928**	.178**	.242**	.288**	.104	.172*
2	Average UGC adoption rate	.739**	1	.080	.268**	.052	.248**	.127	.105	.498**	.666**	.286**	.311**	.290**	.124	.118
3	Journarlists' UGC use frequency	.234**	.080	1	.180**	.077	-.098	.020	-.035	.192**	.241**	-.143*	.208**	.100	.438**	.431**
4	Organization size	.287**	.268**	.180**	1	.124	.093	.123	.046	.312**	.221**	-.165*	.823**	.223**	.041	.110
5	Education	.185**	.052	.077	.124	1	.083	.080	-.048	.213**	.131*	-.014	.146*	.179**	-.031	-.062
6	Work longevity in organization	.174**	.248**	-.098	.093	.083	1	.304**	.342**	.160*	.163*	.301**	.094	.097	-.086	-.078
7	Work longevity in news industry	.123	.127	.020	.123	.080	.304**	1	.831**	.131*	.097	.101	.123	.347**	-.005	-.070
8	Age	.031	.105	-.035	.046	-.048	.342**	.831**	1	.042	.016	.129	.005	.246**	-.010	-.072
9	Customization UGC_Total number	.925**	.498**	.192**	.312**	.213**	.160*	.131*	.042	1	.717**	.156*	.249**	.286**	.034	-.013
10	Production UGC_Total number	.928**	.666**	.241**	.221**	.131*	.163*	.097	.016	.717**	1	.175**	.201**	.249**	.115	.232**
11	Organization longevity	.178**	.286**	-.143*	-.165*	-.014	.301**	.101	.129	.156*	.175**	1	-.111	.158*	-.164*	-.188*
12	Newsroom size	.242**	.311**	.208**	.823**	.146*	.094	.123	.005	.249**	.201**	-.111	1	.244**	.055	.180*
13	Overall professional socre	.288**	.290**	.100	.223**	.179**	.097	.347**	.246**	.286**	.249**	.158*	.244**	1	.102	.213**
14	Overall UGC attitudes	.104	.124	.438**	.041	-.031	-.086	-.005	-.010	.034	.115	-.164*	.055	.102	1	.399**
15	Overall innovation management	.172*	.118	.431**	.110	-.062	-.078	-.070	-.072	-.013	.232**	-.188*	.180*	.213**	.399**	1
16	Media type_newspapers_dummy	-.073	.223**	-.294**	-.309**	-.076	.267**	.046	.145*	-.075	-.060	.614**	-.308**	.092	-.162*	-.379**
17	Gender_Male_dummy	-.053	-.019	-.013	.009	-.026	-.069	.307**	.238**	-.020	-.077	-.056	-.039	.036	-.001	-.169*
18	Personal beliefs of professionalism	.045	.111	-.085	-.002	.277**	.137*	.085	.115	.037	.046	.199**	-.006	.426**	-.210**	-.027
19	Organzational professionalism	.271**	.233**	.177**	.211**	.036	-.039	.140*	.038	.272**	.232**	.045	.250**	.855**	.245**	.277**
20	Clan culture_dummy1	-.084	-.024	.012	-.200**	-.109	.007	.006	.001	-.117	-.039	.078	-.232**	.045	-.074	.082
21	Adhocracy culture_dummy2	-.024	.093	.037	-.049	.100	.054	.068	.086	-.041	-.004	.073	.045	.160*	.121	-.039
22	Market culture_dummy3	.173**	-.013	.061	.376**	.084	-.102	-.072	-.127	.213**	.109	-.159*	.320**	-.062	-.003	.092
23	Control style dimension_dummy	-.045	-.155	-.082	.002	-.039	.001	.011	-.005	.011	-.094	-.001	-.045	-.158*	-.092	-.212**
24	Internal focus dimension_dummy	-.155*	-.077	-.096	-.369**	-.037	.004	-.057	-.006	-.141*	-.145*	.160*	-.383**	-.146*	-.180*	-.192*
25	Overall Professionalism level_Low_Dummy	-.231**	-.308	-.013	-.216**	-.100	-.064	-.319**	-.213**	-.247**	-.182**	-.106	-.206**	-.808**	-.067	-.119
26	Whether adopted UGC_Yes_Dummy	.861**	.a	.227**	.242**	.181**	.092	.057	-.026	.899**	.698**	.073	.170**	.208**	.a	.a
27	Newsroom structure_Team_Dummy	.087	.201**	.151*	.092	.138*	-.072	-.038	-.074	.062	.099	-.066	.136*	.197**	.096	.266**
28	Production adoption rate_Raw_FA1	-.773	.874**	.110	.276**	-.003	.268**	.119	.105	.466**	.730**	.257**	.321**	.321**	.171*	.199**
29	Customization adoption rate_Raw_FA2	.409**	.734**	.005	.240**	.123	.219**	.064	.060	.395**	.297**	.215**	.278**	.212**	.070	.057

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

a. Cannot be computed because at least one of the variables is constant.

Table 53 (Continued)

Correlations among Major Variables in this Study

ID		16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
1	Total online UGC tools	-.073	-.053	.045	.271**	-.084	-.024	.173**	-.045	-.155*	-.231**	.861**	.087	.773**	.409**
2	Average UGC adoption rate	.223**	-.019	.111	.233**	-.024	.093	-.013	-.155	-.077	-.308	.a	.201**	.874**	.734**
3	Journarlists' UGC use frequency	-.294**	-.013	-.085	.177**	.012	.037	.061	-.082	-.096	-.013	.227**	.151*	.110	.005
4	Organization size	-.309**	.009	-.002	.211**	-.200**	-.049	.376**	.002	-.369**	-.216**	.242**	.092	.276**	.240**
5	Education	-.076	-.026	.277**	.036	-.109	.100	.084	-.039	-.037	-.100	.181**	.138*	-.003	.123
6	Work longevity in organization	.267**	-.069	.137*	-.039	.007	.054	-.102	.001	.004	-.064	.092	-.072	.268**	.219**
7	Work longevity in news industry	.046	.307**	.085	.140*	.006	.068	-.072	.011	-.057	-.319**	.057	-.038	.119	.064
8	Age	.145*	.238**	.115	.038	.001	.086	-.127	-.005	-.006	-.213**	-.026	-.074	.105	.060
9	Customization UGC_Total number	-.075	-.020	.037	.272**	-.117	-.041	.213**	.011	-.141*	-.247**	.899**	.062	.466**	.395**
10	Production UGC_Total number	-.060	-.077	.046	.232**	-.039	-.004	.109	-.094	-.145*	-.182**	.698**	.099	.730**	.297**
11	Organization longevity	.614**	-.056	.199**	.045	.078	.073	-.159*	-.001	.160*	-.106	.073	-.066	.257**	.215**
12	Newsroom size	-.308**	-.039	-.006	.250**	-.232**	.045	.320**	-.045	-.383**	-.206**	.170**	.136*	.321**	.278**
13	Overall professional socre	.092	.036	.426**	.855**	.045	.160*	-.062	-.158*	-.146*	-.808**	.208**	.197**	.321**	.212**
14	Overall UGC attitudes	-.162*	-.001	-.210**	.245**	-.074	.121	-.003	-.092	-.180*	-.067	.a	.096	.171*	.070
15	Overall innovation management	-.379**	-.169*	-.027	.277**	.082	-.039	.092	-.212**	-.192*	-.119	.a	.266**	.199**	.057
16	Media type_newspapers_dummy	1	-.007	.256**	-.044	.052	.129	-.274**	.019	.234**	-.088	-.149*	.025	.190*	.128
17	Gender_Male_dummy	-.007	1	-.005	-.009	-.123	.120	.010	.084	-.063	-.016	-.078	-.123	.017	-.053
18	Personal beliefs of professionalism	.256**	-.005	1	-.065	-.007	.013	.065	.019	.007	-.287**	-.009	.046	.154*	.055
19	Organzational professionalism	-.044	-.009	-.065	1	.063	.170*	-.104	-.202**	-.162*	-.732**	.228**	.212**	.240**	.193*
20	Clan culture_dummy1	.052	-.123	-.007	.063	1	-.315**	-.559**	-.455**	.367**	-.064	-.072	.036	-.051	-.079
21	Adhocracy culture_dummy2	.129	.120	.013	.170*	-.315**	1	-.318**	-.323**	-.324**	-.091	-.075	.057	.128	.084
22	Market culture_dummy3	-.274**	.010	.065	-.104	-.559**	-.318**	1	.395**	-.435**	.052	.188**	-.065	-.015	.081
23	Control style dimension_dummy	.019	.084	.019	-.202**	-.455**	-.323**	.395**	1	.146*	.087	-.006	-.053	-.145	-.097
24	Internal focus dimension_dummy	.234**	-.063	.007	-.162*	.367**	-.324**	-.435**	.146*	1	.128	-.096	.007	-.111	-.098
25	Overall Professionalism level_Low_Dummy	-.088	-.016	-.287**	-.732**	-.064	-.091	.052	.087	.128	1	-.153*	-.094	-.277**	-.288**
26	Whether adopted UGC_Yes_Dummy	-.149*	-.078	-.009	.228**	-.072	-.075	.188**	-.006	-.096	-.153*	1	.037	.a	.a
27	Newsroom structure_Team_Dummy	.025	-.123	.046	.212**	.036	.057	-.065	-.053	.007	-.094	.037	1	.202**	.082
28	Production adoption rate_Raw_FA1	.190*	.017	.154*	.240**	-.051	.128	-.015	-.145	-.111	-.277**	.a	.202**	1	.491**
29	Customization adoption rate_Raw_FA2	.128	-.053	.055	.193*	-.079	.084	.081	-.097	-.098	-.288**	.a	.082	.491**	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

a. Cannot be computed because at least one of the variables is constant.

Regression analyses for cultural variables predicting news organizations' UGC adoption

RQ4: Is there a significant relationship between culture and news organizations' UGC adoption?

H8 (a): Organizational culture type had a significantly influence on news organization's UGC adoption.

H9: Professional culture had a significantly influence on news organizations' UGC adoption.

Research question 4 asks whether there were significant relationships among organizational culture, professional culture of journalism, and traditional news organizations' UGC adoption. Hypothesis 8(a) predicted that organizational culture type had a significantly influence on news organization's UGC adoption. Moreover, hypothesis 9 suggested that professional culture had a significantly influence on news organizations' UGC adoption. In order to test these two hypotheses, a series of (totally five) multiple regression using a combination of block-entry and enter methods were conducted. The dependent variables were the three major variables relating to news organizations' UGC adoption and the two variables relating to the styles of online UGC tools: the total number of online UGC tools, the average UGC adoption rate, the frequency of journalists' UGC use, the total number of customization-style UGC tools, and the total number of production-style UGC tools. The independent variables were entered in sets – non-cultural variables were entered first as control variables or covariates and then

culture-related variables were entered. Control variables were selected based on the previous analyses and the literature.

Specifically, the first set of variables entered were demographic ones: age and gender (dummy variable – male). The second set of variables were those related to organization characteristics: organization longevity, organization size, media type (dummy variable – newspapers), and newsroom structure (dummy variable – team structure). The third set of variables included two composite ones relating to newsroom leaders' perceptions and management of UGC: overall attitudes toward UGC and overall score of innovation management. The fourth set of variables entered were those relating to organizational culture type: clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy. The fifth and the last set of variables entered were those relating to professional culture of journalism: personal beliefs of professionalism, organizational professionalism, and work longevity in news industry. These three variables were the major components of professional culture of journalism based on the results of previous factor analysis.

In addition, a technique of reduced-model of regression was used so that the results will be clearer and more easily to read. In other words, another series of regression (totally five) were conducted with only the significant predictors of the initial regressions and the results will be reported.

Test for multicollinearity and the first regression – culture and the total number of online UGC tools

The test for multicollinearity of the independent variables was conducted to ensure there was no redundancy among predictors that are highly correlated. The variance inflation factor (VIF) was used as an indicator of multicollinearity. The acceptable range of VIF is between 1 to 5 (some scholars argued the acceptable rage is between 1 to 10). In this study, the VIFs are between 1.00 to 4.00, and most of the VIFs are between 1.00 to 2.50, indicating that there is some correlation among predictors, but not strong enough to be worried about. In a word, the accuracy of the regression coefficients estimation won't be affected because of multicollinearity.

The results of the comprehensive regression with the total number of online UGC tools as the dependent variable showed that the following variables were not significant predictors: demographic variables (participants' age and gender), some organization characteristics (media type and newsroom structure), news managers' attitudes toward UGC adoption, three out of four types of organizational culture (market, clan, and hierarchy), and the three professional culture variables (personal beliefs of journalistic professionalism, organizational professionalism, and journalists' work longevity in new industry). Therefore, four independent variables that were significant predictors were used in the following reduced-model regression: organization size, organization longevity, innovation management, and adhocracy culture type (Table 54).

A summary of the results of the multiple regression analysis was presented in Table 54. Results demonstrated that in the first model, two variables relating to organization characteristics

were significant predictors. First, organization size significantly predicted the total number of online UGC tools, $\beta = .35$, $t(171) = 3.09$, $p < .01$, suggesting that larger news organizations provided more online UGC tools than smaller ones. Second, organization longevity also significantly predicted the total number of online UGC tools, $\beta = .59$, $t(171) = 2.71$, $p < .001$, indicating that news organizations with a longer history provided more online UGC tools than those with a relatively shorter history. The model accounted for a statically significant proportion of variance in the total number of online UGC tools, $R^2 = .11$ (adjusted to .10), $F(2, 175) = 10.44$, $p < .001$.

In the second model of the regression, news executives' innovation management was added. The results showed that innovation management significantly predicted the total number of online UGC tools, $\beta = .45$, $t(171) = 2.97$, $p < .01$, suggesting that when controlling the variables of organization size and longevity in the model, the better a news organization's news managers had innovation management, the more online UGC tools were provided to the news organization's users. The model accounted for a statically significant proportion of variance in the total number of online UGC tools, $R^2 = .15$ (adjusted to .14), $F(3, 175) = 10.20$, $p < .001$.

In the third and final model of the multiple regression, adhocracy culture was added. Organization size and longevity were still significant; however, innovation management was not significant in this model. The results showed that adhocracy culture type significantly predicted the total number of online UGC tools, $\beta = .52$, $t(171) = 3.23$, $p < .01$, suggesting that when controlling the other variables in the model, the more a news organization emphasized the values

of adhocracy culture, the more online UGC tools it provided to its users. It uniquely added (R^2 change) 4.9 percent explained variance to the prior model, bringing the adjusted R^2 to .18, suggesting that the model accounted for a significant proportion of variance in the total number of online UGC tools, R^2 = .20 (adjusted to .18), F (4,175) = 10.69, p < .001.

Table 54

Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Cultural Variables Predicting the Total Number of Online UGC Tools (N = 176)

	Model	***B***	***SE***	***β***	***t***	***p***
1	(Constant)	4.51	0.56		8.11	.000
	Organization size	0.35	0.11	.23**	3.09	.002
	Organization longevity	0.59	0.15	.28**	3.88	.000
2	(Constant)	2.18	0.96		2.28	.024
	Organization size	0.33	0.11	.21**	2.92	.004
	Organization longevity	0.67	0.15	.32**	4.41	.000
	Innovation management	0.45	0.15	.21**	2.97	.003
3	(Constant)	1.16	0.98		1.18	.239
	Organization size	0.30	0.11	.19**	2.78	.006
	Organization longevity	0.70	0.15	.33**	4.71	.000
	Innovation management	0.15	0.18	.07	0.86	.393
	Adhocracy culture	0.52	0.16	.27**	3.23	.001

Note. R^2 = .11 for Model 1; R^2 = .15 for Model 2; and R^2 = .20 for Model 3.
*p < .05. **p< .01.

The second regression – culture and organizations' average UGC adoption rate

The results of the second comprehensive regression with news organizations' UGC adoption rate as the dependent variable showed that the following variables were not significant predictors: demographic variables (participants' age and gender), news managers' attitudes toward UGC adoption and their innovation management, all of the four types of organizational culture, and all of the three professional culture variables (personal beliefs of journalistic professionalism, organizational professionalism, and journalists' work longevity in new industry). Therefore, four independent variables that were significant predictors were used in the following reduced-model regression: organization size, organization longevity, media type (dummy variable_newspapers), and newsroom structure (dummy variable_team) (Table 55).

A summary of the results of the multiple regression analysis was presented in Table 55. The results showed that there was only one model for this multiple regression, in which all of the significant predictors were related to organization characteristics. First, newsroom structure (dummy variable_team) significantly predicted news organizations' UGC adoption rate, $\beta = .36$, $t\ (172) = 2.58$, $p = .01$, suggesting that news organizations with a team-structured newsroom adopted UGC earlier than those with a vertically structured newsroom. Second, media type (dummy variable_newspapers) significantly predicted news organizations' UGC adoption rate, $\beta = .34$, $t\ (172) = 1.70$, $p < .05$, suggesting that newspapers adopted UGC earlier than television stations.

Third, organization size significantly predicted organizations' UGC adoption rate, β = .27, t (172) = 3.24, p < .01, suggesting that larger news organizations adopted UGC earlier than smaller ones. Fourth, organization longevity was a significant predictor of UGC adoption rate, β = .24, t (172) = 2.46, p = .02, indicating that news organizations with a longer history adopted UGC earlier than those with a relatively shorter history. The model accounted for a significant proportion of variance in the organizations' UGC adoption rate, R^2 = .23 (adjusted to .21), F (4,176) = 12.67, p < .001.

Table 55

Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Cultural Variables Predicting News Organizations' UGC Adoption Rate (N = 177)

	Model	***B***	***SE***	***β***	***t***	***p***
1	(Constant)					
	Newsroom structure_Team_dummy	0.36	0.14	.17*	2.58	.011
	Media type_Newspapers_dummy	0.34	0.20	.16*	1.70	.046
	Organization size	0.27	0.06	.34**	4.86	.000
	Organization longevity	0.24	0.10	.23*	2.46	.015

Note. R^2 = .23 for Model 1

*p < .05. **p< .01.

The third regression – culture and the frequency of journalists' UGC use

The results of the third comprehensive regression with the frequency of journalists' UGC use as the dependent variable showed that the following variables were not significant predictors: demographic variables (participants' age and gender), some organization characteristics

(organization size and organization longevity), three out of four types of organizational culture (adhocracy, clan, and hierarchy), and the three professional culture variables (personal beliefs of journalistic professionalism, organizational professionalism, and journalists' work longevity in new industry). Therefore, five independent variables that were significant predictors were used in the following reduced-model regression: newsroom structure, media type, managers' attitudes toward UGC, innovation management, and market culture type (Table 56).

A summary of the results of the multiple regression analysis was presented in Table 56 Results showed that in the first model, two variables relating to organization characteristics were significant predictors. First, newsroom structure (dummy variable_team) significantly predicted the frequency of journalists' UGC use, $\beta = .66$, $t\ (170) = 2.60$, $p = .01$, suggesting that journalists in a team-structured newsroom used UGC in their news production more frequently than those working in a vertically-structured newsroom. Second, media type (dummy variable_newspapers) significantly predicted the frequency of journalists' UGC use, $\beta = -1.12$, $t\ (170) = -4.32$, $p < .001$, indicating that newspapers journalists used UGC in their news production less frequently than television journalists. The model accounted for a statically significant proportion of variance in the frequency of journalists' UGC use, $R^2 = .12$ (adjusted to .11), $F\ (2, 175) = 12.00$, $p < .001$.

In the second model of the regression, two predictors were added - news executives' attitudes toward UGC and their innovation management. First, the results demonstrated that news executives' attitudes toward UGC significantly predicted the frequency of journalists' UGC use, $\beta = .54$, $t\ (170) = 4.52$, $p < .001$, indicating that the more positive newsroom leaders'

attitudes toward UGC are, the more frequently journalists used UGC in their news production. Second, the results showed that news executives' innovation management significantly predicted the frequency of journalists' UGC use, $\beta = .39$, $t(170) = 2.73$, $p < .01$, suggesting that the better newsroom leaders' innovation management was, the more frequently journalists used UGC in their news production. However, newsroom structure was not a significant predictor anymore in this model. The model accounted for a statically significant proportion of variance in the frequency of journalists' UGC use, $R^2 = .30$ (adjusted to .28), $F(4, 175) = 17.96$, $p < .001$.

In the third and final model of the multiple regression, market culture was added. Media type, media executives' attitudes toward UGC, and executives' innovation management were still significant predictors in this model. The results showed that market culture type significantly predicted the frequency of journalists' UGC use, $\beta = -.32$, $t(170) = -2.72$, $p < .01$, suggesting that when controlling the other variables in the model, the more a news organization emphasized the values of market culture, the less frequently the journalists used UGC in their news production. The model uniquely added (R^2 change) 2.9 percent explained variance to the prior model, bringing the adjusted R^2 to .33, suggesting that the model accounted for a significant proportion of variance in the frequency of journalists' UGC use, $R^2 = .33$ (adjusted to .31), $F(5,175) = 16.39$, $p < .001$.

Table 56

Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Cultural Variables Predicting the Frequency of Journalists' UGC Use (N = 176)

	Model	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*p*
1	(Constant)	5.28	0.23		23.32	.000
	Newsroom structure_team	0.66	0.25	.19*	2.60	.010
	Media type_newspapers	-1.12	0.26	-.31**	-4.32	.000
2	(Constant)	0.42	0.80		0.53	.598
	Newsroom structure_team	0.32	0.24	.09	1.31	.191
	Media type_newspapers	-.62	0.26	-.17*	-2.42	.017
	Exeutivs'attitudes toward UGC	0.54	0.12	.32**	4.52	.000
	Innovation management	0.39	0.14	.21**	2.73	.007
3	(Constant)	1.61	0.90		1.79	.076
	Newsroom structure_team	0.27	0.24	.08	1.13	.262
	Media type_newspapers	-0.83	0.26	-.23**	-3.15	.002
	Exeutivs'attitudes toward UGC	0.53	0.12	.31**	4.50	.000
	Innovation management	0.53	0.15	.29**	3.53	.001
	Market culture type	-0.32	0.12	-0.20**	-2.72	.007

Note. R^2 = .12 for Model 1; R^2 = .30 for Model 2; and R^2 = .33 for Model 3.
*p < .05. **p< .01.

The fourth regression – culture and the total number of customization-style UGC tools

The results of the fourth comprehensive regression with the total number of customization-style UGC tools as the dependent variable showed that the following variables

were not significant predictors: demographic variables (participants' age and gender), some organization characteristics (media type and newsroom structure), media executives' attitudes toward UGC, executives' innovation management, three out of four types of organizational culture (market, clan, and hierarchy), and the three professional culture variables (personal beliefs of journalistic professionalism, organizational professionalism, and journalists' work longevity in new industry). Therefore, three variables that were significant predictors were used in the following reduced-model regression: organization size, organization longevity, and adhocracy culture type (Table 57).

A summary of the results of the multiple regression analysis was presented in Table 57. Results showed that in the first model, two variables relating to organization characteristics were significant predictors. First, organization size significantly predicted the total number of customization-style UGC tools, $\beta = .50$, $t\ (229) = 5.63$, $p < .001$, suggesting that the larger an organization was, the more customization-style online UGC tools were provided to its users. Second, organization longevity significantly predicted the total number of customization-style UGC tools, $\beta = .43$, $t\ (229) = 3.54$, $p < .001$, indicating that the earlier a news organization was established, the more customization-style online UGC tools were provided to its users. The model accounted for a statically significant proportion of variance in the total number of customization-style UGC tools, $R^2 = .14$ (adjusted to .136), $F\ (2, 232) = 19.33$, $p < .001$.

In the second and the last model of the multiple regression, adhocracy culture was added. Organization size and organization longevity were still significant predictors in this model. The

results showed that adhocarcy culture type significantly predicted the total number of customization-style UGC tools, $\beta = .28$, $t(229) = 2.65$, $p < .01$, suggesting that when controlling organization size and organization longevity, the more a news organization emphasized the values of adhocarcy culture, the more customization-style online UGC tools were provided to its users. The model uniquely added (R^2 change) 3.0 percent explained variance to the prior model, bringing the adjusted R^2 to .16, suggesting that the model accounted for a significant proportion of variance in the total number of customization-style UGC tools, $R^2 = .17$ (adjusted to .16), $F(3, 232) = 15.55$, $p < .001$.

Table 57

Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Cultural Variables Predicting the Total Number of Customization-style UGC Tools (N = 233)

	Model	***B***	***SE***	***β***	***t***	***p***
1	(Constant)	0.64	0.42		1.51	.133
	Organization size	0.50	0.09	.35**	5.63	.000
	Organization longevity	0.43	0.12	.22**	3.54	.000
2	(Constant)	-0.65	0.64		-1.01	.313
	Organization size	0.46	0.09	.32**	5.07	.000
	Organization longevity	0.47	0.12	.24**	3.90	.000
	Adhocracy culture	0.28	0.10	.17**	2.65	.009

Note. $R^2 = .14$ for Model 1; and $R^2 = .17$ for Model 2.

*p < .05. **p< .01.

The fifth regression – culture and the total number of production-style UGC tools

The results of the fifth comprehensive regression with the total number of production-style UGC tools as the dependent variable showed that the following variables were not significant predictors: demographic variables (participants' age and gender), all the organization characteristics (organization size, organization longevity, media type, and newsroom structure), media executives' attitudes toward UGC, three out of four types of organizational culture (market, clan, and hierarchy), and the three professional culture variables (personal beliefs of journalistic professionalism, organizational professionalism, and journalists' work longevity in new industry). Therefore, two variables that were significant predictors were used in the following reduced-model regression: media executives' innovation management and adhocracy culture type (Table 58).

A summary of the results of the multiple regression analysis was presented in Table 58. Results showed that in the first model, media executives' innovation management significantly predicted the total number of production-style UGC tools, $\beta = .38$, $t(174) = 3.13$, $p < .01$, suggesting that the better newsroom leaders' innovation management was, the more production-style online UGC tools were provided to its users. The model accounted for a statically significant proportion of variance in the total number of customization-style UGC tools, $R^2 = .05$ (adjusted to .048), $F(1,176) = 9.79$, $p < .01$.

In the second and the final model of the multiple regression, adhocracy culture was added. Media executives' innovation management was still a significant predictor in this model. The results showed that adhocarcy culture type significantly predicted the total number of

production-style UGC tools, β = .22, t (174) = 1.69, p = .05, suggesting that when controlling media executives' innovation management, the more a news organization emphasized the values of adhocarcy culture, the more production-style online UGC tools were provided to its users. The model uniquely added (R^2 change) 2.0 percent explained variance to the prior model, bringing the adjusted R^2 to .06, suggesting that the model accounted for a significant proportion of variance in the total number of production-style UGC tools, R^2 = .07 (adjusted to .06), F (2, 176) = 6.38, p < .01.

Table 58

Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Cultural Variables Predicting the Total Number of Production-style UGC Tools (N = 177)

	Model	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*p*
1	(Constant)	1.24	0.59		2.09	.038
	Executives' innovation management	0.38	0.12	.23**	3.13	.002
2	(Constant)	0.83	0.64		1.31	.193
	Executives' innovation management	0.24	0.14	.15*	1.69	.046
	Adhocracy culture	0.22	0.13	.15*	1.69	.047

Note. R^2 = .05 for Model 1; and R^2 = .07 for Model 2.
*p < .05. **p< .01.

The results of the five multiple regression above showed that after controlling the variables relating to organization characteristics, respondents' demographics, media executives'

attitudes toward UGC, and executives' innovation management, organizational culture type (adhocracy culture and market culture) significantly predicted legacy media organizations' UGC adoption. However, the three dimensions of professional culture of journalism (personal beliefs of professionalism, organizational professionalism, and journalists' work longevity in news industry) did not significantly predict media organizations' UGC adoption. Therefore, hypothesis 8(a) was supported and hypothesis 9 was not supported.

To further examine research question 4 – whether there is a significant relationship between culture and news organizations' UGC adoption, hypothesis 8(b) and hypothesis 8(c) were tested. In addition, hypothesis 9 was tested again from a different angel.

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) for organizational culture and professional culture of journalism on news organizations' UGC adoption

Due to the small number of the group of adhocracy culture type (N = 35) and the group of hierarchy culture type (N = 30), which would limit the statistical power, the organizational culture was examined again from its two main dimensions – control vs. flexibility and internal vs. external focus. Moreover, different with regression analyses that used the three dimensions of journalistic professionalism, the following statistical analyses would use journalists' overall professionalism level to examine professional culture of journalism. Two MANOVAs were conducted to examine the relationships between culture and innovation again.

The first MANOVA – Culture dimension (control, flexibility) and journalists' overall professionalism level (low, high)

H8 (b): News organizations with an emphasis of flexibility in their organizational culture had a significantly higher level of UGC adoption than organizations with an emphasis of stability.

H9: Professional culture had a significantly influence on news organizations' UGC adoption.

Hypothesis 8 (b) posited that news organizations with an emphasis of flexibility in their organizational culture had a significantly higher level of UGC adoption than organizations with an emphasis of stability. Hypothesis 9 suggested that professional culture had a significantly influence on news organizations' UGC adoption. A 2×2 MANOVA was conducted to test these two hypotheses (See Table 59 and Table 60). The independent variables were one organizational culture dimension (control, flexibility) and journalists' overall professionalism level (low, high). The dependent variables were: The total number of online UGC tools, news organizations' overall UGC adoption rate, and journalists' UGC use frequency. A statistically nonsignificant Box's *M* test ($p > .05$) indicated equality of variance-covariance matrices of the dependent variables across levels of the independent variables. The Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant ($p < .001$), suggesting sufficient correlation between the dependent variables to proceed with the analysis.

Using Wilks's lambda, the dependent variate was significantly affected by the main effect of overall professionalism level, Wilks's lambda = .919, F (3, 143) = 4.21, $p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .08$. The means and standard deviations for UGC adoption as a function of the factor of professionalism level are presented in Table 60.

However, the results of the MANOVA indicated a nonsignificant main effect for the organizational dimension (control vs. flexibility), $p > .05$, F = 1.10. Moreover, the multivariate interaction effect of control vs. flexibility organizational culture dimension × overall professionalism level was not statistically significant, $p > .05$, F = 1.36.

Table 59

Two-way Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) for Organizational Culture and Professional Culture of Journalism on News Organizations' UGC Adoption

Effect	***Wilks' Lambda***	***F***	***df1***	***df2***	***p***	***Partial η2***
Professionalism level	0.92	4.21	3	143	.007	0.08
Control_flexibility	0.98	1.10	3	143	.353	0.02
Control_flexibility x professionalism level	0.97	1.36	3	143	.257	0.03

Analyses of variance (ANOVAs) on each dependent variable were conducted as follow-up test to the MANOVA. To test the ANOVA assumption of equality of error variances, Levine's test was performed on each of the three dependent variables. Results indicated no violation of the assumption for all of the three dependent variables: the total number of UGC

tools, F (3, 145) = 1.71, p = .17; average UGC adoption rate F (3, 145) = 1.61, p = .19; and average UGC use frequency, F (3, 145) = 1.21, p = .31.

The ANOVAs were significant for the total number of UGC tools, F (1, 145) = 5.27, p < .05, η^2 = .04, and average UGC adoption rate, F (1, 145) = 12.59, p < .01, η^2 = .08. However, the ANOVA was not significant for UGC use frequency, F (1, 145) = .02, p > .05. An inspection of the means of professionalism level factor showed that news organizations with a high professionalism level (M = 7.27, SD = 2.01) provided significantly more online UGC tools than organizations with a low professionalism level (M = 6.37, SD = 2.04). Moreover, news organizations with a high professionalism level (M = 2.72, SD = 1.05) adopted UGC tools significantly earlier than organizations with a relatively low professionalism level (M = 2.09, SD = 0.89) (See Table 60). Therefore, hypotheses H8 (b) was not supported and H9 was supported.

Table 60

Means and Standard Deviations for News Organizations' UGC Adoption (2 x 2 MANOVA Results - Overall Professionalism Level)

UGC adoption	Overall professionalism level	Mean	Standard Deviation	Total number
The total number of online UGC tools	Low	6.37	2.04	68
	High	7.27	2.01	81
	Total	6.86	2.06	149
Average UGC adoption rate	Low	2.09	0.89	68
	High	2.72	1.05	81
	Total	2.43	1.03	149
Journalists' UGC use frequency (nonsignificant)	Low	4.90	1.69	68
	High	4.81	1.76	81
	Total	4.85	1.72	149

The second MANOVA – Culture dimension (internal, external) and journalists' overall professionalism level (low, high)

H8 (c): News organizations with an external focus in their organizational culture had a significantly higher level of UGC adoption than organizations with an internal focus.

H9: Professional culture had a significantly influence on news organizations' UGC adoption.

Hypothesis 8 (c) predicted that news organizations with an external focus in their organizational culture had a significantly higher level of UGC adoption than organizations with an internal focus. In order to test the hypothesis, a 2×2 MANOVA was conducted (See Table 61 and Table 62). The independent variables were the second organizational culture dimension (internal focus, external focus) and the overall professionalism level (low, high). The dependent variables again were: The total number of online UGC tools, news organizations' overall UGC adoption rate, and journalists' UGC use frequency. A statistically nonsignificant Box's *M* test ($p > .05$) indicated equality of variance-covariance matrices of the dependent variables across levels of the independent variables.

Using Wilks's lambda, the dependent variate was significantly affected by the main effect of the overall professionalism level, Wilks's lambda = .928, $F (3, 144) = 3.74$, $p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .07$(See Table 61). Moreover, the results of the MANOVA suggested a significant main effect for the second organizational dimension (internal vs. external focus), Wilks's lambda = .957, $F (3, 144) = 2.13$, $p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .04$. The means and standard deviations for UGC

adoption as a function of the factor of the organizational dimension- internal vs. external focus are presented in Table 62. Nevertheless, the multivariate interaction effect of the second organizational culture dimension (internal vs. external focus) ×overall professionalism level was not statistically significant, $p > .05$, $F (3, 144) = 1.16$.

Table 61

Two-way Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) for Organizational Culture and Professional Culture of Journalism on News Organizations' UGC Adoption

Effect	*Wilks' Lambda*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*	*Partial η2*
Professionalism level	0.93	3.74	3	144	.013	0.07
Internal- external focus	0.96	2.13	3	144	.049	0.04
Internal- external focus x Professionalism level	0.98	1.16	3	144	.328	0.02

Table 62

Means and Standard Deviations for News Organizations' UGC Adoption (2 x 2 MANOVA Results- the Dimension of Internal vs. External Focus)

UGC adoption	**Organizational culture dimension**	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**Total number**
The total number of online UGC tools	Internal	6.28	2.13	53
	External	7.16	1.96	97
	Total	6.85	2.06	150
Average UGC adoption rate (nonsignificant)	Internal	2.25	0.94	53
	External	2.53	1.06	97
	Total	2.43	1.03	150
Journalists' UGC use frequency (nonsignificant)	Internal	4.68	1.82	53
	External	4.96	1.66	97
	Total	4.86	1.72	150

ANOVAs on each dependent variable were conducted separately as follow-up test to the MANOVA. To test the ANOVA assumption of equality of error variances, Levine's test was performed on each of the three dependent variables. Results indicated no violation of the assumption for two of the three dependent variables: the total number of UGC tools, $F (3, 146) = 1.17$, $p = .32$, and average UGC adoption rate $F (3, 146) = 1.31$, $p = .27$.

Regarding the statistically significant multivariate main effect of overall professionalism level, the ANOVAs were significant for the total number of UGC tools, $F (1, 146) = 4.22$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .03$, and average UGC adoption rate, $F (1, 146) = 10.96$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .07$. Because the third dependent variable - journalists' UGC use frequency showed a violation of the ANOVA assumption of homogeneity of variance, $F (3, 146) = 4.11$, $p < .01$, the more robust Brown-Forsythe test was used to determine whether the two groups differed on this variable. However, results showed there was still no significant difference, $F (1, 194.76) = .03$, $p > .05$. The mean scores of professionalism level factor were not presented again here since they have been discussed in the previous MANOVA results.

As to the statistically significant multivariate main effect of the second organizational culture dimension (internal vs. external focus), only the ANOVA for the total number of UGC tools was significant, $F (1, 146) = 5.34$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .04$. An inspection of the means of the factor of organization dimension (internal vs. external focus) showed that news organizations with an external focus culture dimension ($M = 7.16$, $SD = 1.96$) provided significantly more online UGC tools than organizations with an internal focus culture dimension ($M = 6.28$, $SD = 2.13$) (See Table 62).

The ANOVA for news organizations' average UGC adoption rate was not significant, F (1, 146) = 1.61, p > .05. Again, because the third dependent variable - journalists' UGC use frequency had a violation of the assumption of homogeneity of variance, F (3, 146) = 4.11, p < .01, the more robust Brown-Forsythe test was used to examine whether the two groups differed on this variable. However, results indicated there was still no significant difference, F (1, 192.66) = 2.07, p > .05. Thus, hypothesis 8 (c) was supported and H9 was supported again.

Multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) for organizational culture and professional culture of journalism on news organizations' UGC adoption

H8 (c): News organizations with an external focus in their organizational culture had a significantly higher level of UGC adoption than organizations with an internal focus.

H9: Professional culture had a significantly influence on news organizations' UGC adoption.

H10: Organizational culture had significantly more influence on news organizations' UGC adoption than professional culture of journalism.

To confirm the finding that overall professionalism level and the culture dimension of internal vs. external had a significant influence on news organizations' UGC adoption, a 2×2 multivariate analysis of covariance (MANOCA) was conducted (See Table 63). The independent variables were one culture dimension (internal vs. external focus) and overall professionalism level (low, high). The dependent variables were: The total number of online UGC tools, news organizations' overall UGC adoption rate, and journalists' UGC use frequency. Based on the

literature review and the results of previous analysis, covariates included: organization size, organization longevity, newsroom structure (dummy vairbale_team), media type (dummy variable_newspapers), news managers' attitudes toward UGC, and managers' innovation management.

Using Wilk's lambda, the dependent variate was significantly affected by the main effect of the culture dimension – internal vs. external focus, Wils's lambda = .950, F (3, 136) = 2.39, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .05$ (See Table 63). However, different with the results of previous MANOVAs, no significant difference was found between low professionalism level and high professionalism level on the dependent measures, F = 0.95, $p > .05$. In addition, the multivariate interaction effect of the culture dimension (internal vs. external focus) ×overall professionalism level was not statistically significant, $F < 1.0$.

Univariate ANOVAs were conducted on each dependent measure separately to determine the locus of the statistically significant multivariate main effect of culture dimension (internal vs. external focus). The results showed that the culture dimension significantly affected the total number of online UGC tools, F (1,138) = 5.33, $p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .04$. The mean scores of the factor of organization dimension (internal vs. external focus) suggested that news organizations with an external focus culture dimension (M = 7. 20, SD = 1.95) provided significantly more online UGC tools than organizations with an internal focus culture dimension (M = 6.28, SD = 2.13). Similar to the results of the previous MANOVA, no statistically significant effects of the culture dimension (internal vs. external focus) were observed for the other two dependent

variables – news organizations' overall UGC adoption rate and journalists' UGC use frequency in their news production. The means and standard deviations of the culture dimension – internal versus external focus were not presented here again because they have been provided in the previous MANOVA results.

Table 63

Two-way Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA) for Organizational Culture and Professional Culture of Journalism on News Organizations' UGC Adoption

Effect	***Wilks' Lambda***	***F***	***df1***	***df2***	***p***	***Partial η2***
Organization size	0.90	5.26	3	136	.002	0.10
Organization longevity	0.95	2.45	3	136	.066	0.05
Newsroom structure_team	0.96	1.81	3	136	.148	0.04
Media type_newspapers	0.94	2.92	3	136	.036	0.06
Executives' attitudes toward UGC	0.86	7.33	3	136	.000	0.14
Executives' innovation management	0.92	3.72	3	136	.013	0.08
Internal- external focus	0.95	2.39	3	136	.036	0.05
Professionalism level	0.98	0.95	3	136	.420	0.02
Internal- external focus x Professionalism level	0.98	0.78	3	136	.507	0.02

The results of the MANCOVA demonstrated that after controlling the effects of some relevant variables (organization characteristics, news executives' attitudes toward innovation, and their innovation management), the culture dimension – internal vs. external focus still significantly influenced news organizations' UGC adoption (the total number of online UGC tools); however, the effect of overall professionalism level on news organizations' UGC adoption did not exist anymore. This suggested that overall professionalism level influenced news organizations' UGC adoption level through one or more mediators. Among the covariates, only the variable of organization size was significantly related to both the independent variable (overall professionalism level) and the dependent variate (news organizations' UGC adoption); therefore, overall professionalism level influenced UGC adoption through organization size.

In addition, another possibility was that professionalism might not actually influence UGC adoption. Although the main focus of the study was not the relationship between organization size and the cultures in legacy media organizations; however, it is more likely that it was size that formed cultures because organization size has been decided based on the organization's location since the organization was established and usually did not change significantly. If organization size formed culture, then it could be concluded that it was more likely that size influenced UGC adoption through the cultures in organization rather than the cultures influenced UGC adoption through organization size. Nevertheless, unlike organizational culture that was developed after an organization was established, professional culture existed

when the organization was founded. Therefore, it is difficult to decide which happened first between organization size and professional culture of journalism.

Therefore, hypothesis 9 - professional culture had a significantly influence on news organizations' UGC adoption was partially supported; while hypothesis 10 – Organizational culture had significantly more influence on news organizations' UGC adoption than professional culture of journalism was supported.

6.5 A brief summary of the results

To sum up, the results of the study demonstrated that organizational culture significantly predicted news organizations' UGC adoption. First, two culture types were significant predictors of UGC adoption: adhocracy culture and market culture. Specifically, news organizations that emphasized adhocracy culture values provided more UGC tools on their websites; however, journalists in news organizations that emphasized market culture values used UGC relatively less frequently in their news production. Second, the culture dimension – internal versus external focus is also a significant predictor of UGC adoption. News organizations with an external focus in their organizational culture had a significantly higher level of UGC adoption than organizations with an internal focus. Third, professionalism level influenced news organizations' UGC adoption level through other mediators. In this study, organization size is considered to be the most likely mediator.

In addition, the results showed that some variables relating to organization characteristics were important for news organizations' UGC adoption. These factors included: organization size,

organization longevity, media type, newsroom structure, media executives' attitudes toward UGC, and eruptives' innovation management. A table was made to summarize the results of the present study (See Table 64).

Table 64
A Summary of the Results of Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research question and hypothesis	Results
RQ1(a): To what extent do the traditional news organizations adopt UGC?	
H1 (a): The proportion of television stations that have adopted UGC in its population is higher than that of newspapers.	Yes
H1 (b): Television stations provide their users more online UGC tools than daily newspapers.	No
H2 (a): Customization style of UGC is more dominant than production style of UGC on the websites of traditional news organizations	Yes
H2 (b): Television stations provide more production style of UGC than newspapers.	No
H2 (c): Television journalists use UGC more frequently than newspapers journalists in news production.	Yes
RQ1(b): Which type of content is more dominant on news organizations' websites (entertainment versus information, everyday life versus political/social issues)?	
RQ1(c): How quickly did media organizations adopt each UGC function?	
RQ 1 (d): Which style of UGC between customization and production did news organizations adopt relatively quickly?	
RQ1(e): What are media executives' reasons for adopting and not adopting UGC?	
RQ2 (a): What organizational characteristics are related to UGC adoption level of traditional news organizations?	
H3 (a) Organization size is positively related to news organizations' adoption of customization style of UGC.	Yes
H3 (b) Organization size is positively related to news organizations' adoption of production style of UGC.	Yes

Table 64 (Continued)

Research question and hypothesis	Results
H4 (a): News organizations with a team-based newsroom structure have a higher level of UGC adoption than organizations with a centralization-based newsroom structure.	No
H4 (b): News organizations with a team-based newsroom structure use UGC more frequently in their news production process than organizations with a centralization-based newsroom structure.	Yes
H4(c): News organizations with a team-based newsroom structure adopted UGC earlier than organizations with a centralization-based newsroom structure.	Yes
RQ2 (b): How were news executives' attitudes toward UGC and innovation management related to UGC adoption of their organizations?	
H5 (a): News managers' positive attitudes toward UGC predict the overall UGC adoption level of their organizations.	No
H5 (b): News managers' positive attitudes toward UGC predict the frequency of journalists' UGC usage in their news production.	Yes
H5 (c): News managers' positive attitudes toward UGC predict the UGC adoption rate of their organizations.	No
H6 (a): News managers' innovation management predicts the overall UGC adoption level of their organizations.	Yes
H6 (b): News managers' innovation management predicts the frequency of journalists' UGC usage in their news production.	Yes
H6 (c): News managers' innovation management predicts the UGC adoption rate of their organizations.	No
H7 (a): Organization size predicts the overall UGC adoption level of their organizations.	Yes
H7 (b): Organization size predicts the frequency of journalists' UGC usage in their news production.	No
H7 (c): Organization size predicts the UGC adoption rate of their organizations.	Yes
RQ2(c): What is the dominant type of organizational culture in traditional news organizations in the U.S.?	
RQ2 (d): Is there congruence in the four aspects (dominant characteristics, management of employees, strategic emphases, and criteria of success) of organizational culture of traditional news organizations?	
RQ3 (a): What are the core professional values of journalists in traditional news organizations?	
RQ3(b): Are there any significant differences in journalists' core professional beliefs between daily newspapers and television?	Partly Yes

Table 64 (Continued)

Research question and hypothesis	Results
RQ3 (c): Is there a significant difference in overall journalism professionalism level between daily newspapers and television stations in the U.S.?	No
RQ4: Is there a significant relationship between culture and news organizations' UGC adoption?	Yes
H8 (a): Organizational culture type had a significantly influence on news organization's UGC adoption.	Yes
H8 (b): News organizations with an emphasis of flexibility in their organizational culture had a significantly higher level of UGC adoption than organizations with an emphasis of stability.	No
H8 (c): News organizations with an external focus in their organizational culture had a significantly higher level of UGC adoption than organizations with an internal focus.	Yes
H9: Professional culture had a significantly influence on news organizations' UGC adoption.	Partially Yes
H10: Organizational culture had significantly more influence on news organizations' UGC adoption than professional culture.	Yes

Note. Yes = Supported; No = Not supported.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The last chapter provided an analysis of: (1) the extent to which traditional news organizations (daily newspapers and broadcast-network affiliated television stations) have adopted user-generated content (UGC), (2) news managers' attitudes toward UGC, (3) news organizations' culture, (4) journalists' professional beliefs, and (5) how organizational culture and professional journalistic culture affected news organizations' UGC adoption. In this chapter, first, a summary and discussion of the research findings will be provided; second, the significance of the study will be explained; third, the limitations of the research study will be discussed and suggestions for future studies in this topic area will be given.

7.1 Summary and discussion of major findings

News organizations' UGC adoption

RQ1(a): To what extent do the traditional news organizations adopt UGC?

The study results showed that more than three fourths (n = 178) of the news organizations in the study (n = 235) have adopted UGC. This indicated that most of the news organizations realized the benefits of UGC – or at least that they did not want to fall behind their competitors (even if they did not fully understand its importance). In addition, the results demonstrated that the proportion of television stations that have adopted UGC was 13.7% higher than that of

newspapers. The reason for the difference in UGC adoption could be explained by the different nature of the two media types. The operation of television stations is more technology-driven; therefore, they certainly had more advantages in adopting UGC and the relevant media technologies.

Although the proportion of television stations that have adopted UGC in general was higher than that of newspapers, among the 178 news organizations who adopted UGC, television stations (M = 5.62) didn't have significantly more UGC tools on their websites than newspapers (M = 5.08). This suggested that for those newspapers with sufficient resources to adopt UGC, the extent to which they adopted UGC was not significantly less than that of television stations. More surprisingly, regression analysis showed that newspapers had a significantly quicker UGC adoption rate than television stations, indicating that most of the newspapers managers realized the importance of UGC relatively earlier than their competitors in the television industry. However, the results of regression analysis showed that newspaper journalists used UGC in their news production significantly less frequently than television journalists, suggesting that television journalists were more interested in the content contributed by users than newspapers journalists.

As Ornebring (2008) suggested, UGC can be divided into two categories based on the level of user involvement – customization (low involvement level) and production (high involvement level). The study compared which type of UGC was more dominant on the websites of news organizations. The results demonstrated that traditional news organizations adopted

more customization style of UGC than production style of UGC on their websites. Specifically, among the five most adopted UGC tools, only one tool is production style of UGC – user-submitted pictures (72.17%); while among the least five adopted UGC tools, there are four production-styles of UGC. This finding was consistent with many previous studies (Domingo et al., 2008; Rebillard & Touboul, 2010; Qing & Hollifield, 2011), indicating that traditional news organizations still provided limited participation opportunities for users – users were given more opportunities to customize the existing content than to create actual content.

In terms of the difference in adopting the two types of UGC between newspapers and television, the results showed that television stations (M = 2.92) didn't have significantly more production styles of UGC on their websites than newspapers (M = 3.14). This confirmed the previous finding that for organizations who have adopted UGC, there was no significant difference in the overall adoption level between newspapers and television stations. Thus, media type is not a significant factor in deciding the extent to which news organizations provided users with UGC functions on their websites.

RQ1(b): Which type of content is more dominant on news organizations' websites (entertainment versus information, everyday life versus political/social issues)?

Regarding UGC content types, Ornebring (2008) said UGC content can be divided into the categories of *information* versus *entertainment* and *public* versus *private*. The study found that informational UGC and UGC relating to users' everyday lives were dominant compared with the other two types of UGC on news organizations' websites. This finding indicated that

news organizations allowed their users to influence its news production process at a moderate level. Specifically, they would like users to provide more informational content; however, they did not want users to participate in the production process of hard news. Again, this suggested that traditional news organizations gave users limited power or freedom to integrate UGC into news production.

RQ1(c): How quickly did media organizations adopt each UGC function?

RQ1(d): Which style of UGC between customization and production did news organizations adopt relatively quickly?

The study also examined how early news organizations adopted each individual UGC tool (totaling 12 UGC tools in this study). Generally speaking, the results showed that the mean score for adoption rate of customization-style UGC was significantly greater than the mean score of adoption rate of production-style UGC.

Specifically, the results showed that news organizations adopted most of the UGC functions in a predictable pattern; in other words, the percentage of each adopter category was similar to how Rogers (1995) categorized adopters in terms of the adoption speed and the characteristics of each adopter category: innovators (2.5%), early adopters (13.5%), early majority (34%), late majority (34%), and laggards (16%). However, there were a few exceptions. First, in terms of two customization type of UGC – Facebook and Twitter, about half of the news organizations fell into early majority category and no organizations fell into laggards, suggesting that traditional news organizations accepted the two UGC tools relatively early and had little

reluctance in adopting them. This was understandable since these two social media tools are very popular among Internet users; thus, media executives were more likely to accept them at the interpersonal level in the beginning, and then adopted them as communication tools for their organizations.

Regarding production type of UGC, the results showed that news organizations adopted online forums most quickly since 9.8% of the news organizations fell into the innovator category, and no organization was in the category of laggards. This suggested that the function of online forums was accepted by all the news organizations. An important reason could be that the function of online forums can build an online community, which can help news organizations keep their existing customers and attract new ones. In addition, news organizations can also learn what their users are concerned about on online forums, which sometimes is more effective than other kinds of market research (Beck, 2008). Moreover, online forum function can add additional content to the websites of news organizations without extra cost. This is especially important for legacy media that are competing with new media because it can bring more competitive advantages.

There were two UGC tools that were adopted relatively later than other production style of UGC – user-submitted news articles and user-submitted news packages (news reporting). For the two UGC functions, no organizations fell into innovator category; especially for user-submitted news packages, more than one fourth of the organizations were in the category of laggards. This suggested that news organizations were reluctant to invite users to create actual content and that user involvement in news production was still very low. This confirmed the

findings of many studies (Domingo et al., 2008; Qing & Hollifield, 2011) conducted in the last five years, indicating that not too much progress has been made over the last five years in terms of traditional news organizations' UGC adoption.

RQ1(e): What are media executives' reasons for adopting and not adopting UGC?

In addition to examining to what extent traditional news organizations adopted UGC, the study also explored media executives' reasons for adopting and not adopting UGC. Among the 178 news organizations (both newspapers and television stations) that have adopted UGC, three reasons for adopting UGC were used most frequently by news managers: "attract more consumers" (75.3%), "improve news quality" (e.g., extend the breadth and depth of news coverage) (65.2%), and "create a positive image for your organizations"(51.1%). This suggested that about three fourths of the news executives considered getting more consumers to be their most important task for their organizations and believed that UGC was helpful in this regard. Meanwhile, two thirds of the news managers thought improving news quality was also important and believed that UGC was helpful. Additionally, more than half of the news managers believed that UGC could help them create a positive image for their organizations, indicating that they realized the importance of two-way communication between them and users and would like to meet consumers' expectation of having more interaction between the two sides. Moreover, about one fourth of the respondents thought that "save costs" was an important reason for them to adopt UGC. For example, a news manager said they adopted UGC because they would like to "take the advantage of expertise that doesn't exist on staff." Again, from the standpoint of

management, the results indicated that news executives believed that UGC can bring indirect economic benefits to their organizations.

For the 57 news organizations (24.26% of the total 235 news organizations) that hadn't adopted UGC in this study, the most frequently-mentioned reason for not adopting UGC was that they didn't have enough staff to manage it (43.9%). This supported the findings of some previous studies (Hurmida and Thurman, 2008; Mclean, 2006). Particularly in this study, close to two thirds of the news organizations fell into either the "very small" or "small" category of organization size, suggesting that they didn't have enough resources and staff to manage UGC although many of them believed that adopting UGC was important. This again demonstrated that the issue of balancing the cost for UGC operation and the extra profits news organizations could get from UGC adoption is still unresolved especially for small organizations with limited budget. Many news executives admitted that UGC did have potential economic benefits; however, it is a long-term investment/return process, and usually small media organizations cannot keep making investments without seeing the return clearly. Thus, when they are not sure about whether they can get return, executives in small organizations are reluctant to spend too much money on UGC adoption (especially those UGC functions that require sophisticated technologies and a large group of staff).

The second most frequently-mentioned reason for not adopting UGC was that news managers worried that their news credibility would be negatively affected (24.6%). This is consistent with findings of some previous studies (e.g., Singer, 2009). The results indicated that

there is still a big proportion of journalists who believe that they should keep the control over the information they provide and play the gatekeeper role.

In addition, some news managers said they did not adopt UGC because they did not think UGC is interesting and important. For example, a news manager said they did not adopt UGC because they "don't consider UGC to be valuable." This suggested that some news executives haven't realized the importance of UGC from both journalistic professionalism and management/economics standpoints, although the study results showed that about two-thirds of the executives in this country believed that UGC can improve news quality and about three fourth of the executives thought it can attract more consumers.

Another example, a news manager said they did not adopt UGC because they "don't need UGC because there is no competition in the same market." This again indicated that some news managers did not fully understand the potential benefits of UGC. The study results showed that more than half of the news executives in this country believed that UGC can help them learn customers' needs and can differentiate their news products with products of other media organizations. In today's news industry, local media do not only compete with other local media organizations, but also compete with national or international news providers. For example, Yahoo provides local news on its website. If local news organization don't understand their customers' expectations and thus don't know how to differentiate their news products with products of other news providers, then they will lose their advantages as a local media.

Organization characteristics and UGC adoption

RQ2 (a): What organizational characteristics are related to UGC adoption level of traditional news organizations?

This study focused on two types of media – daily newspapers and broadcast-network affiliated television stations because they both are traditional news media and are struggling with whether they should completely accept UGC and redefine the concept of news quality. Both types of media organizations were divided into five categories based on their sizes: very small, small, medium, large, and very large. The study examined whether organization size influenced their UGC adoption.

The study found that organization size significantly influenced news organizations' adoption of both customization and production styles of UGC. Specifically, very small organizations adopted significantly fewer online UGC tools than larger organizations. However, small organizations, medium-size organizations, large organizations, and very large organizations did not differ significantly from one another. There are some possible explanations for this finding. First, as some scholars have argued (Massey & Levy, 1999; Rogers, 1995), very small organizations don't have enough staff and advanced technologies and thus usually fall behind other competitors in terms of innovation performance. Second, there is a lack of competition in very small markets where there is only one news organization, so they don't have too much pressure of losing consumers. Third, in this study, more than one third of the news

organizations were very small and only about one fifth of news organizations were large or very large. Although these proportions were similar to that of the whole population, the small number (this was caused by the low response rate) in the categories of large and very large size decreased the statistical power in data analysis; therefore, the study did not find significant differences among small, medium, large, and very large organizations in terms of their UGC adoption.

Beyond the influence of organization size on the total number of UGC tools provided on the websites of news organizations, the study also examined whether organization size affected the other two aspects of UGC adoption: news organizations' overall UGC adoption rate and journalists' UGC use frequency. The results showed that organization size was a significant predictor of news organizations' overall UGC adoption rate - the larger a news organization was, the more quickly it adopted UGC functions. This was similar to organization size's influence on the total number of UGC tools – the larger an organization was, the more UGC tools it provided to users. The results confirmed the findings of previous research again - large organizations usually have sufficient staff and resources so that it is easier for them to adopt UGC and other innovations earlier than smaller news organizations (Roger, 1995).

However, the study found that organization size was not a significant predictor of journalists' UGC use frequency in their news production process. This suggested that for news organizations that have adopted and accepted UGC, although they have sufficient sources and staff, some other factors may play a more important role in the process of the fully adoption of

UGC or implementation of the innovation policy such as the effectiveness of news managers' innovation management and their attitudes toward UGC.

The study found a significant relationship between newsroom structure and UGC adoption. Specifically, the results showed that news room structure significantly influenced news organizations' overall UGC adoption rate and the frequency of journalists' using UGC in news production. However, news room structure did not have a significant influence on the total number of UGC tools.

First, it was found that team structure (with independent teams covering different topic areas) positively influenced overall UGC adoption rate; in other words, newsrooms with a team structure adopted UGC functions significantly more quickly than newsrooms with a centralization-based structure (traditional vertical structure). This confirmed with previous research – a low level of centralization and formalization encourages product innovation (Becker et al., 2014; Damanpour, 1991; Kimberly & Evanisko, 1981). The results again demonstrated that looser organizational structures are helpful for innovation.

Second, the results demonstrated that journalists working in a team-structured newsroom used UGC more frequently in their news production than those working in vertically structured newsrooms. This could be explained through the argument of some scholars. For example, Russial (1997) argued that team structured newsrooms are helpful for producing more news coverage on the same news topic than the beat system. Therefore, the findings suggested that journalists in team structure newsrooms had more time to extend the breadth and depth of news

coverage on the same topic by using UGC. In contrast, journalists in vertically structured newsrooms usually faced time pressure covering various news topics and had no time to focus on the same news topic and thus might easily neglect UGC. Another possible explanation could be that team-based structure can create flat hierarchies that have less rigid rules, and thus employees have more motivation for innovation. In this study, integrating UGC into news production was considered as an innovation in news organizations; therefore, the finding that journalists in team-structured newsroom use more UGC indicated that team structure was helpful for employees' innovation performance.

News managers' attitudes toward UGC and innovation management

RQ2 (b): How were news executives' attitudes toward UGC and innovation management related to UGC adoption of their organizations?

News managers' attitudes toward UGC were examined through four questions in the study. Generally speaking, news managers held a positive attitude toward UGC. However, these questions were answered only by news managers in organizations that have adopted UGC. The results of overall attitude may be a little different if these questions were answered by the managers of all the organizations in the population because there are still many journalists who believe that they should keep their gatekeeper roles (Domingo et al.,2008; Hermida and Thurman, 2008; Singer, 2005).

The results showed that more than four fifths of the news executives agreed that using UGC helped their organizations become more competitive in their markets, while more than

three fourths of the managers believed that UGC improved the news quality of their organizations. This demonstrated that among those organizations that have adopted UGC, there were more news executives who thought UGC can help their news organizations become more competitive than executives who thought UGC can improve news quality. Thus, it indicated that profit-driven motivation to adopt UGC was more common than motivation of improving news quality. Furthermore, although only about half of the news managers believed that adopting UGC helped them increase circulation and viewership, more than four fifths of the managers said it was likely that their organizations would provide more UGC tools online to their users in the future. This suggested that most of the news executives believed adopting UGC was important and helpful for their organizations and or their users; even some of them were not sure whether it could increase profits.

The study also examined how well news executives implemented the innovation strategy of adopting UGC. Seven questions related to this issue were answered by news managers in organizations that have adopted UGC. The overall level of their innovation management was moderate (by calculating the average score of the seven questions). More than 70% of the news managers said that they had a clear vision or a specific goal regarding how to use UGC in their news production, provided ongoing support was provided to journalists in the process of integrating UGC in news production, and made specific rules for journalists in terms of adopting UGC. However, less than one third of the managers said that audience research was conducted before their organizations adopted UGC. This finding indicated that news executives generally implemented the strategy of UGC adoption well, but that they did not really understand their

users' expectations and needs before making the strategy. So they might adopt UGC because they did not want to fall behind their competitors and did not fully understand the potential of UGC. This is not helpful for organizational innovation since a lack of understanding would affect the process of making clear goals and allocating sufficient resources (Saksena and Hollifield, 2002).

Moreover, the results showed that 95% of the news managers said that they had effective communication with journalists regarding news tasks, indicating journalists had no problem in understanding news managers' innovation strategies. However, less than two thirds of the executives said that sufficient technology investment had been made in the last five years in their organizations and that necessary training on how to use new media and Internet technologies in journalists' work was offered on a regular-basis. This suggested that a lack of sufficient resources was still a big obstacle for the development of participatory journalism for many news organizations. This confirmed the findings of some previous studies (Hermida & Thurman, 2007; Nguyen, 2008).

In terms of the influence of news managers' attitudes toward UGC and their innovation management on news organizations' UGC adoption, the study found that news executives' attitudes toward UGC was a significant predictor of how frequently journalists used UGC in their news production - the more helpful news managers thought UGC was, the more frequently their journalists used UGC in news production. This indicated that managers' attitudes toward an innovation played an important role in employees' innovation performance. Therefore, in order to successfully implement an innovation strategy, an organization's leaders must fully

understand the importance of the innovation and thus can help employees understand and accept the innovation. This supported the findings of some previous studies – journalists' attitude toward users can greatly influence their adoption of UGC (Boczkowski, 2004; Paulussen & Ugille, 2008). However, executives' attitude toward UGC was not a significant predictor of the total number of online UGC tools and of organizations' UGC adoption rate. This suggested that the overall level of UGC adoption was not solely decided by managers' attitudes; instead, there were other organization factors that influenced UGC development in news organizations.

Innovation management was another significant predictor of organizations' UGC adoption. The study found that the better news executives managed the newsroom regarding UGC adoption, the more frequently journalists used it in the news production process, and the more UGC tools organizations provided to users on their websites. This suggested that leadership is important in achieving the goal of organizational innovation. Effective communication between leaders and employees, ongoing support (e.g., encouragement), making specific plans about innovation, providing relevant training and technology resources were all important factors that influenced employees' innovation performance. This supported the argument of some scholars (Saksena & Hollifield, 2002; Rogers, 1995).

Organizational culture and UGC adoption

RQ2(c): What is the dominant type of organizational culture in traditional news organizations in the U.S.?

The study examined the dominant culture of traditional news organizations in the U.S. and how organizational culture influenced news media's adopting UGC. It was found that two

types of organizational culture were dominant – market and clan. Specifically, more than two thirds of the organizations had either market-type or clan-type organizational culture; while less than one third of the organizations had either adhocracy-type or hierarchy-type organizational culture. This suggested that the culture of news organizations is not extremely open like the software or filmmaking industry, which usually have an adhocracy culture that is risk-oriented and requires constant innovation; and it is also not extremely conservative like government agencies and fast-food restaurants, which have a hierarchy culture that emphasizes high-level stability, predictability, and efficiency using formal rules and policies to hold the organization together (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

For daily newspapers, clan was the most common type of organizational culture; whereas for television stations, market-type organizational culture was dominant. This finding confirmed the findings of some previous studies (e.g., Hollifield et al., 2001) - television stations and newspapers have significantly different types of organizational culture because they are in different industry sectors. Specifically, in this study, most of the newspapers had an organizational culture of clan, indicating that the major characteristics of daily newspapers were the following: team work, cohesion, shared values and goals, and corporate commitment to employees. Newspapers with this culture focused on internal maintenance with flexibility, concern for people, and sensitivity to customers. Clan culture is appropriate especially in rapidly changing and turbulent environments because this kind of environment make it difficult for leaders to make long-term plans too early, and decision making is uncertain; thus, the best way is to make sure that all employees share the same goals and beliefs (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

For television stations, the dominant culture was market-type, suggesting that television stations focused more on external environment instead of internal affairs. In other words, organizations with this culture type are operated through economic market mechanisms, and their major focus is to create competitive advantages. The core values of market-type organizational culture are competitiveness and productivity, which are achieved through an emphasis on external positioning and control. Not surprisingly, the culture difference between daily newspapers and television stations indicated that because of the different market environment and using different technologies, the two types of news media had entirely different emphases– newspapers had an internal focus and an emphasis of flexibility; whereas television stations had an external focus and an emphasis of control. A possible explanation could be that television stations are in a relatively more competitive market environment with a rapid growth of new technologies and require high-level efficiency, while newspapers are in a relatively stable market environment and have a more traditional management method but still with some flexibility.

Moreover, the study also found that television stations had a stronger organizational culture than daily newspapers. This suggested that television stations had a clear focus and homogeneity of effort, and that they required unity and common vision. However, it did not mean that newspapers with a relatively weaker culture were inappropriately operated. The extent to which an organization needs a strong culture or a balanced culture depends on individual circumstances. There is no perfect type of organizational culture; therefore, each organization must decide the degree of cultural strength for itself based on its specific environment (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

RQ2 (d): Is there congruence in the four aspects (dominant characteristics, management of employees, strategic emphases, and criteria of success) of organizational culture of traditional news organizations?

The study also examined whether various aspects of news organizations' culture were aligned. In daily newspapers, the dominant characteristics and management of employees were consistent with their overall values of clan culture. However, strategic emphases of newspapers reflected the values of adhocracy culture, and newspapers' criteria of success emphasized the values of hierarchy culture. In television stations, three of the four aspects – dominant characteristics, strategic emphases, and criteria of success – were all consistent with the overall values of market culture. Only the aspect of management of employees emphasized clan culture values and was inconsistent with their overall cultural values. This suggested that television stations had relatively consistent cultural values, which would be helpful for achieving organizational goals and enhancing effectiveness. Nevertheless, daily newspapers emphasized different culture values in different aspects of organizations' culture, indicating that they might not have very a very clear focus, that the respondents were unclear about their organizational culture, or that the environment was too complex so that multiple emphases in different areas of the organizations were needed (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

RQ4: Is there a significant relationship between culture and news organizations' UGC adoption?

Regarding the relationship between organizational culture and news organizations' UGC adoption, the study found that adhocracy culture type and the culture dimension of internal

versus external significantly influenced the total number of online UGC tools. Specifically, the more an organization emphasized adhocracy culture values and focused on external aspects like environment, competitors and consumers, the more UGC online tools it provided to users. This finding supported organizational culture theory and findings of some previous studies – organizations with adhocracy culture emphasize creativity and producing unique products (Cameron & Quinn, 2006); in addition, adhocracy culture is positively associated with product innovation (Ashraf et al., 2013; Valencia et al., 2010). Additionally, the results of the present study are also consistent with some scholars' argument about "strong ties" and "weak ties." That is, weak ties are more helpful than strong ties in the process of generating new ideas because completely depending on strong ties will cause the members of an organization to neglect the outside influences (Becker et al., 2014). The concept of "strong ties" is similar to the concept of "internal focus" in this study, while "weak ties" is comparable to "external focus."

However, the study did not found that the dimension of control versus flexibility could significantly influence UGC adoption (three variables relating to UGC adoption). The finding suggested that paying close attention to the environment outside an organization is more important than keeping the organization flexible in the process of innovation adoption. A possible explanation could be that an organization will not be able to have good innovation performance without understanding the changing needs of customers, although it may be operated flexibly.

The study also found that market culture type negatively predicted one aspect of UGC adoption: the frequency of journalists' UGC use. In other words, the more a news organization

put emphasis on the values of market culture, which emphasizes external focus and stability/control, the less frequently the journalists used UGC in their news production. The study results indicated that strict rules and policies of an organization can negatively affect its employees' willingness to take the risks of product innovation. This finding confirmed the findings of previous studies: a low level of centralization and formalization encourages product innovation (Becker et al., 2014; Damanpour, 1991; Kimberly & Evanisko, 1981).

Professional culture of journalism and UGC adoption

RQ3 (a): What are the core professional values of journalists in traditional news organizations?

The study also examined journalists' core values or beliefs of professionalism, their overall professionalism levels, and the relationship between journalistic professionalism and news organizations' UGC adoption. Three components were used to assess journalists' core values of professionalism: journalists' institutional roles, epistemological orientations, and ethical ideologies.

First, as to journalists' institutional roles, there were slightly more (8.1% difference) news managers who believed that attracting the widest possible audience (95.3%) was important than those who believed that it was important for journalists to motivate people to participate in civic activity and political discussion (88.6%); but in general, both values were considered to be important by news managers. This suggested that most of the news managers of traditional

media emphasized both market orientation and public interest; in other words, they viewed audience as both consumers and citizens, although the results showed that a small proportion of them considered audience only as consumers.

Second, with regard to journalism epistemologies, the study found that the proportion of news managers who believed that claims in news production should only based on hard evidence and reliable sources (88.6%) was similar to the proportion of those who thought it was acceptable to provide analysis of events and issues in news production (85.0%). This indicated that journalists thought both empirical and analytical justification of truth claims could be used in news production, although the proportion of journalists who supported empirical justification of truth claims was slightly higher than those who used analytical justification of truth claim in news production. This supported the findings of some previous studies – the journalists in the U.S. commit to a factual but interpretative model of news reporting (e.g., Hanitzsch et al., 2011).

Third, in terms of journalists' ethical ideologies, the study found that a majority of news managers supported universal ethical principles (92.8%), whereas less than one third of them accepted situational ethical principles (29.7%). This suggested that most of the journalists of traditional media in the U.S. held a firm professional belief that journalists should follow absolute moral principles regardless of the actual context. The finding was consistent with what Hanitzsch et al. (2011) found in their study of professional culture of journalism.

In addition to journalists' institutional roles, epistemological orientations, and ethical ideologies, the study also examined other aspects of journalistic professionalism, including the

following: journalistic education, work longevity in the news industry, professional source reading habits, professional activities participation, journalists' autonomy in their work process, and whether they prioritized professional values over organization interests when there was a conflict. Overall, the study found that journalists of traditional news media in the U.S. had a relatively high level of journalistic professionalism. However, regarding the conflict between professional values and organization interest, there were less than two thirds of the news managers (65.2%) who said they would prioritize professional journalism values over organization interest. This indicated that sometimes journalistic professionalism was sacrificed in order to maximize organization profits, which supported some scholars' argument (Shoemaker & Reese, 1996).

RQ3 (b): Are there any significant differences in journalists' core professional beliefs between daily newspapers and television?

RQ3 (c): Is there a significant difference in overall journalism professionalism level between daily newspapers and television stations in the U.S.?

Furthermore, the study also compared whether there were differences in journalists' professionalism values between newspapers and television stations. It was found that there was no significant difference in the overall level of professionalism between newspaper journalists and television journalists. However, there were some differences in individual aspects of journalists' professionalism between the two types of news media. First, the study found that newspaper journalists held a firmer belief of universal ethical rules of journalism and a more

conservative attitude toward situational journalism ethics than television journalists. Second, the results showed that newspaper journalists enjoyed more professional autonomy in their work process than television journalists. These findings suggested that print media journalists held relatively more traditional and conservative beliefs of journalistic professionalism than broadcast journalists, which supported the findings of some previous studies (Hollifield, 2011; Shoemaker and Reese, 1996).

Finally, the study also examined whether news managers' professional level significantly influenced their organizations' UGC adoption. The study found that journalists' professionalism level did not significantly influence news organizations' UGC adoption level, adoption rate, or journalists' UGC use frequency in their news production. This was inconsistent with the findings of some previous studies, which found that journalists' professional values and beliefs significantly influenced their understanding, accepting, and using UGC in news production (Domingo et al.,2008; Hermida and Thurman, 2008; Nguyen, 2008; Singer, 2005). There are a few possible explanations. First, the results showed that the news managers in this study had a relatively high overall professionalism level; therefore, there was not much variation or difference in their professionalism scores. Thus, it was difficult to find out how much influence journalists' professionalism level had on UGC adoption. Second, due to the limited space on the survey questionnaire and time restrictions, the questions in the professionalism scale might be not sufficient to fully assess journalists' professionalism level. Third, the finding may indicate that organizational culture played a more important role than professional culture of journalism in news organizations' UGC adoption. In other words, a news organization's UGC adoption

level depended more on how the organization was organized and managed than on whether the journalists had a high level of journalistic professionalism.

7.2 Limitations and suggestions for future studies

In spite of the theoretical and practical contributions the study made to the topic area, there are still some limitations. First, the study only used four of the six components of The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument: dominant characteristics, management of employees, strategic emphases, and criteria of success. There are two reasons for selecting these four aspects of organizational culture: first, these four aspects are more closely related to the focus of the study – how news organizations adopted innovative ways of news production. Second, the target population of the study is management in news organizations, and minimizing the total number of questions on the questionnaire was extremely important in order to get an acceptable response rate. Future studies can use all the six aspects to enhance reliability and validity.

Second, the study used a Likert-scale to assess organizational culture in news organizations, which increased the ease of answering the questions and saved a lot of time for respondents. However, it could not force the respondents to identify the trade-offs that actually exist in their organizations and create less differentiation. Future scholars may consider using an ipsative rating scale, which devides100 points among alternatives (four options in each question, representing four types of culture respectively) if time permits.

Third, the study only used one single research method. Because of the very large population of target news organizations and the restriction of time and resources, the study only

used survey method to explore the research questions. One disadvantage of a survey method is that it is difficult to establish causality. This is because researchers do not have control over independent variables, so they cannot be sure whether there is a causal relationship between independent variables and dependent variables (Wimmer & Dominick, 2006). In other words, researchers cannot control the time order of the appearance of independent and dependent variables; thus, they are not certain whether the cause actually happens before the effect. In this study, although it can argued that the cultures in news organizations were formed much earlier than the occurrence of UGC, the researcher was still not completely sure whether the cultures in news organizations preceded their UGC adoption.

To better understand the nature of the research problem, scholars in future studies could use triangulation. In other words, they could use both one quantitative method and one qualitative method in their studies (Wimmer & Dominick, 2006). For example, in addition to a survey method, they could use in-depth interviews or field observation to get more details on the organizational culture of media organizations. In addition, future studies could use content analysis to examine to what extent news organizations adopted UGC on their websites, whereas survey respondents might not be able to precisely answer whether or not they adopted each individual UGC function.

Fourth, the study only invited news managers of media organizations to participate. Due to the large target population and that the unit of analysis was individual news organizations, it was determined that only one person was chosen to represent each organization. Finally, the top

news manager of each organization was chosen because the newsroom leader had a good understanding of both organizational culture and the professional culture of journalism based on their rich work experience. However, one disadvantage was that the person chosen might be biased, and there was no way to verify. Future studies could focus on a small number of organizations and invite more staff members from each organization to participate. For example, regular journalists could be invited to future studies since they might have different opinions about culture. This is because people who are at the same hierarchical level usually share the same type of sub-culture in one organization called inter-organizational culture (Kung, 2008). Therefore, the culture of each organization would be better understood.

7.3 Conclusion

This study made significant theoretical and practical contributions. Regarding the contributions to theories, the study tested the major assumptions of organizational culture and the professional culture of journalism and explored how these two types of culture influenced one news organizations' innovative performance – UGC adoption. As to the contributions to practice, the study provided a general map of the current status of traditional news media's UGC adoption, found the dominant types of organizational culture for mainstream media, and thoroughly explored the important organizational factors that significantly influenced news organizations' UGC adoption.

The main contributions of this research study to culture theories are the following. First, the study originally applied the scale of organizational culture to study organizations' innovative

performance in the context of media industry. It was found that the popular organizational culture scale in management field – OCAI (The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument) – was also helpful for innovation and organizational studies in the media field.

Second, the study confirmed the main assumption of organizational culture that certain culture types or dimensions can positively influence news organizations' UGC adoption, which was consider an innovative way to produce news. Specifically, organizations with adhocracy culture and which also pay more attention to outside environment usually encourage employees to formulate innovative solutions to problems and find new methods of providing products and services to customers (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

Third, the study developed a 12-item index for assessing journalists' professionalism level based on the literature. Although this index may not be able to cover every aspect of professionalism, it is helpful for testing a general or overall professionalism level of journalists by examining some major components of professionalism such as journalists' roles, the nature of acceptable evidence, ethical ideologies, professional education and training, work longevity in news industry, autonomy, professional activities participation, and so on. Moreover, the study found that there were three major dimensions for journalistic professionalism based on the results of factor analysis: personal beliefs about professionalism, organizational professionalism, and journalists' work longevity in news industry. Among the three dimensions, personal beliefs about professionalism was found to be the most important one since it accounted for the largest proportion (26%) of the total variance.

The study also made contributions to practitioners in the news industry. First, this study can help media practitioners understand to what extent UGC was adopted by legacy media organizations in the U.S. It was found that three fourths of the news organizations have adopted UGC. However, compared to the findings of previous studies (e.g., Qing & Hollifield, 2011), traditional news media did not make too much progress in UGC adoption and users were only given limited power to contribute to the actual news production. Furthermore, one fourth of the news managers in this study thought adopting UGC could hurt news credibility, suggesting that journalists still believed that they should keep their gatekeeper role in news production. These findings indicated that for those news organizations that have not adopted UGC, their journalists' professional beliefs are still a factor affecting UGC adoption.

Second, the study can help media executives understand their competitors a little better. The study found no difference in the overall UGC adoption level between daily newspapers and television stations. Moreover, there was also no significant difference in the overall professionalism level between newspaper journalists and television journalists. Additionally, it was found that newspapers adopted UGC more quickly than television stations; however, television journalists used UGC more frequently in their news production than newspaper journalists. These findings suggested that media type was not an important factor influencing UGC adoption and newspapers and that television are strong competitors to each other.

Third, the present study can help media executives understand that journalists' professionalism level was not the most important factor hindering news organizations' UGC

adoption anymore; instead, organization factors (organizational culture, organization size, organization longevity, media executives' attitudes toward innovation, and executives' innovation management) had more influence on UGC adoption. The finding provided evidence that the dominant culture of an organization is more powerful than the sub-cultures inside the organization when there is a conflict between the two types of culture.

Fourth, the study provided some practical suggestions to news executives who plan to have product innovation. The study found that adhocracy culture positively predicted news organizations' UGC adoption, suggesting that news executives should pay more attention to their organization culture because it can directly influence their innovation performance. It was found that the dominant culture of daily newspapers and television stations were clan and market respectively. However, the results showed that clan and market types of culture did not have too much influence on news organizations' overall UGC adoption. Therefore, news organizations may consider adjusting their culture to adhocracy culture so that openness and creativity can be fostered (Cameron & Quinn, 2006; Valencia et al., 2010). Additionally, leaders need to realize that an organizations' culture should match the demands of the market environment and the organization's long-term goals in order to succeed in competition.

Finally, in addition to the theoretical and practical contributions, it is also worth mentioning that the present study has high external validity, which suggests that the findings of the study can be generalized across different settings and situations. There are two reasons for this argument. First, the researcher used the whole population of both daily newspapers and

broadcast network-affiliated television stations in the U.S. for data collection, allowing the researcher to gather information from a large group of subjects with various opinions. Second, although the response rate is only about 12%, the results showed that the respondents are representative of the two populations based on the proportions of individual organization size groups.

REFERENCES

Abbott, E. A., & Brassfield, L. T. (1989). Comparing decisions on releases by TV and newspaper gatekeepers. *Journalism Quarterly, 66*(4), 853-856.

Adams, J. W. (2008). Innovation management and U.S. weekly newspaper web sites: An examination of newspaper managers and emerging technology. *The International Journal on Media Management, 10*(2), 64-73.

Ahmadi, S. A. A., Salamzadeh, Y., Daraei, M., & Akbari, J. (2012). Relationship between organizational culture and strategy implementation: Typologies and dimensions. *Global Business and Management Research, 4(3&4)*, 286-299.

Altschull, J. H. (1997). Boundaries of journalistic autonomy. In D. A. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Social meanings of news: A text reader* (pp. 259-285). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

American Society of News Editors. (n.d.). ASNE statement of principles. Retrieved from http://asne.org/content.asp?pl=24&sl=171&contentid=171

Angle, H. L., & Perry, J L. (1986). Dual commitment and labor-management relationship climates. *Academy of Management Journal, 29 (1),* 31-50.

Armstrong, D. (1981). *A trumpet to arms: Alternative media in America.* Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.

Ashraf, G., Kadir, S. A., Pihie, Z. A. L., & Rashid, A. M. (2013). Relationship between organizational culture and organizational innovativeness in private universities in Iran. *World Applied Sciences Journal, 22(6),* 882-885.

Atkins, C. L. (2010). *Broadcast news organizations' perceptions of viewer generated content* (Master's thesis). Retrieved from http://mds.marshall.edu/etd/7

Babbie, E. (2007). *The practice of social research.* Belmont, CA: Thomson Wadsworth.

Baird, K., & Wang, H. Y. (2010). Employee empowerment: extent of adoption and influential factors. *Personnel Review, 39*(5), 574-599.

Bantz, C. R. (1997). News organizations: Conflict as a crafted cultural norm. In D. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Social meaning of news: A text reader* (pp. 123-137). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Baran, S. J., & Davis, D. K. (2006). *Mass communication theory: Foundations, ferment, and future* (4th ed.). Belmont, CA: Thomson Wadsworth.

Beam, R. A., Weaver, D. H., & Brownlee, B. J. (2008, July). *Professionalism of U.S. journalists: Have things changed in the turbulent times of the 21st century?* Paper presented to the Journalism Research and Education Section at the Congress of the International Association for Media and Communication Research, Stockholm, Sweden.

Becker, L. B., Hollifield, C. A., Lowrey, W., & Vlad, T. (2014, July). *Predictors of technical and administrative innovation in professional communication education at institutions of higher education*. Paper presented at the Journalism Research and Education Section of the International Association for Media and Communication Research, Hyderabad, India.

Beck, T. (2008). Web 2.0: *User-generated content in online communities: A theoretical and empirical investigation of its determinants.* Hamburg, Germany: Diplomica Verlag.

Berkowitz, D. (1990). Refining the gatekeeping metaphor for local television news. Jou*rnal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media, 34*(1), 55-68.

Berrio, A. A. (2003). An organizational culture assessment using the competing values framework: A profile of Ohio State University Extension. *Journal of Extension, 41(2).* Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/2003april/a3.php

Berson, Y., Oreg, S., & Dvir, T. (2008). CEO values, organizational culture and firm outcomes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 29*(5), 615-633.

Boczkowski, P. J. (2004). The processes of adopting multimedia and interactivity in three online newsrooms. *Journal of Communication, 54(2),* 197-213.

Breed, W. (1955). Social control in the newsroom: A functional analysis. *Social Forces, 33*(4), 326-335.

Brown, A. D. (1995). *Organisational culture*. London: Pitman.

Bruns, A. (2011). News produsage in a pro-am mediasphere: Why citizen journalism matters. In G. M. G. Redden (Ed.), *News online: Transformations and continuities* (pp. 132 -145). London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Cameron, K. S., & Quinn, R. E. (2006). *Diagnosing and changing organizational culture: Based on the competing values framework (Rev. ed).* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Carmen, C., & José, G. M. (2008). The role of technological and organizational innovation in the relation between market orientation and performance in cultural organizations. *European Journal of Innovation Management, 11*(3), 413-434.

Chen, H. (2008, May). *Understanding content consumers and content creators in the web 2.0 era: A Case study of YouTube users.* Paper presented at 2008 annual conference of the International Communication Association, Montreal, Canada.

Chen, L. Y. (2004). Examining the effect of organization culture and leadership behaviors on organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job performance at small and middle-sized firms of Taiwan. *Journal of American Academy of Business, Cambridge, 5*(1/2), 432-438.

Cheong, H. J., & Morrison, M. A. (2008). Consumers' reliance on product information and recommendations found in UGC. *Journal of Interactive Advertising 8(2),* 38-49.

Chung, D. S. (2007). Profits and perils: Online news producers' perceptions of interactivity and uses of interactive features. *Convergence, 13(1),* 43-61.

Chung, D. S. (2008). Interactive features of online newspapers: Identifying patterns and predicting use of engaged readers. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 13*(3), 658-679.

Dailey, L., Demo, L., & Spillman, M. (2005). The convergence continuum: A model for studying collaboration between media newsrooms. *Atlantic Journal of Communication, 13*(3), 150-168.

Dailey, L., Demo, L., & Spillman, M. (2008). Newspaper political blogs generate little interaction. *Newspaper Research Journal, 29(4),* 53-65.

Damanpour, F. (1991). Organizational innovation: A meta-analysis of effects of determinants and moderators. *Academy of Management Journal, 34*(3), 555-590.

Daniels, G. L., & Hollifield, C. A. (2002). Time of turmoil: Short and long-term effects of organizational change on newsroom employees. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 79(3),* 661-680.

Davenport, L., Fico, F., & Weinstock, D. (1996). Computers in newsrooms of Michigan's newspapers. *Newspaper Research Journal, 17(3),* 14-28.

Deuze, M. (2003). The web and its journalisms: Considering the consequences of different types of newsmedia online. *New Media & Society 5(2),* 203-230.

Deuze, M. (2005) What is journalism? Professional identity and ideology of journalists reconsidered. *Journalism, 6(4),* 442-464.

Deuze, M. (2008). Professional identity in a participatory media culture. In W. S. Thorsten Quandt (Ed.), *Journalism online - Partizipation oder Profession?* (pp. 251-261). Fachverlage GmbH, Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften.

Domingo, D., Quandt, T., Heinonen, A., Paulussen, S., Singer, J. B., & Vujnovic, M. (2008). Participatory journalism practices in the media and beyond. *Journalism Practice, 2*(3), 326-342.

Eastman, S. T., & Ferguson, D. A. (2009). *Media programming: Strategies and practices* (9th ed.). Boston, MA: Thomson Wadsworth.

Flexner, A. (1915, May). *Is social work a profession?* Paper presented at the 42nd annual session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, Baltimore, Maryland.

Forsyth, D. R. (1980). A taxonomy of ethical ideologies. *Journal of Personality and social psychology, 39(1),* 175-184.

Forsyth, D. R. (1981). Moral judgment: The influence of ethical ideology. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 7,* 218-223.

Gade, P. J., & Perry, E. L. (2003). Changing the newsroom culture: A four-year case study of organizational development at the *St. Louis Post-Dispatch*. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 80*(2), 327-347.

Garrison, B. (2000). Diffusion of a new technology: On-line research in newspaper newsrooms. *Convergence: The International Journal of Research into New Media Technologies, 6(1),* 84-105.

Garrison, B. (2001a). Computer-assisted reporting near complete adoption. *Newspaper Research Journal, 22(1),* 65-79.

Garrison, B. (2001b). Diffusion of online information technologies in newspaper newsrooms. *Journalism, 2(2),* 221-239.

Gershon, R. A. (2009). *Telecommunications and business strategy*. New York, NY: Routledge/Taylor and Francis Group.

Gieber, W. (1956). Across the desk: A study of 16 telegraph editors. *Journalism Quarterly, 33*, 423-432.

Gieber, W. (1964). News is what newspapermen make it. In L. A. Dexter & D. M. White (Eds.), P*eople, society and mass communications (pp. 173-182).* New York, NY: Free Press.

Glasser, T. L. (1992). Professionalism and the derision of diversity: The case of the education of journalists. *Journal of Communication, 2,* 131-140.

Goldsmith, R. E., & Horowitz, D. (2006). Measuring motivations for online opinion seeking. *Journal of Interactive Advertising, 6*(2), 3-14.

Granovetter, M. S. (1973). The strength of weak ties. *American Journal of Sociology, 78(6),* 1360-1380.

Grossman, L. (2006, December 25). You — yes, You — are TIME's person of the year. *Time Magazine.* Retrieved from http://www.time.com/time/magazine/article/0,9171,1570810,00.html

Hall, R. H. (1968). Professionalization and bureaucratization. A*merican Sociological Review, 33,* 93-104.

Hallin, D. C., & Mancini, P. (2004). *Comparing media systems: Three models of media and politics.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Hanitzsch, T. (2007). Deconstructing journalism culture: Toward a universal theory. *Communication theory, 17,* 367-385.

Hanitzsch, T., et al. (2011). Mapping journalism cultures across nations: A comparative study of 18 countries. *Journalism Studies, 12(3),* 273-293.

Harmon, M. D. (1989). Mr. Gates goes electronic: The what and why questions in local TV news. *Journalism Quarterly, 66(4),* 857-863.

Harrison, R. (1972). Understanding your organization's character. *Harvard Business Review, 50*(3), 119-128.

Harrison, R. & Stokes, H. (1992). *Diagnosing organizational culture.* San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer.

Hellriegel, D., Jackson, S. E., & Slocum, J. J. W. (1996). *Management* (7th ed.). Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western College Pub.

Hermida, A., & Thurman, N. (2007, March). *Comments please: How the British news media are struggling with user-generated content*. Paper presented at the 8th International Smposium on Online Journalism, Austin, Texas.

Hermida, A., & Thurman, N. (2008). A clash of cultures: The integration of user-generated content within professional journalistic frameworks at British newspaper websites. *Journalism Practice, 2(3),* 343-356.

Hermida, N. T. A. (2010). Gotcha: How newsroom norms are shaping participatory journalism online. In S. Tunney & G. Monaghan (Eds.), *Web journalism: A new form of citizenship?* (pp. 46-62). Portland, Oregon: Sussez Academic Press.

Hodges, L. W. (1986). The journalist and professionalism. *Journal of Mass Media Ethics, 1(2),* 32-36.

Hollifield, C. A., Kosicki, G. M., & Becker, L. B. (2001). Organizational vs. professional culture in the newsroom: Television news directors' and newspaper editors' hiring decisions. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media, 45*(2), 92-117.

Howard, L. W. (1998). Validating the competing values model as a representation of organizational cultures. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 6(3),* 231-250.

Jeffres, L., & Atkin, D. (1996). Predicting use of technologies for communication and consumer needs. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media, 40(3),* 318-330.

Johnson, T. J., & Kaye, B. K. (2004). Wag the blog: How reliance on traditional media and the Internet influence credibility perceptions of weblogs among blog users. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 81(3),* 622-642.

Kimberly, J. R., & Evanisko, M. J. (1981). The influence of individual, organizational, and contextual factors on hospital adoption of technological and administrative innovations. *Academy of Management Journal, 24(4)*, 689-713.

Kim, H. S. (2010). Culture and self-expression. *Psychological Science Agenda, 24*(6). Retrieved from American Psychological Association website: http://www.apa.org/science/about/psa/2010/06/sci-brief.aspx

Kim, J. (2010). *User-generated content (UGC) revolution? Critique of the promise of YouTube* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from http://ir.uiowa.edu/etd/529

Kornhauser, W. (1962). *Scientists in industry: Conflict and accommodation*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Kotter, J. P., & Heskett, J. L. (1992). *Corporate culture and performance*. New York, NY: Free Press.

Kozlowski, S. W. J., Chao, Georogia T., Smith, E.eanor M., and Hedlund, Jennifer. (1993). Organizational downsizing: Strategies, interventions, and research implications. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 8*, 263-332.

Kunelius, R. (2001). Conversation: A metaphor and a method for better journalism? *Journalism Studies, 2(1),* 31-54.

Küng, L. (2008). Innovtion and creativity in the media industry: What? Where? How? In C. D. Zotto & H. v. Kranenburg (Eds.), *Management and innovation in the media industry* (pp. 3-13). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.

Larson, M. S. (1977). *The rise of professionalism: A sociological analysis.* Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Lin, C. A., & Jeffres, L. W. (1998). Factors influencing the adoption of multimedia cable technology. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 75(2),* 341-352.

Lowrey, W., & Anderson, W. (2005). The journalist behind the curtain: Participatory functions on the Internet and their impact on perceptions of the work of journalism. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 10*, 64-81.

Lowrey, W. (2006). Mapping the journalism–blogging relationship. *Journalism, 7(4),* 477-500.

Maier, S. R. (2000). Digital diffusion in newsrooms: The uneven advance of computer-assisted reporting. *Newspaper Research Journal, 21(2),* 95-110.

Martins, E. C., & Terblanche, F. (2003). Building organisational culture that stimulates creativity and innovation. *European Journal of Innovation Management,* 6(1), 64-74.

Massey, B. L., & Levy, M. L. (1999). Interactivity, online journalism, and English-language web newspapers in Asia. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 76(1),* 138-151.

McLean, L. D. (2005). Organizational culture's influence on creativity and innovation: A review of the literature and implications for human resource development. *Advances in Developing Human Resources, 7*(2), 226-246.

Mcluhan, M., & Nevitt, B. (1972). *Take today: The executive as dropout.* New York, NY: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

McQuail, D. (1983). *Mass communication theory* (1st ed.). London, UK: Sage Publications.

Meyer, H. K., & Daniels, G. L. (2012). Community journalism in an online world. In B. Reader & J. A. Hatcher (Eds.), *Foundations of community journalism.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Neuzil, M., Hansen, K., & Ward, J. (1999). Twin Cities journalists' assessment of topic teams. *Newspaper Research Journal, 20*(1), 126-144.

Nguyen, A. (2008). Facing "The Fabulous Monster": The traditional media's fear-driven innovation culture in the development of online news. *Journalism Studies, 9*(1), 91-104.

Niebauer Jr, W. E., Abbott, E., Corbin, L., & Neibergall, J. (2000). Computer adoption levels of Iowa dailies and weeklies. *Newspaper Research Journal, 21(2),* 84-94.

Nielson (2006). Consumer-generated media (CGM) 101: World-of-mouth in the age of the web-fortified consumer. Retrieved from http://www.nielsen-online.com/downloads/us/buzz/nbzm_wp_CGM101.pdf

Nielson (2012, April 10). Nielsen: Global consumers' trust in "earned" advertising grows in importance. Retrieved from http://www.nielsen.com/content/corporate/us/en/press-room/2012/nielsen-global-consumers-trust-in-earned-advertising-grows.html

Oney-Yazıcı, E., Giritli, H., Topcu-Oraz, G., & Acar, E. (2007). Organizational culture: The case of Turkish construction industry. *Engineering, Construction and Architectural Management, 14(6),* 519-531.

O'Reilly, C. (1989). Corporations, culture, and commitment: Motivation and social control in organizations. *California Management Review, 31*(4), 9-25.

Ornebring, H. (2008). The Consumer as producer – of what? *Journalism Studies, 9(5),* 771-785.

Ott, J. S. (1989). *The organizational culture perspective*. Chicago, Illinois: Dorsey Press.

Paulussen, S. (2004). Online news production in Flanders: How Flemish online journalists perceive and explore the Internet's potential. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 9*(4). Retrieved from http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com.proxy-remote.galib.uga.edu/doi/10.1111/j.1083-6101.2004.tb00300.x/full

Paulussen, S., Heinonen, A., Domingo, D., & Quandt, T. (2007). Doing it together: Citizen participation in the professional news making process. *Observatorio (OBS*) Journal, 3,* 131-154.

Paulussen, S., & Ugille, P. (2008). User generated content in the newsroom: Professional and organisational constraints on participatory journalism. *Westminster Papers in Communication and Culture, 5(2),* 24-41.

Paulussen, S. (2011). Inside the newsroom: Journalists' motivations and organizational structures. In J. B. Singer, A. Hermida, D. Domingo, A. Heinonen, S. Paulussen, T. Quandt, Z. Reich & M. Vujnovic (Eds.), *Participatory journalism: Guarding open gates at online newspapers* (1st ed., pp. 59-75). Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.

Pavlik, J. (2000). The impact of technology on journalism. *Journalism Studies, 1(2),* 229-237.

Pound, R. (1953). *The lawyer from antiquity to modern times*: *A survey of the legal profession under the auspices of the American Bar Association.* St. Paul, MN: West Publishing Co.

Powell, W. W., Koput, K. W., & Smith-Doerr, L. (1996). Interorganizational collaboration and the locus of innovation: Networks of learning in biotechnology. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 41*(1), 116-145.

Rebillard, F., & Touboul, A. (2010). Promises unfulfilled? Journalism 2.0', user participation and editorial policy on newspaper websites. *Media, Culture & Society, 32(2),* 323-334.

Ritzer, G., & Trice, H. M. (1969). An empirical study of Howard Becker's side-bet theory. *Social Forces, 47,* 475–479.

Rogers, E. (1995). *Diffusion of innovations* (4th ed.). New York, NY: The Free Press.

Russial, J. T. (1997). Topic-team performance: A content study. *Newspaper Research Journal, 18*(1/2), 126-144.

Ryfe, D. M. (2009). Broader and deeper: A study of newsroom culture in a time of change. *Journalism, 10(2),* 197-216.

Qing, Q., & Hollifield, C.A. (2011, May). *Adopting the news prosumer: User-generated content as a strategic resource for local news media.* Paper presented at 2011 annual conference of the International Communication Association (ICA), Boston, MA.

Saksena, S., & Hollifield, C. A. (2002). U.S. newspapers and the development of online editions. *The International Journal on Media Management, 4*(2), 75-84.

Schein, E. H. (1996). Culture: The missing concept in organization studies. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 41*(2), 229-240.

Schein, E. H. (2010). *Organizational culture and leadership* (4th ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Scholz, C. (1987). Corporate culture and strategy – The problem of strategic fit. *Long Range Planning, 20(4),* 78-87.

Schwartz, S. H. (1978). Inner-directed and other-directed values of professional journalists. *Journalism Quarterly, 55(4),* 721-754.

Shao, G. (2009). Understanding the appeal of user-generated media: a uses and gratification perspective. *Internet Research, 19(1),* 7-25.

Shoemaker, P. J. (1991). *Gatekeeping*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Shoemaker, P. J. (1996). Media gatekeeping. In M. B. Salwen & D. W. Stacks (Eds.), *An integrated approach to communication theory and research* (pp. 79-91). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Shoemaker, P. J., & Reese, S. D. (1996). *Mediating the message: Theories of influences on mass media content* (2nd ed.). White Plains, NY: Longman.

Shurbagi, A. M. A., & Zahari, I. B. (2013). The relationship between transformational leadership and organizational culture in national oil corporation of Libya. *International Journal of Business Administration, 4(4)*, 26-34.

Singer, J. B. (2004). Strange bedfellows? The diffusion of convergence in four news organizations. *Journalism Studies, 5*(1), 3-18.

Singer, J., B. (2005). The political j-blogger: 'Normalizing' a new media form to fit old norms and practices. *Journalism, 6*(2), 173-198.

Singer, J. B., & Ashman, I. (2009). "Comment is free, but facts are sacred": User-generated content and ethical constructs at the "Guardian." *Journal of Mass Media Ethics, 24*(1), 3-21.

Smith , M. E. (2003). Changing an organisation's culture: Correlates of success and failure. *Leadership and Organisation Development Journal, 24(5),* 249-261.

Soloski, J. (1989). News reporting and professionalism: Some constraints on the reporting of the news. *Media, Culture & Society, 11*(2), 207-228.

Swan, J., & Scarbrough, H. (2005). The politics of networked innovation. *Human Relations, 58*(7), 913-943.

The Society of Professional Journalists. (n.d.). SPJ code of ethics. Retrieved from http://www.spj.org/ethicscode.asp

Thurman, N. (2008). Forums for citizen journalists? Adoption of user generated content initiatives by online news media. *New Media & Society, 10(1),* 139-157.

Toffler, A. (1970). *Future shock*. New York, NY: Random House.

Trice, H. M., & Beyer, J. M. (1993). *The cultures of work organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Turner, F. (2006). *From counterculture to cyberculture: Stewart Brand, the Whole Earth Network, and the rise of digital utopianism*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Valencia, J. C. N., Valle, R. S., & Jiménez, D. J. (2010). Organizational culture as determinant of product innovation. *European Journal of Innovation Management, 13(4)*, 466-480.

Wang, C. L., & Ahmed, P. K. (2004). The development and validation of the organisational innovativeness construct using confirmatory factor analysis. *European Journal of Innovation Management, 7(4)*, 303-313.

Wang, S., Guidice, R. M., Tansky, J. W., & Wang, Z. M. (2010). When R&D spending is not enough: The critical role of culture when you really want to innovate. *Human Resource Management, 49*(4), 767-792.

Watson, R. T., Boudreau, M., Greiner, M., Wynn, D., York, P. Gul, R. (2005). Governance and global communities. *Journal of International Management, 11,* 125-142.

Weaver, D. H., & Wilhoit, G. C. (1996). *The American journalist in the 1990s: U.S. news people at the end of an era.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

William Randolph Hearst Foundation. (n.d.). General information about The Hearst Journalism Awards Program. Retrieved from http://www.hearstfdn.org/hearst_journalism/about.php

Wimmer, R. D., & Dominick, J. R. (2006). *Mass media research: An introduction.* Belmont, CA: Thomson Wadsworth.

Wunsch-Vincent, S., & Vickery, G. (2007). Participative web: User-created content. Retrieved from http://www.oecd.org/sti/38393115.pdf

Wurff, R. V. d., & Leenders, M. (2008). Media organizational culture and innovative performance. In C. D. Zotto & H. V. Kranenburg (Eds.), *Management and innovation in the media industry* (pp. 151-171). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.

Yılmaz, D., & Kılıçoğlu, G. (2013). Resistance to change and ways of reducing resistance in educational organizations. *European Journal of Research on Education, 1(1),* 14-21.

Zahari, I. B., & Shurbagi, A. M. A. (2012). The effect of organizational culture and the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction in petroleum sector of Libya. *International Business Research, 5(9),* 89-97.

Zelizer, B. (2004). *Taking journalism seriously: News and the academy.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

APPENDIX A

CULTURE SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Invitation letter

Dear Sir or Madam:

I am a doctoral student under the direction of Dr. Ann Hollifield in the Grady College of Journalism and Mass communication at The University of Georgia. I invite you to participate in a research study entitled **The Relationships among Organizational Culture, Professional Culture of Journalism, and Traditional News Organizations' Adoption of User-generated Content in the U.S.** The purpose of this study is to examine how cultures in organizations can influence their innovative performance in the new media environment.

You will be asked to complete a survey questionnaire about some major characteristics of your organization, the culture of your organization, your professional values of journalism, and journalists' use of user-generated content in your organization. In this study, user-generated content is defined as "the content created and submitted to a traditional news organization by consumers or users who work outside the organization such as user comments, user blogs, and user-submitted pictures". It should only take 10 -15 minutes of your time depending on whether or not your organization has adopted user- generated content. You are invited to participate in the

study because you have both journalism and management experience and therefore can answer the relevant questions well. Your contact information was obtained from newsblues.com and Editor & Publisher Data book.

Your involvement in the study is voluntary, and you may choose not to participate or to stop at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Internet communications are insecure and there is a limit to the confidentiality that can be guaranteed due to the technology itself. However, once the materials are received by the researcher, standard confidentiality procedures will be employed. Researchers are the only people who have access to the data and a password will be used to protect the data file. The database will be deleted after the study is completed. In addition, the results of the research study may be published, but your name will not be used. In fact, the published results will be presented in summary form only. Your identity will not be associated with your responses in any published format.

The findings from this project may provide information on how organizational and professional values influence organizational responses to changing conditions in news media organizations. There are no known risks or discomforts associated with this research.

If you have any questions about this research project, please feel free to call me at (269) 903-6416 or send an e-mail to q5qing@uga.edu. You can also contact my dissertation advisor Dr. Ann Hollifield by email (annholli@uga.edu) or by phone (706-542-4966). Questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant should be directed to The Chairperson, University of Georgia Institutional Review Board, 629 Boyd GSRC, Athens, Georgia 30602; telephone (706) 542-3199; email address irb@uga.edu.

By completing this questionnaire provided, you are agreeing to participate in the above described research project.

Thank you for your consideration and I hope you will enjoy taking the survey to share your points of view with me!

Sincerely,

Qingmei Qing

Dr. Ann Hollifield

The Grady College of Journalism and Mass Communication

The University of Georgia

Would you like to participate in the study and get a copy of the results?

A. Yes, I would like to participate in the study. And please email me a copy of the study results. My preferred email is:_____

B. Yes, I would. However, I don't need a copy of the study results.

C. No, I would not. But I would like a copy of the results by email. My preferred email is:_____

D. No, I would not. And I am not interested in getting a copy of the results.

Part 1. User-generated content (UGC)

1. Do you have user-generated content on the website of your news organization?

A. Yes

B. No. Please list the reason(s) for not adopting user-generated content on the line below.

A. Hurt news credibility; B. Hurt journalists' professionalism; C. Give extra work to journalists; D. Journalists are reluctant to use it in their news production; E. No sufficient money for the necessary technologies; F. No enough staff for managing it; G. Other reasons (Please provide more details on the line below); H. Don't know

_____

_____

If "No" Is Selected, Then Skip To Question 17.

2. What are the main driving factors for your news organization to use user-generated content (select all that apply)

1. Improve news quality (e.g., extend the breadth and depth of news coverage)
2. Attract more
3. Save cost
4. Lack of resources
5. Afraid of being left behind by competitors
6. Learn about customers' needs and expectations
7. Create a positive image for your organization
8. Differentiate media products
9. Customers' suggestions
10. Other reason(s); please give the reason(s) in the box blow_____

_____

_____

11. Don't know

3. Please tell which elements have been added to the website of your organization AND tell approximately HOW LONG your organization has used them.

	Haven't adopted it	1-2 years ago	3-4 years ago	5-6 years ago	7-8 years ago	9-10 years ago	11-12 years ago	13-14 years ago and earlier	Don't know
1. "Comments on news stories" has been used since									
2. "Regularly-produced blogs by non-employees" has been used since									
3. "User blogs" has been used since									
4."User-submitted pictures" has been used since									

5."User-submitted audio" has been used since									
6. "User- submitted video" has been used since									
7. "User-submitted news articles" has been used since									
8. "User-submitted video packages (news reporting)" has been used since									
9. "Online forums" has been used since									
10. "RSS" has been used since									
11. "Twitter" has been used since									
12. "Facebook" has been used since									

For the following statements (Question 4-14), please indicate if you strongly disagree, disagree, somewhat disagree, neither agree nor disagree, somewhat agree, agree, or strongly agree.

4. User generated content on the website of my organization contains more entertainment elements than information/news elements.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

5. There is more user generated content (UGC) relating to users' everyday lives (e.g., family pictures) than UGC in the public domain (e.g., political and social issues) on the website of my organization.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

6. ALL the user-generated content on the website of my organization is moderated by professional staff (employees).

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

7. News directors/ editors have a clear vision or a specific goal regarding how to use user generated content in news production.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

8. Either audience or market research was conducted before your organization adopted user generated content.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

9. Newsroom leaders have been giving ongoing support (such as encouragement, guidance, and feedback) in the process of integrating user generated content in journalists' news production.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

10. News managers/editors made specific rules for journalists in terms of integrating user generated content into their news stories or assignments.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

11. User generated content improves the news quality of your organization.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

12. Using user generated content helps your organization become more competitive in your market.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

13. There is an increase in circulation/viewership since your organization started adopting user generated content.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

14. Using user generated content adds complexity to journalists' work (e.g., takes more time to report or produce; needs more verification).

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

15. On average, how often do your journalists use user generated content in the news production process?

Never	Less than Once a Month	Once a Month	2-3 Times a Month	Once a Week	2-3 Times a Week	Daily	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

16. How likely is it that your news organization will provide more user generated content functions online to the users in the future?

Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Undecided	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Very Likely	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

Part 2. Please tell me a little about your organization. Instructions: The part consists of four questions. Each question has four alternatives. Please make sure you CAREFULLY read each of the statements below before you rate them respectively.

17. Climate

A. My organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

B. My organization is a very dynamic entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

C. My organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

D. My organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

18. Style.

A. The management style in my organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

B. The management style in my organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

C. The management style in my organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

D. The management style in my organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

19. Strategies

A. My organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

B. My organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

C. My organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

D. My organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

20. Outcomes

A. My organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

B. My organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

C. My organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

D. My organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

Part 2. Please tell me a little about your organization. Instructions: The part consists of four questions. Each question has four alternatives. Please make sure you CAREFULLY read each of the statements below before you rate them respectively.

Part 3. Organizational characteristics

21. There is effective communication between journalists and newsroom directors/ editors regarding news tasks.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

22. Sufficient technology investment has been made in the last five years in the organization.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

23. Necessary training on how to use new media and internet technologies in journalists' work is offered on a regular-basis.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

24. How many employees are there in your newsroom totally? _____

25. The newsroom is _____ structured.

1. Team (independent teams covering different topic areas)
2. Centralization-based (Regular)
3. No answer

26. Newsroom leaders have good personal networks with their peers working in other news organizations.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

27. Approximately how many years ago was your organization established? _____

Part 4. Professional culture of journalism

For the following statements (Question 28-29), please indicate how important you think it is, ranging from not at all important to extremely important.

28. Journalist's role to concentrate on producing news that will attract the widest possible audience is:_____

Not at all Important	Very Unimportant	Somewhat Unimportant	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Somewhat Important	Very Important	Extremely Important	Don't know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

29. Journalist's role to motivate people to participate in civic activity and political discussion is:_____

Not at all Important	Very Unimportant	Somewhat Unimportant	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Somewhat Important	Very Important	Extremely Important	Don't know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

30. I make claims (in news production) only if they are substantiated by hard evidence and reliable sources:_____

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

31. I provide analysis of events and issues in my work (news production):_____

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

32. What is ethical in journalism varies from one situation to another:_____

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

33. There are ethical principles which are so important that they should be followed by all journalists, regardless of situation and context:_____

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

34. What level of degree in journalism or related field do you hold:_____

1. None 2. Two-year college degree 3. Bachelor degree 4. Master's degree 5. Ph.D. degree 6.Other education or training. Please specify:_____

35. How many years have you worked in your current position? _____

36. How many years have you worked in the news media industry? _____

37. How often do you read professional magazines or other sources (online journals, blogs, and websites) that report on or about journalism and news media?

1. Never 2. Less than once a month 3. Once a month 4. 2-3 times a month 5. Once a week 6. 2-3 times a week 7. Daily

38. How often if at all do you participate in the activities organized by the professional journalism associations of which you are a member?

1. No membership with any professional association; 2. Has membership but never participate in any activities; 3. Less than once a year 4. Once a year 5. A few times a year 6. Once a month 7. A few times a month

39. Journalists in my organization fully enjoy the professional autonomy in their work process.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

40. My organization prioritizes professional journalism values over organization interests when there is a conflict between the two?

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't; know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

Part 5. Personal information

41. Please give the full name of your news organization:_____

42. (A).What is the Nielsen DMA rank of your station (for television stations)?

A. 1-25
B. 26-50
C. 51-100
D. 101-150
E. 151-210

(B).What is your newspaper circulation (for newspapers)?

A. 0-25,000
B. 25,001-50,000
C. 50,001-75,000
D. 75,001-100,000
E. Above 100,001

43. Your currently work in your news organization as:
    1. A news manager
    2. An editor or a producer
    3. A reporter
    4. A videographer or a photographer
    5. Others. Please specify:_____

44. What is your age?
    1. 18-25
    2. 26-35
    3. 36-45
    4. 46-55
    5. 56-65
    6. Above 65

45. What is your gender?
    1. Male
    2. Female

APPENDIX B

RECRUITMENT EMAILS

1. **The first email:**

Dear Colleague:

I am writing to ask your help with a research project designed to assist newspaper editors and news directors of television stations more successfully deal with the disruptive changes we are facing in the industry. As thanks, I will send you the results of the study when it is completed if you need.

Specifically, I am studying the conditions in news organizations that help and hinder a newsroom's ability to quickly seize opportunities. The goal of my work is to help news executives such as yourself identify the subtle factors that make some organizations and groups more innovative than others.

This study is part of my dissertation research, which is being conducted under the direction of Dr. Ann Hollifield in the Grady College of Journalism and Mass communication at The University of Georgia. The link below will take you to a short survey that should take only 10-15 minutes of your time. Full details about my research and additional information also are available through the link.

If you have any questions, please contact me directly at: q5qing@uga.edu

Many thanks for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Qingmei Qing

Ph.D. Candidate

Grady College of Journalism and Mass communication

The University of Georgia

2. The second email (the first reminding email):

Dear Colleague:

I am writing to ask that you consider completing the survey I sent to you a week ago. I understand that you are extremely busy, but I would be very grateful for your help with my dissertation research.

I understand that you may have some concerns about whether this is a legitimate study – that is, whether it is research for scientific purposes. I assure you that it is, and so that you may learn more about my work, I am attaching a link to a news story at a University of Georgia web site about some of my previous research.

http://www.grady.uga.edu/coxcenter/activities/Act_2009_to_2010/Act0910_4.php

Additionally, if you have questions about the research, please feel free to contact my dissertation adviser, Dr. Ann Hollifield, Head of the Department of Telecommunications, Univeristy of Georgia, at (706) 542-4966 or annholli@uga.edu.

If because of your schedule you need to pause while completing the survey, that is not a problem. The survey software will save your answers and resume where you left off when you are able to return it. The survey should take you only 10-15 minutes to complete. All answers are strictly confidential and only the aggregated results from all respondents will be reported.

Many thanks again for your time and consideration,

Respectfully,

Qingmei

Qingmei Qing, Ph.D. Candidate

Grady College of Journalism and Mass communication

The University of Georgia

P.S. : I got my Master's Degree in Communication Studies from Western Michigan University in 2007; I am currently completing my Ph.D. Degree in Mass Communication at the University of Georgia; my research concentration is media management.

3.The third email (The second reminding email):

Dear Colleague:

I am writing to ask you again to consider taking the survey I sent you a few weeks ago. I understand that you have a very busy schedule, but I would very much appreciate your help with my dissertation research with a deadline drawing near.

Again, I assure you that the study is a legitimate one. It should take you only 10-15 minutes to finish. All answers are strictly confidential and only the aggregated results from all respondents will be reported.

If you have questions about the research, please feel free to contact my dissertation adviser, Dr. Ann Hollifield, Head of the Department of Telecommunications, University of Georgia, at (706) 542-4966 or annholli@uga.edu.

In order for you to learn more about my work, I am attaching a link to a news story at a University of Georgia web site about some of my previous research.

http://www.grady.uga.edu/coxcenter/activities/Act_2009_to_2010/Act0910_4.php

Many thanks again for your time,

Respectfully,

Qingmei

Qingmei Qing, Ph.D. Candidate

Grady College of Journalism and Mass communication

The University of Georgia

P.S. : I got my Master's Degree in Communication Studies from Western Michigan University in 2007; I am currently completing my Ph.D. Degree in Mass Communication at the University of Georgia; my research concentration is media management.

4.The fourth email (The third reminding email):

Dear Colleague:

I am a student member of RTDNA and writing to ask you again to consider taking the survey I sent you in October. I would be very grateful for your help with my dissertation research. I know you are very busy, but the survey should take only 10 -15 minutes to finish.

I understand that you may not be able to answer all the questions. But please do you best to complete the questionnaire and select "Don't know" for those questions for which you really have no idea. For those questions related to management, please answer them based on how you manage your newsroom.

I promise again that all answers are strictly confidential and only the aggregated results from all respondents will be reported. If you have questions about the research, please feel free to contact my dissertation adviser, Dr. Ann Hollifield, Head of the Department of Telecommunications, University of Georgia, at (706) 542-4966 or annholli@uga.edu.

By the way, in order for you to learn more about my work, I am attaching a link to a news story at a University of Georgia web site about some of my previous research.

http://www.grady.uga.edu/coxcenter/activities/Act_2009_to_2010/Act0910_4.php

Many thanks again for your time,

Respectfully,

Qingmei

Qingmei Qing, Ph.D. Candidate

Grady College of Journalism and Mass communication

The University of Georgia

P.S. : I got my Master's Degree in Communication Studies from Western Michigan University in 2007; I am currently completing my Ph.D. Degree in Mass Communication at the University of Georgia; my research concentration is media management.

5.The fifth email (The fourth reminding email):

Dear Colleague:

I am writing to ask you again to consider taking the survey I sent you in September. I understand you are very busy, but the survey should take only 10 -15 minutes to finish.

The deadline to complete my dissertation is drawing near and the holidays are coming soon. I will have difficulty continuing my study without your help and, I will be happy to send you the study results, if you would be interested. I would be very grateful, if you were able to complete my brief online survey by Thanksgiving.

I promise again that all answers are strictly confidential and only the aggregated results from all respondents will be reported. If you have questions about the research, please feel free to contact my dissertation adviser, Dr. Ann Hollifield, Head of the Department of Telecommunications, University of Georgia, at (706) 542-4966 or annholli@uga.edu.

By the way, in order for you to learn more about my work, I am attaching a link to a news story at a University of Georgia web site about some of my previous research.

http://www.grady.uga.edu/coxcenter/activities/Act_2009_to_2010/Act0910_4.php

Many thanks again for your time,

Respectfully,

Qingmei

Qingmei Qing, Ph.D. Candidate

Grady College of Journalism and Mass communication

The University of Georgia

6. The American Society of News Editors (ASNE) electronic weekly newsletter (Dec 12, 2014, Thursday)

Mass communication doctoral candidate needs your help

Qingmei Qing, a mass communication doctoral candidate at the Henry W. Grady College of Journalism and Mass Communication at the University of Georgia, is nearing completion of her dissertation with research concentration on media management.

For her research on what conditions in news organizations might help and hinder a newsroom's ability to quickly seize opportunities, Qing needs your generous help with filling out this survey available here. In the survey, you will be asked to answer questions about major

characteristics and the culture of your organization, your professional values of journalism, and journalists' use of user-generated content in your organization.

"The goal of my work is to help news executives identify subtle factors that make some organizations and groups more innovative than others," Qing wrote.

Hope you can contribute a few minutes of your time and help Qing finish her dissertation!