TITLE: The impact of Web 2.0 and social media on journalism: A case study of contemporary Greek journalism

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ABSTRACT

It is commonly accepted that, nowadays, we are in the middle of digital revolution that directly affects the media. At the center of this revolution is the rise of new technologies and social media, transforming the journalist routine. As a result, media organizations and journalists are transforming too, in order to follow the changes happening in the social, cultural and technological environment (Alejandro, 2010).

In this dissertation, we will examine these sweeping changes, focusing on the Greek contemporary journalism. Following calls for better understanding of the complexity of journalism, in line with our “fluid cultures” and societies (Craft et al. 2014; Heinrich 2011), we will conceptualize the journalism culture as proposed by Hanitzsch (2007), so as to explore the new contemporary Greek Journalism.

In addition, our study is concerned with the ways in which Greek journalists are integrating the new technologies, not only in their daily routines, but also in the way they perceive their own roles, skills and values.

This qualitative study is based on the Worlds of Journalism Study (WJS), with focuses on the role of the Greek journalists, perceived influences and editorial autonomy. This new kind of freedom they acknowledge is a result of the capabilities that the new, digital and social media offer to journalists in particular, and all people in general, so as to express their views in a more direct way.
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CHAPTER 1 : INTRODUCTION

Journalism and news are “in a state of flux” nowadays, especially under the current influence of technology (Spyridou, Matsiola, Veglis, Kalliris & Dimoulas, 2013). Journalism practices shift towards more collaborative models of news reporting and verification, turning journalists from powerful investigators into news workers and curators (Chadwick and Collister 2014; Hermida 2012). As Alfred Hermida (2012) explains, source materials increasingly enter newsgathering and production processes in the form of “unstructured data, coming in fragments of raw, unprocessed journalism from both professionals and the public.”

The aim of the current dissertation is, through focusing on Greek journalists, to analyze how social media and Web 2.0 change the way news is gathered, reported, consumed and distributed as well as what this means for the future of news and journalism in Greece. This paper will focus especially on contextualizing the Greek Crisis and the media environment in Greece. Moreover, the study will attempt to investigate the impact of new technologies and investigate to what extent Greek journalists have incorporated them into their work. The present study attempts to fill a gap in previous research, and it will try to emphasize the current changes in the journalistic field in Greece.

In the first Chapter the focus is on blogs, social networking sites and Twitter, and their potential and how they can be exploited journalistically. We also define the Web 2.0, which promotes human communication, and Web 3.0, which enables co-operation (Fuchs et al, 2010). Generally, this essay explores the use of social media in media organization and endeavours to determine its value to journalism. Furthermore, this essay highlights on the future of traditional media in the Web 2.0 era and the new role of public, i.e. from “passive a observer to an active participator in the construction of news” (Atton, 2002), creating a new form of journalism, named “participatory journalism”. The second chapter will examine the transformative character of journalism drawing on the journalism culture theory proposed by Thomas Hanitzsch (2007), and focusing on Greek journalism culture.

The third chapter includes the methodology part, in which there is detailed description of the research approach, the research design and finally the sample and data collection. By use of the Worlds of Journalism study, the present study attempts
to outline certain characteristics that define the journalism culture within which journalist carry out their daily work and activities. Founded on the Worlds of Journalism Study (WJS), “an academically driven project that was founded to regularly assess the state of journalism throughout the world” (http://www.worldsofjournalism.org). Only professional journalists working for the news media were involved in this research. The Worlds of Journalism study will help us to understand the current professional challenges and transformations as perceived by the journalists in Greece and to contribute to a large gap in the relevant literature review.

The survey is based on five themes:

**a. Journalistic roles** (articulate journalism’s identity and position vis-à-vis society and broader public expectations),

**b. Journalistic ethic** (regarding journalists’ reporting practices, which hark back to a broader social consensus about what is generally believed to be morally desired and justifiable practice),

**c. Journalistic trust** (tells a story about journalism’s relationship with social institutions, as journalists act as intermediaries between institutions and the public),

**d. Perceived influences** (refer to journalists’ individual perceptions of the various forces that shape the process of news production)

and

**e. Editorial autonomy** (is conceptualized as the self-perceived latitude journalists have in carrying out their occupational duties) (http://www.worldsofjournalism.org).

In this dissertation will focus on journalistic roles, perceived influences and editorial autonomy. The quantitative data analysis will be made on the statistical software SPSS program 23. Finally, the last section summarises the dissertation and provides a set of future research directions.
LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1 SOCIAL MEDIA

Social media is a difficult term to define, because it can allude to an activity, a software tool, or a platform. According to Donath (2004) social media is not a new element, but there is traces of sociable media back thousands of years, with the advent of letter writing. Donath recognizes that new communication technologies have promoted the emergence of new forms of media designed to enhance communication and the formation of social ties. In 2004 Donath was prophetic in writing that “we are rapidly approaching the time when, for millions of people, mediated sociability will be with them at all times, no matter where they are or what they are doing” (2004: 631).

The convergence of social interaction and digital media is often associated with Web 2.0. Tim O’Reilly (2005), the inventor of Internet, used the term Web 2.0 to refer to the development of the World Wide Web as an architecture that empowers dynamic interactions on the web, facilitating the creation, dissemination, and sharing of digital content. Additionally, he describes Web 2.0 as a platform that enables people to participate in the production, shaping, and distribution of news and information, rather than to be just passive consumers. Tapscott and Williams suggest that this “new is principally about participating rather than about passively receiving information” (Tapscott and Williams, 2006: 37).

The uniqueness of social media is not only the active media user, but also that “new media technologies now enable vastly more users to experiment with a wider and seemingly more varied range of collaborative creative activities” (Harrison and Barthel, 2009 : 174). In an attempt to define social media could be said that it is a group that includes new kinds of online instruments, which share the following characteristics: participation, openness, conversation, community, and connectivity (Hermida 2011: 311).

Social media in the era of Web 2.0 facilitate individuals, geographically dispersed, to communicate with other people with common interests via the Internet without any central coordination. Tools and services they use to connect with other people range from blogs, wikis, podcasts, forums, content communities, microblogging, media sharing services, and social networking sites. Kaplan and Haenlein define social media...
as “a group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0, and that allow the creation and exchange of user-generated content” (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010: 61).

It is vital to understand the effects of social media, rather than comprehend what social media is. According to Hardey “Web 2.0 is inherently social so that users are central to both the content and form of all material and resources” (Hardey, 2007: 870). Social media platforms give users space to share content such as status updates, links, photos, and videos, providing a mix of news, information, and comment, related to current reality, contributing to what Hermida (2010a, 2010b) has described as ambient journalism. Ambient journalism refers to a type of journalism, which is fragmented, ubiquitous, and media experiences are shaped both from professional journalists and non-professionals user (Hermida, 2011).

Blogs was the first social media, which preoccupied journalism with questions relating to their future and diversify of their values. The original formula of today's bloggers, were links with some commentary, which renewed often (Allan 2006). The blogs were essentially websites frequent renewal, suspension of which are placed in reverse chronological order, in a manner such that each post to lie at top (Blood 2003). The aim of their form was maintained by the logic of continuity, the alert for updates and the archiving for future reference. Motive power of blogs is to use one of the four key features of Internet information, hypertext, while are powered through the commentary. Briefly their existence bounded around five pillars: the genre, their topics, links (hypertext), the commentary and the traceability of these (Mayfield 2008).

In general, blogs link to other websites and blog postings, allowing readers to comment on the original post and discuss with other readers (Gillmor, 2006:29). Blogging is interactive activity and the network of people, who read and comment on each other’s blogs, are widely- known as the blogosphere. Cooper emphasizes that (2006:17-20) the blogosphere is a source of criticism for journalism, with bloggers using this platform to comment on, and express their opinions on the articles in the press.

Blogging has furthermore impacted on journalism, because nowadays the public increasingly performing ‘random acts of journalism’, having witnessed an event and
writing about it on a blog (Goldfain & Van der Merwe, 2006:105). The political interest and involvement of blogs with journalism, comes after the events of September 11, whenever there is a significant rise in readership, at least in the USA. The numbers listed in the survey «One year later: September 11 and the Internet» shows the trend for information from them, with remarkable increase and their dynamic in crisis situations (Allan, 2006, Rainie et al., 2002). Therefore, was created the phenomenon «war blogs» or «current event blogs», which were dealing with current events (breaking news) (Gill, 2004). Already next year the traditional media begin to deal with blogs, while in February 2002, Google bought the provider of Blogger, marking thus a new era, where their importance raised - both technologically terms and in terms towards disintermediation. The most important point of all was however in 2003 when there was most massive information from blogs, so far, and it was a global focus on them (Gill, 2004).

In addition, journalists who work for mainstream media outlets, are also constitute part of the blogosphere by creating j-blogs – a cross between a column, a story and a journal (De Vries, 2008:6).

Social networking sites emerged around 1997 in Sixdegrees, but they became popular after 2002, whenever and appeared Friendster. Since then came and series of other, other more and other less known. The first that made global sensation was MySpace, while "revolution" in space of social networks came in 2004 with the advent of Facebook – and more precisely in 2006, when surpassed 'closely' geographical boundaries of the United States (Boyd & Ellison, 2008). At the same time appeared and other important social networks, but with a different texture. Characteristics examples, Linkedin, network professional profile that on the one hand addressed a larger public, on the other hand has a more "closed" approach, but also the widely known Youtube. In 2011 Facebook has managed to become the most important social network, dominating in this area - 92% of users have their account to this (Holcomb et al., 2011). As reported by Momberg social networking has vital value in modern-day journalism and also gives media organizations important marketing and promoting possibilities. ‘It is even more important in online journalism where a story is never finished – it is more of a process – so new updates/tips are valuable to keep the story going’ (Momberg, 2009c).
According to Reece (2009b), social networking is useful to journalists as a source of news and information. Constant feedback from the audience through these networks, with interactive functions is a blessing to journalism (Reece, 2009b). Fairweather (2009) agree that social networks ‘are excelling for in-depth research on what ordinary people feel and think.’

Moses furthermore believes that social media is essential in journalism, but instead of using it as a tool for sourcing news and information she thinks are important tools for disseminate the news: ‘People want information in short, sharp bursts – and as quickly as possible’ (Moses, 2009). To explain this, she uses the typically instance of a journalist reporting on a court case via Twitter, while the court is still in progress ‘The user gets up-to-date info without having to wait’ (Moses, 2009).

To define social networks according to Boyd and Ellison they are web-based services that allow individuals to construct a public of semipublic profile within a bounded system, articulate a list of other users with whom they share a connection, and view and traverse their list of connections and those made by others within the system” (Boyd & Ellison, 2008). Social networks in their entirety using the same idea technologically developed, however each in a different basis. While namely technological features are fairly consistent, the cultures involved in these, vary. The basis constitutes of the configuration profile of an individual (public or semi-public) and his interconnection with a list of humans. Whether known by the real world or unknown but with same interests (Mayfield 2008). The whole practice of these networks is focused through the logic of "sharing" - the "friends" on social networks exchange their comments, messages, photos and videos (Boyd 2008). Equally important is the culture that has developed around of various additives, such as the «like button» on Facebook. Surveys have shown that the so-called «Like Economy» has practical relevance in the web dissemination but also in shaping the social web against information web (Gerlitz, 2011). The difference of websites in relation to social networks is that the former focus on communities of interest, while the second to individuals, as personalities. However, the grouping is typical and social networks, as people organized into groups according to their preferences (Boyd 2008). It is even suggested that their spectacular success lies in working and direct manner in which the information is diffused in a network of people with common interests or goals (The Economist, 2010).
What is interesting is that social networks have managed to emerge as political tool. The campaign of the president of the United States, Barack Obama, 2008, exemplifies the widespread and successful use for political purposes. Thus, the Facebook page counted more than two million supporters while the video channel on YouTube, viewed more than 18 million users. The practical, it is interesting that much of the $600 million obtained by the pre-electoral campaign came from small donations through the web (Kaid 2009). In addition, social networks are vital for media companies and journalists “in order to attract other members of the social network to their web site. They have also integrated social media links in their web articles in order for the users to link to them through their social network profiles” as notes Veglis (Veglis, 2012).

From journalistic point of view, it is interesting to investigate the trend of microblogging, main representative of which is Twitter, since it is the most popular representative. This tool, which made his appearance the 2006 succeeded in a short time to emerge as one of the major networks, be the dialog and to reverse the existing balance in the coverage of events. By combining blogging, the instant messaging (chat line) and the technical characteristics underlying social networks, raised new issues with respect to modern communication flow. The term "social alchemy" to follow from the beginning showed significant differences from the purely social networks and especially the Facebook: both in the nature of relations based on it, and the type of content (The Economist 2010).

Twitter belongs to social networks, however its distinguishable characteristics allow us to examine as a separate channel. As stated by Veglis “Twitter is a social networking and micro-blogging service that enables its users to send and read other users’ updates known as tweets” (Veglis, 2012). To micro-blogging appeared as the transformation could be said, of blogging. Essentially refers to posting updates, ideas or simple fast communications so that the user of the microblogging network may indicate his presence (McFedries, 2007). It was organized around three pillars: the sharing of information-reporting news, the information seeking and the development of friendly relations (daily chatter, conversations) (Java et al, 2007). From the first networks of this type was the «Jaiku» (Ebner & Schiefner, 2008), however "undisputed leader" of this service became Twitter (Mayfield, 2008).
The main functions of Twitter are based on a remarkably simple platform, however requires familiarity to the terms of it (eg tweets, followers, hashtag, dm, mention etc.). Twitter, follows the principle of "followers", which means that anyone can follow and be followed by everyone, provided that it is a profile public. The user's home page displayed «Tweets» (messages of 140 characters) of people following in reverse chronological order - similarly to the posts of blogs (Johnson, 2009). In conjunction with other social networks, of which "borrows" characteristics required here too, to have a profile and the structure is based in human relations and in the discussion that develops between individuals. The interest here is that the more profiles are not "locked" although there is this option. In a public profile can have each possibility of reading, without requiring the registration in the Twitter (Huberman et al. 2008). Furthermore, the profile on that network does not require notwithstanding little information (Kwak et al 2010).

A summary of the main characteristics of twitter would include (Mills et al. 2009): a) That is a free service.

b) Messages can be read (and be written) with access online - whether it is on the homepage of Twitter, either through mobile phones. Software Twitter API (Application Programming Interface) is what feeds the page the user sees the messages either people follow, whether they are based on a thematic.

c) Messages sent to mobile platform for Twitter (text messages) remain "dispatched" until be delivered - significant difference from the sms, which when there is no provision of mobile network phone, cannot be sent.

d) The use of «hashtag» (#) - it is a user agreement to include material searchable and metadata in each tweet.

e) The «summize» and «tweetscan» as useful search tools. The «Summize», for example, can be used as search engine by giving few keywords; each user can read the tweets that were written on the subject.

f) The characteristic of the «track», namely the detection. The user with the search of a word can receive real-time updates on the topic that interests them, from the entire tweeter sphere." It is particularly useful for those who want "filtered" information and
automatic updates. The use of this feature is very simple: just a message “track -
keyword” on twitter.com to instant message (IM) or SMS.

g) Users' messages of twitter are not limited to mere words, but often include images,
videos and more widely links to some website. The links they pass first through the
process of size reduction, through specialized websites, such as bit.ly, so they "fit" in
the prerequisite of 140 characters (Johnson, 2009).

One of the most interesting aspects of the use of Twitter regards news. Within the five
years of existence and especially recent years has emerged as an important addition to
the "toolbox" of both journalists and academics of journalism. Now over its use for the
disclosure of personal information or interpersonal communication, it began to be used
for a wide range of journalistic activities (Bruns & Burgess, 2011). The main
question-committee to which they replied that 140 characters were previously “What
are you doing?” and now replaced by “What's happening?” As an adaptation to the
synchronous operation of the instrument, as the field of interest he passed on the
personal activity in the recording of the external world (Dimitrakopoulou, 2011).

1.2 WEB 2.0 & WEB. 3.0

Web 2.0 is the second generation of the web, and also called the "read/write" web.
That is because the users transform from passive readers to active contributors of
content, which brings a new bi-directional relationship between them and the web.
(Aghaei & Nematbakhsh, 2012). O'reilly (2009) defines web 2.0 as “a set of social,
economic and technology trends that collectively form the basis for the next
generation of the internet – a more mature, distinct medium characterized by user
participation, openness and network effects.”

Web 3.0 consists of two main elements, which are semantic technologies and social
computing environment (Aghaei & Nematbakhsh, 2012).Another name for web 3.0 is
the Semantic Seb (Berners-Lee, Hendlers&Lassila, 2001), a term that was thought up
by Tim Berners-Lee, who is the father of the World Wide Web. Web 3.0 is based on
Ontology, which lays the foundation of the Semantic Web. This means that machines
are now able not only to read data, but to understand them as well (Taye, 2010).
According to The concept of the Semantic Web, explicit meaning must be assigned to information, so as to enable machines to process it intelligently (McIlraith, Plexousakis & van Harmelen, 2004).

In technological terms, Iskold & MacManus (2006) mentions that Web 3.0 involves the tagging of content on the Internet with computer code that will make finding documents “much faster and more precise than current techniques that rely on embedded links and searching for key words that appear in documents”. In the future, “even if links are not clicked and key words used in searches do not appear in documents, information will be delivered to users based on conceptual matching and profiling” stresses Macnamara (2010).
1.3 THE CHANGES IN JOURNALISM ENVIRONMENT

In the traditional understanding of journalism, the role of journalist and public is distinguishable. Journalists undertake to inform the public in order to strengthen democratic procedures. As part of the media information through certain channels, through which some positions act as gates messages. Individuals who control these gates and decide which messages are accepted and which are not are called “gatekeepers” (Serafetinidou, 1987).

The journalists as “gatekeepers” decide which current events are worth further investigation in order to present to the public, which events will provide news and what emphasis will be given to each event. This process of selection characterized as guarding the gate (gatekeeping) and describes a main journalistic task enhanced and maintained by professional routines and conventions of the profession (Domingo et al, 2008: 326). For this purpose, journalists identify the facts, collect information and record them in news format so as to provide information to the public (Sklavounhs, 1995).

In the past, the public was not playing a role in the production process of news, as journalists were performing the whole procedure, the data collection, the recording and writing and the publication (Nip, 2006: 216). Attributing, therefore to them the role of provider of information and traditionally attributed to the public the role of recipient (Singer et al, 2011: 35). During the last decades, however, the data is modulated afresh. Information and communication technologies have infiltrated all aspects of daily life. Naturally, the field of journalism is not an exception, as the use of new technological tools both by journalists and citizens cause significant changes in the news production process. With the arrival of internet is allowed communication many-to-many, which enriches shapes one-to-many and one-to-one, which in the past achieved with newspapers, radio, television, letters and phone. Furthermore, the way journalists carry out their tasks gradually altered and at the same time changed and the way of research, collection, processing and presentation of information. Kovac&Rosenthal (2001: 30) pointed out that in the digital age, where the information is freely available, the concept of journalism as one homogeneous entity seems rather weird.
At the same time, citizens now have access to the original information, acting not only as recipients but also as providers. They are available tools and applications that allow them to create content easily, quickly and inexpensively. Therefore, the public take different, more complex roles, exploiting the opportunities offered by the internet. In the contemporary experiences of media ecosystem power is redistributed and a non-linear communication model is now possible (Dimitrakopoulou, 2013). In journalistic landscape changes occur in the production process of news and grow new ways of coexistence with the public. Strict professional journalistic contexts expand and seek the participation of users, by approaching the model of “participatory journalism”.

As stated by Paulussen (2007) professional journalists will increasingly be obliged to share their control over the news production process and creation with their users, who are becoming more and more actively participants. This could result in increased use of user-generated content by journalists, but also it could stimulate collaboration between professional journalists and amateur users. In other words, journalism will essentially “shift from a top-down lecture to an open conversation”. The key words, which described now participatory journalism is the terms of conversation, moderation and collaboration (Deuze, 2003).

Another transformation on journalism considers the adoption of mobile phones as newsgathering and dissemination devices in developing nations. Across the globe a range of factors such as the prevailing political, economic and social conditions, and the technological infrastructure available influence the adoption of new technology. Wireless technologies, represented most pervasively by the mobile telephone, are therefore diffusing at different rates around the world. However, the speed of mobile phone adoption has outstripped that of other forms of communication technology so far, so that within the past decade “mobile telephony has moved from being the technology for a privileged few, to essentially a mainstream technology” (Castells, Fernandez-Ardevol, Qiu, & Sey, 2004).
**1.4 PARTICIPATORY JOURNALISM**

The idea of public participation in the production process of news is not novel. The first flakes already identified for centuries. However, the transition from the analog to the digital world, (the catalytic power of Internet and the use of new tools) led to the radical redefinition of the relationship between journalists and public. Already in the early 17th century in cafes and public centers of England and France, discussions mainly based traveler information, which they recorded their experiences in diaries and professionals printers gather travel narratives, political quarrels and news from public areas and print the first newspapers (Kovac & Rozenstil, 2004: 27). During the 17th and 18th century readers of newspapers send letters commenting on the articles and express their agreement or disagreement with them. A small percentage of letters published, always after the control of the editors. In the 19th century, newspapers seek a more direct contact with the community, to which they belong, leading many of them to convert part of offices in reading and public reception area. In that way created concentration homes and discussion among journalists and readers (Kovacs & Rozenstil, 2004: 175).

More recently, the news organizations have accepted a degree of participation as a value of journalism, through institutions such as ombudsmen of newspapers and representatives of readers. Japan and Sweden in the early 20th century, the US in the 1960s and then the Netherlands and the rest of Europe have adopted similar functions (Deuze, 2006: 72).

Since the early 1990s, many newspapers sought the involvement of readers through focus groups (focus groups) and surveys (polls). The issues put to the crisis mainly affecting the daily news, economic development and crime (Bowman & Willis, 2003: 9).

There are, however, criticism of both the practice of letters to the issuer and the effectiveness of the operation of intermediaries. Regarding the first case, Domingo & Heikkilä (2012: 273) argue that letters to the editor have slight effect on the exercise of journalism, since they lack an important counter weight, that of letter from the Publisher. Similar deficiencies detected and action intermediaries. Specifically, they find that while their role was to handle the complaints of readers and receive feedback
from them, substantially the ability to improve the practical difficulty it was very limited. This is one reason that in the course of such forms communication with the public languished. Due to the fact that letters that published were usually under close scrutiny before publication.

Apart from the previous space of forms, radio and television always have an ongoing discussion (a form of traditional journalism) with the public, which has the form of phone calls during discussions on radio and television broadcasts, short messages text (SMS) or poll (Gillmor, 2006: 194).

According to Nip (2006: 212-216), the involvement of citizens in the production process of news aimed to the movement of “citizen journalism”. The ultimate goal of the movement, which appeared in the USA the 1993, but was unsuccessful in this form at the time, it was the connection between journalism community and the strengthening of public debate.

Shayne Bowam and Chris Willis (2003) argue that the terms “citizen journalism” is used very often in the same manner as “participatory journalism” when referring to the “act of a citizen, or group of citizens, playing an active role in the process of collecting, reporting, analysing and disseminating news and information”. There is a wide range of synonyms used for “citizen journalism”, including "public journalism," "civic journalism," "stand-alone journalism," "networked journalism," "open source journalism," "crowd-sourced journalism," "collaborative journalism," "grassroots journalism," "community journalism," "bridge media" and so on. Each forms of journalism are related to "citizen journalism", but each one has unique characteristics. “All these terms refer to different acts” (Cohn, 2007).

Samantha Henig (2005) also attempted to distinguish this distinction in the Columbia Journalism Review: “The problem here is an unclear definition of what the New York Times called “participatory journalism, or civic or citizen journalism.” For starters, pick a name! As we see it, there are two separate things going on here. And, leapin’ lizards, at least two separate names at our disposal. First, there’s the move of established newspapers and news sites to solicit and publish material, such as photos or personal accounts, from their readers - - that we’d like to call ‘participatory
journalism’. Then there’s the creation of blogs and unedited news sites that allow users to write and post their own content. That one we’ll call “citizen journalism”.
1.5 THE IMPACT OF WEB 2.0 AND WEB 3.0 ON JOURNALISM

Significant differences in the relationship of journalists with the audience brought about by the spread of the Internet and the global prevalence of the World Wide Web. From the second half, especially in the late 20th century, newspapers have already presented their electronic versions and they begin to give place to readers, experimenting with various tools such as message boards and chat rooms. The journalism often followed by an e-mail address of the writer so readers can communicate with him, to point out any mistakes or omissions and as well as to make suggestions for further research. Consequently, the public is found gradually to a more equal relationship with the professionals journalists compared with that held in the traditional Media (Ward, 2002: 25).

With the adoption of new technologies, journalistic practice transformed. Readers, listeners and viewers become users and they are not only attending the flow of information, but they decide how to consume journalistic products, interact with other users, search and generate additional information (Singer et al, 2011: 35).

Apart from the developments in the Internet, however, the public participation in journalism is shaped by other factors. As rightly argues Moretzsohn (2006), is a mistake to think that technology alone can changed social relations. Conversely, social relationships and controversies shape instilling a new way to use technology. Besides the unlimited technological capacities, the conditions of economic and social environment pushing towards participation citizens in the production of news (Paulussen et al, 2007, Domingo et al, 2008, Turner, 2010).

In society there is mainly the perception that journalists fail to do properly their duty to promote and protect the public interest (Hirst, 2011: 15). Instead, it is common belief that media industries have developed close ties with business and advertising, losing contact with the public. Many people consider journalists as part of a corrupt system that serves economic and political interests. In the New York Times, they observe that the Greeks are losing their trust in mainstream media and politicians, assuming joint responsibility for the conditions that led to the bankruptcy of the country (Donadio, 2013).
Some events encourage user participation in news production to unprecedented scale. The first global example which reflects this change in journalism reveals the terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001 in New York. Then, from the first few minutes, users of Internet swarmed traditional news websites in order to inform. Many of these websites were blocked by the large volume of visitors. The citizens sought their information in a different direction and they turned to e-mail, blogs (blogs) and discussion forums. Traditional Means were found to lag behind annals of new media channels.

The first television pictures from attack came from video amateurs who were eyewitnesses of the event (García-Avilés, 2010: 253). In this model, the responsibility for collecting the material, the production and publication of news belongs to non professionals, who may be individuals, groups of citizens or non-governmental organizations that operate a news blog, a web, a radio station, or a newspaper (Nip, 2006: 218). The professionals are not involved at all, unless they are in available in response, but certainly not as paid workers.

With the prevalence of Web 2.0 users produce and distributing their own news-driven personal views and comments (Domingo et al, 2008: 331). As in any period of major change, observe the Kovac & Rozenstil (2004: 15), so now, the way receive news is passed through major transition. The ability to communicate many-to-many that did not exist earlier, incorporate the public in journalism as an information co-producer. The young people grow up most familiar with "digital Do it yourself world" as the integration of computers in everyday life increases constantly (Croteau, 2006: 341)

In the new digital ecosystem, according to Rosen (2008), "the people formerly known as the audience" use the tools they have in their possession to inform one another and this called “citizen journalism”. In citizen journalism the audience having available a lot of new sources become from “passive observer to active participator in the construction of news” (Atton, 2002), creating a new form of journalism. A new journalism more networked (Picard 2014) open, collaborative and interactive (Beckett and Mansell 2008; Newman, Dutton, and Blank 2012; Siapera, Papadopoulou, and Archontakis 2014). However, journalists tend to be reluctant to embrace citizens participation (Heinonen, 2011), even though they recognize the dialogical and participatory attributes of the internet (Hermida and Thurman, 2008).
networked journalism, journalists hesitate to surrender control (O’Sullivan, 2005; Singer and Gonzalez-Velez, 2003), have increased amount of work and difficulties in moderating and controlling user-generated content (Chung, 2007; Thurman, 2008), lack of required skills (Brannon, 2008; O’Sullivan, 2005) and “software familiarity” (Matsiola, 2008; Spyridou, 2009) and a rigorous professional culture rooted in established working routines and professional beliefs (Paulussen and Ugille, 2008; Ryfe, 2009).

In addition, this new form of journalism undermines the journalistic authority (Chadwick and Collister 2014; Hermida 2012) and the journalistic ideals like “impartiality”, “objectivity”, “distinction between fact and opinion” (Deuze and Paulussen 2002; Kawamoto 2003; Quinn and Quinn-Allan 2005). In addition, in the new digital journalism have appeared the so-called “copy-paste” culture and the cacophony of voices (Picard, 2011). In general, journalism is now accused with four accusations: “inadequacy in serving its societal role” (Scott, 2005), “credibility crisis” (Broesma, 2010) “sustainability crisis” (Picard, 2011) and “professionalism crisis” (Saltzis and Dickinson, 2008; Witschge and Nygren, 2009). This new form of journalism also created new journalism skills and standards. The structure or of the newsroom is changing toward “flatter hierarchies” and “combined newsrooms” (Pavlik, 2001 : 234). In the next chapter of this essay, we will discuss briefly the changes the different skills and standards, which create the Web 2.0 era.

The Development of Web 3.0, is little discussed in scholarly literature at this stage, is well advanced and is predicted to enhance these changes, as well as lead to a wide range of new functions and dysfunctions (Battelle, 2005). Traditional media organisations are already embracing Semantic Web 3.0 technologies, but not yet in combination with the user-generated content. A case in point is The BBC, that is utilising Semantic Web technologies in their online sites, mainly for their routine programs and music but not yet for news. Thomson Reuters is another example, which has established a subsidiary called ClearForest that endeavors to connect related information across different platforms without the need for an editor to oversee these actions by using Semantic Web technologies (Sanborn 2008). In 2008 ClearForest released Calais, a toolkit that unlocks Semantic Web functionality across various online platforms including blogs and content management systems. According to
Troncy (2008), “ontology” should be used in the news workflow process, so as to minimize “the interoperability problems caused by using different metadata formats within the news production chain and also for improving and facilitating the search and brows of news content for end users”.

1.6 JOURNALISTS AND NEW TECHNOLOGIES

From 80’s journalists and media organizations in Greece, where positive towards the new technologies to keep pace with international standards, they “did not experience fear” or “discomfort” towards it (Leandros 1992: 311-321). As Gillmor explains, new technologies, media techniques and tools facilitate “news making”, “conversation”, “participation”, “transparency” and “accountability”. Among the positive consequences of new technology are speed, efficiency, more deep research and collaboration in the newsroom.

Apart from the positive impact of new technology on journalist work, the Web 2.0 era raise the possibility of a professional crisis for journalists and media organizations. The new equation of journalists is it to do almost everything. Reporters are now required to submit their stories in different forms in many platforms- print, social media, radio, television. “Multi-skilling and multi-tasking are becoming the new tenets of professional journalism” (Mensing, 2010). Furthermore, since 2009, they have been created new posts like “social media editor”, “community editor” (Alejandro, 2010), “data journalist” and “programmer-journalist” (Lewis & Usher, 2013). This of course, raise new questions about the future of media editors and their new role (Alejandro, 2010). Several scholars including ”Cohen, Li, Yang and Yu (2011), Michael Schudson (2010), and David Ryfe (2012) underlines that such major changes will transform journalism’s civic role, albeit within media systems very different from those dominant during the 20th century.

According to Juan Senor, a partner at Innovation Media Consulting and a Visiting Fellow at the Reuters Institute journalists need to master new skills, including multimedia (photos, graphics, video), Adobe Flash (graphics software), video editing (Adobe premiere, Apple Pro), digital Narratives (Constructing stories with infographics) and they need will reinvent how to tell stories in digital platforms. Javier Zarracina, the graphics director of The Boston Globe said in a presentation in 2010 that “we need a multimedia newsroom to create content for the new formats” such as the tablets. He suggested a new multimedia newsroom consisted of a team of a web developer, a graphic designer, a photo editor, a video editor, a social media editor and a reporter. As a consequence, if journalists required to master new skills, newsroom required to change, respectively.
For media organisations, “convergence is the common strategy”. There is a growing realisation that a journalist can not do everything on his or hers own. “One media outlet cannot service all the rivers of information in the social media sphere. Thus, partnerships abound. For instance, Facebook and CNN teamed up for “Live Tweeting” during US President Barack Obama’s inauguration or BBC partnered with Adobe for streaming video capabilities” (Alejandro, 2010).

Furthermore, due to the fact that news organizations today have little time and resources for investigative pieces, it is better every news organization to provide their own support for investigative journalism at a sufficient level. In other words, every news organization needs “a system based on a cloud for the crowd”, which combines “computational resources as well as human expertise to support more efficient and effective investigative journalism” Cohen, Li, Yang and Yu (2011).

1.7 THE ROLE OF THE PUBLIC IN PARTICIPATORY JOURNALISM:

The public quickly assumed his role in participatory environment. Incentives seem to vary: the feeling of "belonging" to a wider community, the prestigious acquisition by contributing to the production process, the ability to connect with people who share the same interests, the need to be informed and to inform, the mood be entertained and to entertain, even the joy of creating. As for the ways in which it can exert its role, these vary and are summarized in the following (Bowman & Willis 2003):

A) Commentary. This is the fundamental way of public participation. Started by the early stage of the forum, today however most screens incorporate selecting the commentary to articles they publish. Surveys of the Pew Research Center (2006, 2011) show that both in blogs, and in Social Networking Sites, commentary holds much of the activity of users.

B) Filtering and processing. One of the most popular treatment methods is the rating of articles from the public. Many websites - such as CNN.com or Greek
Protagon.gr have prominently the "Read More Articles" or articles with the highest score. Often found and separation of articles according to their popularity (indirect participation), while the same now and becomes the 'Sharing'. In most articles there are now indications on "how many liked the article' or the "How many people shared on social networking sites."

C) Quick test. Many blogs / user comments / forums dealing to find out whether a published article in traditional media captures the whole truth. Usually done by citing links.

D) Grassroots reporting. This is the story of citizens who are present at an event and give information about it the moment it happens. 'Explosion' of this kind of reportage made in the September 11 attacks. Sometimes people provide much faster information from the media. And despite the ethical issues that interfere (eg information junction), oftentimes were given the credit to alternative online sources for speed display of a news story.

E) Annotative reporting. It could be seen as an extension of traditional journalism. Essentially relates to the provision of additional information on a subject, for example, deemed not "covered" the full from the media or that they have chosen to show from a particular angle.

F) Reportage 'open source' & evaluation. Several instruments allow users to read, assess and record their reactions on articles to be published in a traditional means. As underlined by M. Deuze (Bowman & Willis 2003, p. 35) such a practice could be useful in 'niche markets'.

G) Audio or video broadcasts. Technology there is now the ability to record audio or video with everyday devices such as mobile phones, so that citizens can record news anytime and allocate them to the Web.

H) Knowledge management. In this category come within the team blogs. These knowledge works additively through the comments and feedback.

The effect of alternative journalism in informative everyday life could not have affected thereafter and traditional journalism. The emergence of alternative journalism raised both procedural issues, and ethical issues. At the same time raised and financial matters, the prevailing laws of the market until then found before faits accomplis: "new" journalism imposed new economic conditions, causing a crisis in the press and
raising questions about how or whether journalism can be reinvent herself (Deuze 2005).

With regard to the procedural part, according to Hermida (2011), public participation affects all stages of journalism: in the gathering of news, in the reportage and in the promotion thereof.

In the gathering of news public participation consists of quick concentration of the material. Social media does not make public as news sources but also news sensors. For example, social networks can act as a system of detection of the news before they occur, and then allow live coverage of events as they evolve. A major factor in why social media give the present in this part of the information process is that they can cover the need for information until journalists reach at the point where events occurring - for example the earthquake in Haiti in January 2010 (Bruno, 2011).

In the reportage, is reported that many journalists of traditional media use social platforms to transmit some information—whether in words or through pictures / videos. Another aspect of social media is that often times occurs in some traditional media material derived from the public directly, without further processing (Hermida, 2011).

In the promotion, social media are used to lead the user in the organization’s page to read the rest of the text and therefore help to increase site traffic. It seems that the promotion through social networking is becoming an important "key" for the promotion of sites. As underlined by Olmstead (Olmstead et al 2011), “as Facebook starts to walk the path of Google as one of the most influential players in guiding the public of news”.

Beyond the procedural part however greater challenges posed within a moral level. As stated by Bowman & Willis (2003) should be redefined hegemony of major news organizations and put on the table the issues of power that govern them. The absence of private interests can be extremely positive for the democratization of the media. Furthermore, it can be given a new basis for reliability, which may be enhanced by the emergence of new "specialists", new sectors and new gate watchers. In this new environment it seems necessary to redefine the role of journalists, as the online journalism requires developing new skills for their part, while at the same wave length is recommended to revise the newsroom.
1.8 THE ROLE OF JOURNALISTS IN PARTICIPATORY JOURNALISM

The basic role of journalists is used to owning the news, deciding what and how to report, providing a way for voices from outside the media to be heard (Christians et al. 2009). Participatory journalism is a logical extension of this function, where users contribute to a more democratic and representative media. According to the research of Hermida (2011), journalists appreciate participatory tools that let them use the public audio or visual information, as sources for news, especially about breaking news. However, journalists are not using participatory tools as communication tools, in order to exchange ideas and views with users. Therefore, audiences still kept outside the news production process. Peter Horrocks, senior BBC editor, has named this attitude as “fortress journalism”, with professional journalists who work in powerful institutions with thick walls. On the contrary, he added that “fortresses are crumbling, and courtly jousts with fellow journalists are no longer impressing the crowds” (Horrocks, 2009: 6).

The journalists, who participate in the research of Hermida(2011) were caught between two worlds. One world consisted of journalists, who clung to traditional norms and trusted methods and they view user-generated content as a threat to journalism that needed to be tamed. The other world is composed of journalists, whom we name web 2.0 “evangelists” or “integrationists” they more open to change in the new media. Evangelists claim that user material rejuvenates journalism and transform the relationship between journalists and audience.

Additionally, participatory journalism affects the work of the journalist. Traditionally, journalists as gatekeepers were gathering, filtering, editing and publishing the news. In the new media except the other tasks mentioned above, added the task of monitoring and filtering user feedback. Journalists became comment moderators and they are responsible for making decisions about what is published and what is deleted. Most studies, such as Hermida and Thurman (2008) have emphasized that editors preferred retaining editorial control over user submissions. But Hermidas’ research (2011) suggested that the concept of curation as an alternative to moderation has gained ground in newsrooms. Alternatively of having journalists spend hours identifying and removing the worst user submissions, a curation strategy devotes resources to highlighting the best content. Some newsrooms, such as LePost.fr (France) and Het
Nieuwsblad (Belgium), had taken this a step a little bit further, with journalists actively guiding contributors, so as to enhance the quality of submissions. Media companies as well were recruiting audience members to help with this curation.

In digital media journalists need to see participatory journalism as a collaborative process, in which both professional journalists and amateur users have a role to play. As Singer (2008: 75) states in a networked world, there no longer is the “journalist”, “audience” and “source”. There is only “us”. Of course, journalists are, arguably, more conscious of the “us” in the new media environment. In contrast to Singer opinion, many journalists have an ambivalent view toward the idea of more collaborative forms of journalism. In the past journalists have not been expected to collaborate with users. Yet increasingly, that is exactly what they are being asked to do.

As Deuze and his colleagues argued in 2007, participatory ideals conflict with the values of professional distance in journalism, “notions which tend to exclude rather than to include” (2007:335). Traditional journalism has developed as a profession in which indicated individuals use their knowledge and intelligence to create finished products, for instance a news story. The Internet, on the other hand, offers participatory tools that facilitate distributed and collective expertise. It seems to me evident that journalists need to obtain balance as they integrate the audience into their work, using the tools that provide the Web 2.0 era.
1.9 HOW JOURNALISTS SEE USERS:

Journalists assign users crucial roles at the stages of the news production process. The opinion of Heinonen (2011) is that in the initial phases of journalistic work process, users are important as public sensor and idea generators. Journalists get ideas from users, especially for local news. Users are not only useful as idea generators, but also as expert witness. Journalists by discussing with expert witness, who are sharing their experiences, generate stories from those exchanges. Furthermore, users provide to journalists significant information about the audience interest.

Journalists have the tendency to think that user-generated content is amateur or ‘drive-by’ remarks (Heinonen, 2011). When, Dan Gillmor (2006) has been saying for years that journalists must accept the fact that their readers may well know more of them. On the other hand, relying on users may create new problems, like this of the reliability of sources (Heinonen, 2011).

In the interpretation stage of news production, journalists see users like “reflectors”, “commentators” and “audience pulse-takers”, giving to the newsroom new perspectives on existing topics and new ideas for fresh stories. The newsrooms have always claimed to want audience feedback and the digital environment provides a wide range of tools to offer it. There are many reasons why feedback is important; is that it implies the journalists’ message has reached at least some members of the audience, it informs whether and how their product resonate with audiences, it helps journalists see what needs to be done in future stories and it provides crucial information. However, journalists want to maintain a clear line between user-generated comments and editorial material that they produce (Heinonen, 2011). It seems to me obvious that users are a significant source for additional or new ideas.

Other characterization of users is as “co-workers”, “guardians of quality “and “ancillary reporters”. It is thought by some journalists that they hesitate to assign user proactive roles as co-workers in the core journalistic task of production actual editorial content. They acknowledge that users are facilitating shape content – but not as authors. They consider users as guardians of quality due to the fact that they flag misspellings, recommend some comments and alert journalists about problems with others. Last but not least, they regard users as ancillary reporters, who provide
material for professionals. Their material in ‘marriage’ with the professional material and skills, can give excellent results. Heinonen, (2011) claims that interviewees (journalists) in the near future will realize the potential benefits of user contributions, they more frequently regard them co-workers. Journalists acknowledge that users understand the logic of journalistic work much better in the digital environment than they did before.
1.10 HOW JOURNALISTS SEE THEMSELVES

According to Heinonen (2011) it is important to see how journalists see themselves, because it shapes how they see users and the relationship with them. There are three categories of self-perceptions among journalists. Firstly, there is the perspective of ‘conventional journalists’, which emphasizes the need to preserve clear boundaries between the journalism produced by professional journalists and user-generated content. Secondly, the perspective of ‘dialogical journalists’, where journalists are more inclusive and they are open to the idea of sharing their role with users as co-workers. Thirdly, an intermediate attitude reflects ‘ambivalent journalists’, which many journalists soul-searching about what they did and what user did. Journalists recognize the advantages and value of user participation and they encourage them to involve more and more in it.

Many journalists who interviewed did not express either of these perceptions in a pure form. Their replies show an ongoing debate about who is and who is not a journalist. In general, there is a growing awareness about the effects that overall changes in social communication patterns have on journalism (Heinonen, 2011).

For the above mentioned reasons, it is vital to distinguish professional journalists from non-professionals users, providing a central point of reference in the internet evaluation. As mentioned Atton and Mabweazara (2011), we must empirically discriminate between universal professional values and “context-dependent practices” in relation to the implementation of the internet in journalism. In order to understand the variability in professional journalist roles in the digital environment, we will focus on the “Journalism Culture” proposed by Thomas Hanitzsch (2007) and especially in Greek journalism culture.
CHAPTER 2: JOURNALISM CULTURE

Scientists have defined journalism culture in many different ways. According to Hofstede (1980), this concept is “over the frontier line formed by the different national cultures”. Williams (1958) argues that its definition is “as wide as the definition of culture, understood as a way of life”. For Barbie Zelizer (2005) the “culture of journalism” is descided as “seeing journalism through a cultural lens, which strategically and pronouncedly interrogates the articulated foundations for journalism and journalistic practice that may be taken for granted elsewhere in the academy” (Zelizer, 2005). In this sense, it is problematamic to assume that journalism is a universal practice, albeit there being standard routines and conventions. However, Journalism Culture as defined by Hanitzsch (2007) is “a particular set of ideas and practices by which journalists, consciously and unconsciously, legitimate their role in society and render their work meaningful for themselves and others”. The current study uses this system to describe the Greek Journalism Culture.

Journalism Culture according to the definition of Hanitzsch (2007) is composed by three basic elements: “institutional roles”, “epistemologies” and “ethical ideologies”. “Institutional roles” is described with three different aspects: “interventionism”, “power distance” and “market orientation”. The concept of journalism culture proposed by Hanitzsch (2007) incorporates the idea of “journalism culture” used by Donsbach and Patterson (2003); the so-called “news culture” of Heinderyckx (1993); and what Esser (2004) names as “professional culture”.

In Interventionism aspect the journalistic role is either “passive” by following the values of journalism, or becomes more “interventionist” and supportive, supporting the interests of social disadvantage or a specific political party. The “interventionists journalists” tend to be emotionally involved, whereas the ‘passive” are more committed to objectivity and impartiality. The passive pole of the dimension is “ideal-typically related to roles like the “neutral disseminator” and the “gatekeeper” (Weaver & Wilhoit, 1991). Hanitzsch (2007) underlines that “journalism cultures on this side of the continuum stick to the principles of objectivity, neutrality, fairness, detachment and impartiality, which are deeply rooted in the history of Western and particular U.S journalism”.

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The term “power distance” was originally defined by Hofstede (1980) to label “one of the dimensions of cultural variance”. The “power distance” describes the attitude of journalists towards the power; they take a competitive-adversarial or loyal stance towards those in power. In other words, the power distance connects the journalistic activity with the political activity. In “Market orientation” journalists’ investigates the audience needs and preferences. Journalists expect to fulfill their needs and focus to have informed, autonomous and free citizens. In this dimension journalists can distinguish their public into “consumers” or “citizens”.

The "epistemology constituent" of journalism culture is associated with the value of truth in journalism. It is common sense to mention that journalism’s “first obligation is to the truth” (Kovach & Rosentiel, 2001). According to Anderson and Baym (2004), journalists wonder “whether the news can offer an objective and value-free account of the truth”. Therefore, there are two theories in this constituent; one that refers to "objectivism" and claims that journalists mirror their objective truth and another based on "empiricism", where news are substantiated by facts. In this theories there questions about the existence of an objective and ultimate truth, Hanitzch (2007) supports the view that there is no absolute truth, but journalists mirror their own truth.

As far as “the ethical dimension” is concerned, is related to ethical ideologies and moral values, according to the universal code of West ethics in journalism. In other words, the dimension of ethical ideologies refers to the question of how journalists respond to ethical dilemmas. The ethical dimension is composed by two constituents “relativism” and “idealism”. “Relativism marks the extent to which journalists base their personal moral philosophies on universal ethical rules” while “Idealism refers to the importance of consequences in journalists’ reasoning about ethical dilemmas”. (http://www.worldsofjournalism.org).

The theoretical framework of the journalism culture as proposed by Hanitzch (2007) is an important tool, so as to understand the basic constituent of journalism culture. In this study, we will focus on the Greek journalism, taking into consideration the journalism culture and the singularities of Greek journalism, due to the political and financial crisis.
2.1 JOURNALISM IN GREECE

The Greek Journalism has unique characteristics, as it is characterized by political parallelism, state intervention and a weak journalism culture. The media political ties challenge the normative values of journalism such as accuracy, impartiality and objectivity. This situation is now even worse due to the ongoing political and economic uncertainty. In this study, we will try to combine the Greek journalism characteristics with the journalism culture as proposed by Hanitzch(2007).

As far as institutional role is concerned, Papathanassopoulos (2001) mentions that Greek journalists are active in their reporting. Nonetheless, they tend to become mouthpiece of specific elites, politician and media owners, rather than to have an active role in favor of the socially disadvantaged. Greek Journalists struggle to convince citizens that they represent them, albeit their role is totally influenced by the constraints of their media organization.

The “power distance”, regarding the Greek journalists is associated with the political intervention, despite the commercialization. In other European countries the consequences of commercialization of media, clearly shifted them from politics towards to commerce. The commercialization of media change totally the role of journalists, their main aim become to produce entertainment and information that can be sold to individual consumers, rather than to disseminate ideas and create social consensus around them. This model leads media to follow common global set of media practices with more homogenous media programmes (Blumler 1992: 11; Avery 1993; Tracey 1998). In addition, another consequence of commercialization was a shift in the balance of power between the media and political institutions, with the media themselves becoming increasingly central in setting the agenda of political communication. One important manifestation of this tendency is the increased political scandals. According to Papathanasopoulos (2000:58),

“Greek media have begun to fight with the politicians for control of the political agenda and have started to make themselves heard in the process of political communication with a constant stream of criticism of politicians and the actions of parties. ... The rise of commercial media may have precipitated this trend and created a situation where, today, Greek citizens can watch an endless stream of stories about
political scandals, rivalry and self-interest. And, as with the media in other liberal democratic countries, Greek media have tried to create stories about political conflict by giving particular attention to politicians who hold controversial views or who oppose the actions of the government”.

In terms of “market orientation”, Greek Media operates in a market framework. However, political parties influence and control them. As Hallin and Mancini (2004) mentions, television news in order to achieve high ratings focus more than ever before to private life issues. This type of news is also presented in print media, in some extent. Nonetheless, both television and print news are stood for specific parties, producing information that it is intended for political insiders rather than ordinary citizens. This development is corollary of the lack of a code of ethical principles in Greek journalism (Papathanassopoulos, 2001). Due to the fact that Greek journalists tend to associate objectivity with freedom of expression rather than factuality, which would position the Greek culture more towards the subjectivism pole. “The polemical writing and commentary-oriented style of Greek journalism would also place the Greek culture in the negative end of the empiricism continuum”.

The financial uncertainty in the Greek media has made difficult the work of journalists, leading some media organizations to shut down its companies or made major personnel cuts. According to the Journalists’ Union of Athens Daily Newspapers (JUADN), more than 20 per cent of its members are now estimated to be unemployed; in the meantime wages have been fallen to 60 per cent (Iosifidis and Boucas 2015). This situation created new models of journalism like the “Editors’ Newspaper” (EfSyn), the magazine Unfollow and the online “Press Project”. The previous mentioned examples are models of participatory journalism that offer an alternative voice to that of mainstream news organizations. “It is at the backdrop of this socio-political turmoil that online journalism is slowly taking shape” as describes Touri, Theodosiadou, & Kostarella (2016). As far as journalism 2.0 in the Greek is concerned, according to a survey conducted by Doudaki and Spyridou (2015), it is noted that traditional models of news organization and production still govern the Greek online media, with only selective forms of journalism 2.0. In this paper with the selection of the appropriate methodology model we will examine further the evolution Greek journalism culture.
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 RESEARCH ANALYSIS

The present study builds on empirical data collected for Greece and as part of a research project entitled “The Worlds of Journalism Study”. The study has been conducted on the elaboration and analysis of data collected by the research team under the supervision of Asst Professor Dimitra Dimitrakopoulou, which are currently open accessible on the website of the research project under the title “Worlds of Journalism”.

“The WJS is an academically driven project that was founded to regularly assess the state of journalism throughout the world. The basic aim of the Study is to help journalism researchers, practitioners, media managers and policy makers better understand the worldviews and changes that are taking place in the professional orientations of journalists, the conditions and limitations under which journalists operate, and the social functions of journalism in a changing world. The recent wave of the WJS has continued and extended the groundbreaking work carried out through the pilot study (2007-2011). Breaking all records in comparative communication research, the study brought together researchers from 67 countries from around the world. In an unprecedented collaborative effort, the study has interviewed over 27,500 journalists between 2012 and 2016, based on a common methodological framework." (http://www.worldsofjournalism.org)

The theoretical framework of the WJS is composed by two basic elements; the idea of journalism as «discursive institutionalism” and journalistic culture as “discursive articulation”. It is common belief that journalism is a social institution that is continuously reborn; regarding the fact its relationship with larger society is never static. As far as journalistic culture is concerned, it exists in three different manifestation:”as sets of ideas” (values, attitudes and beliefs), “as practices” (of doing news), and as “artifacts” (news content). For the purpose of the Worlds of Journalism Study, there are selected five themes in order to make meaningful cross-cultural comparisons: journalistic roles, journalistic ethics, and journalistic trust (intrinsic dimensions) as well as perceived influences and editorial autonomy (extrinsic
dimensions). In this dissertation we emphasize on journalistic autonomy, journalistic roles, and editorial autonomy (http://www.worldsofjournalism.org).

Only professional journalists working for the news media were involved in this research. The definition of a professional journalist was the following: “[a] person who earns at least 50 per cent of his or her income from paid labor for news media and is involved in producing and editing journalistic content as well as in editorial supervision and coordination.” The total number of journalists who completed questionnaires for was 411. Journalists from all kinds of media were involved. The data was complied with the Field Manual of the WJS in constructing the sample, as well as in establishing the number of people chosen (http://www.worldsofjournalism.org).

3.2 BACKGROUNDS OF JOURNALISTS
Our survey gathered a range of information on Greek Journalists’ personal characteristics, like gender, age, political stance. A typical journalist in Greece is male, in his early-forties and holds a university degree in a journalism field. Of the 411 interviewed journalists, 203 were men, making for a proportion of 53 percent of the overall sample. According to studies, in spite of the increase in the number of women, the field of journalism is still organized based on masculine values (Creedon, 1993; Löfgren-Nilsson, 2010; Melin, 2008; Ross, 2001). On average, Greek journalists were 40.3 years old (s=9.503), with the youngest in the sample 21 years old and the oldest 71 years old. Of the journalists surveyed, 37.5% held a bachelor’s degree, 21.4% Master’s and 1.5% a Doctorate. Another 22.9 percent of the journalists do not have secondary studies, and 8.8 percent had undertaken some university studies but did not complete their studies. Furthermore, our results show that (29.4%) had specialized in journalism; only 5.8 percent of the participants had specialized in other communication field, while 16.1% of the participants had both specialized in journalism and other communication field. A further 17.3% did not specialize in these fields. In contrast with Greek journalists in 1998 (V-PRC, 1998), where only 7.8 of have media degrees, now Greek journalists are more well-educated. In addition, about half of journalists take a centre political stance (53.8%), with the remaining half split between the left (34.9%) and the right-wing (11.3%).
Table 1. Greek Journalists’ Gender

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<td>Male</td>
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<td>Female</td>
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Graphics 1: Greek Journalists’ Gender

Table 2. Education of Greek Journalists

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<th>Education</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Completed high school</td>
<td>24.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College/Bachelor’s degree or</td>
<td>40.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>equivalent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master's degree or equivalent</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>some university studies, but no</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Graphics 2: Education of Greek journalists

Table 3. Specialized in journalism or communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specialization</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, specialized in journalism</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, specialized in other communication field</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, specialized both in journalism and another</td>
<td>23.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
communication field
No, did not specialize in these fields 25.2

Graphics 3: Specialized in journalism or communication

Table 4. Political Affiliation of Greek Journalists

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Left</td>
<td>34.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Center</td>
<td>53.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Graphics 4: Political Affiliation of Greek Journalists
3.3 JOURNALISTS IN THE NEWSROOM

We asked 411 Greek journalists to choose a job category that best described their current position. Our results show that (47.9%) ‘Reporter’ was the most common, followed by ‘Editor-in-chief (15.8 %) ’and ‘News writer’ (10.5%). ‘Senior editor’ (8.3%) came next, followed by ‘Managing editor’(5.4%), ‘Department’ head (4.4%).Producer (3.9%), Desk head or assignment editor(1.9 %) and last with 1% Trainee and Other.i.g Newscaster, TV presenter (2 persons) and Project Manager. (See table below). Furthermore, our questionnaire asked Greek journalists who whether they worked full- or part-time. A higher proportion (87.9%) of journalists who are employed work full-time than part-time, for which the figure is 12.1%. Overall we found that 71.6 % of our sample belongs to professional association, whereas 28.4% do not belong to any organization.

A typical journalist in Greece works in a single newsroom for without the expense of reporters. The same newsroom most of the times combine a print and an online edition. Our survey found that the average number of 72.3 % works for one newsroom, with 20.7% working for two, 5.6% working for three, only 1.0% working for four, and less than 1% working for 5 and 7 newsrooms , respectively. In addition, our survey shows that the vast majority of Greek journalists 77.5 % do not engage in any other paid activities, with 22.5% to engage in other paid activities. Due to economic crisis, according to our survey, the majority of Greek journalists work only for one newsroom in contrast with a survey conducted by Kamaras in 2004, where multi-employment amongst newspaper reporters was found to reaching almost 70%. More specifically, 42.9% of newspaper journalists held two jobs, while 27% held more than two jobs in various media.

Table 5. Proportions of Greek Journalists working in one or across multiple media types (Print, Tv, Radio, Type)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>72.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Graphics 5: Proportions of Greek Journalists working in one or across multiple media types (Print, TV, Radio, Type)

Table 6. Proportions of Greek Journalists who have other paid occupations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
<td>77.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Graphics 6: Proportions of Greek Journalists who have other paid occupations

Table 7. Proportions of Greek journalists who are member in professional association

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>71,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>28,4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Journalistic beats play a crucial role in the creation of ideological diversity in the news (Meyers, 1992), they are seen as “micro cultures” (Ericson, Baranek, & Chan, 1989) or particular “domains of practice” (Reich, 2012). According to surveys, journalists in different news beats differ in their professional attitudes and news selection (Mellado & Humanes, 2012; Reich, 2012; Weaver et al., 2007). In our survey half (53.1%) of the participants (214) answered that they work on or supervise a specific beat, while the remaining 46.9% (189 participants) answered that they work on or supervise various topic and subject.

Respondents who replied that they work on or supervise various topic and subject were asked to specify “Which beat or area do you primarily supervise or work on?” Almost one quarter of replies (27.7%) is primarily supervising or working on news/current affairs, followed by sports with 14.6% and other beats (i.e. Agriculture, Environment, Science, Labor, Investigative, Media, Education, Social, Religion, Business, Music) with 12.7%. Other minor categories included the following beats Politics (8.9%), Economy (8%), Foreign politics (7.5%), Crime & law (6.6%) Culture (6, 1%), Health (3.5%), Entertainment (2.8%) and Domestic politics (1.9%).
Table 8. Greek journalists working routines; Specialist Reporting vs. Generalist

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work on a specific beat</td>
<td>53.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work on various topic and subjects</td>
<td>46.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graphics 8: Greek journalists working routines; Specialist Reporting vs. Generalist

Table 9: Proportions of Greek Journalists working across 15 specialist beats

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>News/current affairs</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politics</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign politics</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic politics</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime &amp; law</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to Zvi Reich and Thomas Hanitzsch (2013: 135), autonomy is described in two different dimensions, one external and one internal. The external aspect of autonomy is related to forces restricting the political autonomy of the news organization. The internal rejection is associated with journalists’ freedom to make decisions free from management pressures, commercial factors and forces inside the news environment. Greek journalists seem to have increased internal autonomy, because just above two-thirds of journalists interviewed in Greece said they have a great deal of freedom (44.9%) in selecting their stories they work on. A 27.3% have complete freedom and 21.6% some freedom. Only a minority have little freedom (5.2%) or no freedom at all (1%). According to Snoody (1992), journalists follow “the editorial line”, which determines certain standards and freedoms. These standards indicate “how far stories should be pushed and what degree of 'comer-cutting' will be tolerated”.

On the question “How much freedom do you personally have in deciding which aspects of a story should be emphasized? “ Almost half of the respondents i.e. 186 Greek Journalists (45.3 %) have a great deal of freedom in decide personally which aspects of a story they want to emphasize, 29% of the respondents have complete
freedom, 20.9% of the respondents have some freedom, only 3.9% of the respondents have little freedom and only one person (0.2%) have no freedom at all (see Table 1). Therefore, our survey shows that approximately the largest number of Greek journalist have a great deal of freedom both in selecting their stories and their personally aspect. These results reveal the transformative character of Greek journalism. In the V-PRC (1998) survey, journalists were asked to assess the freedom of the press in Greece and their own level of independence and personal autonomy. Nearly half of the respondents (45.2%) stressed that they were only slightly or not satisfied with the extent of press freedom, and only 13.8 percent said they were very satisfied. They also feel that they are not able to exercise their profession freely, because they are subject to intervention and self-censorship.
Table 10. Greek journalists’ perception of the freedom they have on the story selection and emphasis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No freedom at all</th>
<th>Little freedom</th>
<th>Some freedom</th>
<th>A great deal of freedom</th>
<th>Complete freedom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>selecting stories</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aspects emphasized</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>45.6</td>
<td>29.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graphics 10. Greek journalists’ perception of the freedom they have on the story selection and emphasis

On the question “How often do you participate in editorial and newsroom coordination, such as attending editorial meetings or assigning reporters?” By far the largest number of those surveyed responded that they always participate (33.1%) in editorial and newsroom coordination, 23.3% of the respondents very often, 20.6% of the respondents sometimes, 11.4% of the respondents rarely and only 9.9% almost never.

When it comes to perceived influences on their work, personal values and beliefs (47.4%) and journalism ethics (45.8%) have the strongest influence on their work. External factors where, on the other hand, perceived as less influential; government
officials, business people, pressure groups and politicians, friends, acquaintances and family, religious considerations, colleagues in other media, have little influence over the Greek news production, according to Greek journalists.

Table 11. Degree of participation in editorial coordination for all Greek journalists

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participation in editorial coordination</th>
<th>Almost never</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Very often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>33.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.6 JOURNALIST ROLES

With regard to professional role orientations, Greek journalists found it most important to report things as they are (78.5%) and to let people express their views (62.2%). Other roles named as important by a majority of Greek journalists were to be a detached observer, to provide analysis of current affairs, to monitor and scrutinize political leaders, to provide information and to promote tolerance and cultural diversity. Only a small minority of journalists think that supporting government policy, conveying a positive image of political leadership, set the political agenda and being an adversary of the government are important. However, Sallot et al. (1998) commented that “it is possible that journalists are reluctant to admit the power that public relations exert on news content”.

Positioning these findings in the context of the institutional roles described in Hanitzsch’s (2007) framework suggests that this generation perceives Greek journalism to be changing with respect the dimensions of interventionism, epistemology and power distance. In a culture where traditional media were heavily dependent on specific political parties-ideologies, the freedom, space and volumes of information that the Web 2.0 era affords presents Greek journalists to break away
from the ideological divisions reproduced by traditional media and become more socially committed and independent.

**Table 12. Greek Journalist views’ on the most important roles to perform**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Unimportant</th>
<th>Little important</th>
<th>Somewhat Important</th>
<th>Very important</th>
<th>Extremely Important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Report things as they are</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>78.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Let people express their views</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>62.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>provide analysis of current affairs</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>45.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>promote tolerance and cultural diversity</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>50.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>provide information people need to make political decisions</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>42.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>be a detached observer</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>38.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>advocate for social change</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>39.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitor and scrutinize political leaders</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>40.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitor and scrutinize business</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>31.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support national development</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>educate the audience</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>26.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>provide advice,</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>29.1</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
orientation and direction for daily life

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>15.4</th>
<th>17.2</th>
<th>25.4</th>
<th>22.1</th>
<th>19.9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>motivate people to participate in political activity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Influence public opinion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>17.3</th>
<th>22.4</th>
<th>28.6</th>
<th>19.3</th>
<th>12.3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>provide the kind of news that attracts the largest audience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Provide entertainment and relaxation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>23.6</th>
<th>18.3</th>
<th>27.6</th>
<th>18.5</th>
<th>12.0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>set the political agenda</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Be an adversary of the government

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>40.8</th>
<th>22.2</th>
<th>18.1</th>
<th>10.3</th>
<th>8.6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>convey a positive image of political leadership</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Support government policy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>59.1</th>
<th>23.8</th>
<th>10.8</th>
<th>2.0</th>
<th>4.3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>70.7</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to the surveyed journalists, journalism in Greece is currently “in a state of flux”. The most notable changes in journalism are the increased importance of technical skills (72%), the increased use of search engines (89.1%), of social media (81.2%), increased average working hours of journalists (60.2%), and generally audience participation (36.4%), user-generated content (58.7%) and feedback (41.3%).

The results show that use of internet and social media is nowadays a standard routine for Greek professionals. As we mentioned on the theoretical part the promotion through social networking is becoming an important "key" for the promotion of sites. According to Olmstead (Olmstead et al 2011), “as Facebook starts to walk the path of Google as one of the most influential players in guiding the public of news”.

### Graphics 12. Greek Journalist views’ on the most important roles to perform

3.7 JOURNALISM IN TRANSITION
Greek journalists follow the principles of the Web 2.0 culture. The basic elements of Web 2.0 culture is “engagement” and “participation” (O’Reilly, 2004). Although, the incorporation of use-generated content, still remains a challenge for the news industry (Deuze et al., 2007; Domingo, 2008). This findings links in with notions of increased audience interactions discussed earlier in the theoretical part of this dissertation. It is evident that journalism incorporates a participatory culture (Jenkins, 2006). It is likely that such changes are also increasingly playing into the tension between professional control and open participation in journalism (Lewis, 2012; Singer et al., 2011).

As far the decreased working hours is concerned, demanding more output from staff members is a general trend. According to a survey conducted in UK by Lewis, Williams and Franklin (2008) the remaining staff members were expected to produce more content. The first strategy news organizations turn to of having less or cheaper staff producing more content, “increasing the volume of news and information” (Picard, 2010)

(Note: The questions about changes in journalism were only presented to journalists who had five years or more of professional experience.)

**Table 13. Greek Journalist’s views on changes in journalism**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Weakened a lot</th>
<th>Somewhat Weakened</th>
<th>Did not change</th>
<th>Somewhat Strengthened</th>
<th>Strengthened a lot</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Journalism education</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethical standards</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>51.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advertising considerations</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>52.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profit making pressures</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>56.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public relations</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>33.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audience research</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>39.1</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>user-generated contents, such as blogs</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>58.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social media</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>81.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audience</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>38.2</td>
<td>36.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>involvement in news production</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audience feedback</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>41.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pressure toward sensational news</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>28.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graphics13. Greek Journalist’s views on changes in journalism

Table 14. Greek Journalists’ views on changes on the influences in journalism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Decreased a lot</th>
<th>Somewhat Decreased</th>
<th>Did not change</th>
<th>Somewhat Increased</th>
<th>Increased a lot</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>journalists’ freedom to make editorial decisions</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>average working hours of journalists</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>60.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
time available for researching stories | 46.2 | 27.8 | 16.3 | 4.5 | 5.1
---|---|---|---|---|---
interactions of journalists with their audiences | 17.1 | 18.0 | 28.4 | 21.0 | 15.6
---|---|---|---|---|---
Technical skills | 0.9 | 0.3 | 4.8 | 22.0 | 72.0
use of search engines | 0 | 0 | 2.4 | 8.5 | 89.1
having a university degree | 5.8 | 3.7 | 30.8 | 30.8 | 29.0
having a degree in journalism or a related field | 6.9 | 4.8 | 36.0 | 28.4 | 23.9
credibility of journalism | 44.6 | 16.5 | 18.9 | 9.0 | 11.1
relevance of journalism for society | 21.5 | 20.0 | 22.4 | 22.1 | 14

Graphics 14. Greek Journalists’ views on changes on the influences in journalism
CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION

A major point of investigation for this study was the notion of “journalism culture” as identified by Hanitzsch (2007) and especially we focus on the “institutional roles”. In order to understand better this aspect of journalism culture, we will compare Greek Journalism Culture with Swiss and Spanish culture. To better understand their professional work and the production of contents we need to analyze the journalistic culture based on different criteria and dimensions (Hanitzsch, 2007).

When we refer to Western journalistic culture it should be underlined that “media systems are not homogeneous, because they have specific characteristics; specific political systems; communication variables; and social, technological and economic factors that define different journalistic cultures” (Hallin and Mancini, 2004: 271). Most Western countries are created according to “the diversity and freedom of access to the media or the social and cultural order established” (McQuail, 1999).

In how they define their roles in society, Greek journalists, appear to be multifaceted. They see themselves as providers of accurate information, analysis, as conduits of audience expression and as promoters of diversity and as providers of information people need to make political decisions. However, they are reluctant to be an adversary of government and support government policy. According to Journalism culture, Greek journalists have a passive approach when it comes to intervention in the political process, believing that the media should merely report events rather than get involved in them. They argue journalists should be absolutely detached observers, rather than set the political agenda, advocate for social change or influence public opinion. This approach is in line with most other Western and particularly US journalism practices, who believe in journalists as “neutral observers” (Hanitzsch, 2007). According to Allonso (2005), the Swiss journalists do not see themselves as “watchdogs”, but they have a critical position towards the centres of power, because in Switzerland there is a mature democracy with a high social participation. In contrast, the Spanish journalists have the tendency to assume an interventionist role and to being opposed to the government, due to the high level of economical and political corruption. The relationship between journalists and politician is based in the cynic and the lack of thrust. For the Spanish journalists the possible influences of journalism on politics is much more important than for the Greek and Swiss journalists.
However, In terms of “power distance”, Greek journalists follow an adversarial approach, while Spanish journalists take a loyal stance towards those in power. Swiss Journalists independence towards the government and the political lobbies.

In terms of “market orientation” (Hanitzsch, 2007), Greek Media operates in a market framework. Our survey shows that Greek journalists believe the influence of the profit motive, competition and advertising considerations had strengthened over the last five years. This comes as no surprise given the padlocks on media organizations, the well-documented falls in the circulation of newspapers, and the difficulties of monetizing news online. According to Freedman, 2010, the key problem for news organizations and one that has been viewed as “a crisis of journalism” by many has been “the trend of continuing falling circulation for newspapers and modest revenues from online advertising and subscriptions”, which seems to create an unsustainable situation in the long term. The Greek and Spanish journalists distinguish their public as “consumers” due to the influence of the media market, while the Swiss journalists see their public as “citizens”; they motivate their public into civic activities and political discussions (Allonso, 2015).

CONCLUSION
Greek journalism have undergone great changes as a result of technological innovation and increased economic pressures. Several studies mention that these changes have affected journalism and have introduce “new technologies” (Boczkowski 2004) in the journalist profession, “new work routines” (Ryfe 2009a), and “increased engagement with audiences and amateur news work” (Harrison 2009; Hermida& Thurman 2008). Deuze et al. (2007) described “participatory news” as the future for news organizations. According to our survey, user generated content has strengthened a lot over the last five years in Greece (58.8%).

After the main theoretical elements of were defined (Social media, Participatory Journalism, Journalist Roles, Journalism culture), we filled the gaps in our theory through the Worlds of Journalism questionnaire on Greek Journalists. This study helps us to understand better Greek journalists, emphasizing on their roles, ethics, trust, autonomy and perceived influences. However, additional theoretical and empirical
evaluations of the internet’s role in Greek Journalism are always needed to enrich our understanding of online technologies as part of a complex evolution in journalism.

This dissertation sought to perform a more systematic evaluation of the role of the Web 2.0 and social media in journalism cultures on a theoretical and empirical level. We borrowed the concept of journalism culture theorized by Thomas Hanitzsch (2007), as a conceptual instrument to draw closer connections between Greek journalists’ practices and perceptions about the internet’s role in their work and the broader journalism culture in Greece.

In addition, the present study attempted to investigate the changes in the Greek journalistic environment. Educational standards and skills are being redefined to meet new needs, journalists are working more hours in contrast with the past, but they do not have available time to research their stories. However, this change is associated with increasing instances of ‘copy-and-paste’ journalism (Fenton, 2009), as a response to greater speed, which results in more content, albeit in a sporadic and superficial way. For the above mentioned reasons, the majority of Greek journalists believe that their profession has lost credibility over time.

The analysis of the findings shows that, Greek journalists acknowledge a high level of freedom in making news decisions and deciding personally which aspect of the story they want to emphasize. The strongest influences on their work have their personal values and beliefs and journalism ethics. From a regulatory perspective, the Greek Constitution provides freedom of speech in the press, the broadcasting and the internet, while the Greek National Council for Radio and Television (NCRTV) is the regulatory administrative authority that creates mandatory rules and codes of ethics related to journalism. In contrast with the past, Greek journalists seem independent towards the government and the political lobbies.

In addition, the journalism culture which was described in the Greek media sector during the early ’90s (Papathanassopoulos 1997) was characterized by political parallelism, state intervention and a weak journalism culture. Some 20 years later, Greek journalists seems more adversary towards those in power and they tend follow the normative values of journalism such as accuracy, impartiality and objectivity. Our survey shows that the most important thing of Greek journalists is to report things as
they are, influenced by the Anglo-Saxon journalism culture and its ideal of objectivity (Hallin and Mancini, 2004). However, as we mentioned on the theoretical part, Greek journalists tend to associate objectivity with freedom of expression rather than factuality, which would position the Greek culture more towards the subjectivism pole.

As we mentioned on the theoretical part of these essay, social media and Internet changed traditional journalism, because the audience expect to receive news instantaneously with constant updates of developments. As a result, these change the direction and practice of journalism. The availability of these online sources - social platforms has changed the way that journalists are able to operate and it can be a valuable tool aiding journalists in their newsgathering, audience engagement and it can act as another platform for content. According to our survey, in contrast with the past 89% of the participants use now search engines and 81.9% use social media. This confirms the findings that social media have become ‘an incredibly important source’ that is used ‘constantly in all stories’ (Thurman et al., 2016) However, for a journalist, the tide of change brings about pressures on the need for news skills, multi-skilling, ability to produce fatly, having less capacity to reflect, having less time to write and search and perhaps a shorter period for verify facts.

The outcomes of the comparative study of Greek- Swiss and Spanish journalism culture in the discussion presents a complementary viewpoint of the comparative media research approach, where the journalistic culture of each country is not a subordinate culture of other Western countries, with its own media flows and journalistic practices.

4.1 FURTHER WORK-LIMITATIONS

Although this research has reached its aims, there are some unavoidable limitations. First of all, one limitation of this study is that survey data can paint only a broad picture. Therefore, the data relies on journalists’ own perceptions, which may be colored by a variety of influences. Ideally, future studies will generate evidence that can triangulate such survey results with actual journalistic behavior, for example through newsroom observations or content analysis.
Furthermore, while this dissertation study is based on the Worlds of Journalism Study (WJS), with focuses on the role of the Greek journalists, journalistic roles and editorial autonomy, did not demonstrated at all journalistic ethics and trust. In addition, the study has been conducted on the elaboration and analysis of data collected by the research team under the supervision of Asst Professor Dimitra Dimitrakopoulou on 2015 and until now there are a few changes in the Greek media due to the ongoing economic crisis and related political and societal tensions.

Lastly, this paper focuses on the impact WEB 2.0 and social media have had on journalism; in the future, the impact of WEB 3.0 on journalism could potentially serve as the subject of more extensive research.
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a) SURVEY

Worlds of Journalism Study Master questionnaire, 2012-14

• Which of the following categories best describes your current position in your newsroom? (Read list.)

1 Editor in chief
2 Managing editor
3 Desk head or assignment editor
4 Department head
5 Senior editor
6 Producer
7 Reporter
8 News writer
9 Trainee
10 Other, please specify: .............................................................

777 Don’t know
999 Refused

• Which of the following categories best describes your current employment: full-time, part-time, freelancer, or other?

1 Full-time employment
2 Part-time employment
3 Freelancer

777 Don’t know
999 Refused

• For how many newsrooms do you work at present?

Different news outlets produced by the same newsroom count as one. ......................
For how many news outlets do you work?

Besides working as a journalist, do you engage in any other paid activities?

Do you belong to any organizations or associations that are primarily for people in journalism or the communications field?

Do you usually work on or supervise a specific beat or subject area (such as politics, economy or sports), or do you usually work on or supervise various types of stories?

Which beat or area do you primarily supervise or work on? (Do not read categories!)

News/current affairs
Politics
Foreign politics
Domestic politics
Economy
Crime & law
Culture
Thinking of your work overall, how much freedom do you personally have in selecting news stories you work on?

5 means complete freedom,
4 means a great deal of freedom,
3 means some freedom,
2 means little freedom,
1 means no freedom at all.

How much freedom do you personally have in deciding which aspects of a story should be emphasized?

5 means complete freedom,
4 means a great deal of freedom,
3 means some freedom,
2 means little freedom,
1 means no freedom at all.

How often do you participate in editorial and newsroom coordination, such as attending editorial meetings or assigning reporters?

5 means always,
4 means very often,
3 means sometimes,
2 means rarely,
1 means almost never
777 Don’t know
999 Refused
• Please tell me how important each of these things is in your work.

5 means you find them extremely important, 4 means very important, 3 means somewhat important, 2 means little importance, and 1 means unimportant.

777 Don’t know, 999 Refused

A Be a detached observer. 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
B Report things as they are. 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
C Provide analysis of current affairs. 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
D Monitor and scrutinize political leaders. 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
E Monitor and scrutinize business. 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
F Set the political agenda. 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
G Influence public opinion. 5 4 3 2 1 777 99
H Advocate for social change. 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
J Be an adversary of the government. 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
K Support national development. 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
L Convey a positive image of political leadership. 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
M Support government policy. 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
O Provide entertainment and relaxation. 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
P Provide the kind of news that attracts the largest audience. 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
R Provide advice, orientation and direction for daily life. 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
S Provide information people need to make political decisions. 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
T Motivate people to participate in political activity. 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
U Let people express their views. 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
W Educate the audience. 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
X Tell stories about the world. 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
Z Promote tolerance and cultural diversity. 5 4 3 2 1 777 999

• How many years have you been working in journalism?

.......................... IF < 5 years

☐ GO TO next
The importance of some influences on journalism may have changed over time. Please tell me to what extent these influences have become stronger or weaker during the past five years in [add country].

5 means they have strengthened a lot, 4 means they have somewhat strengthened, 3 means they did not change, 2 means they have somewhat weakened, and 1 means they have weakened a lot. 777 Don’t know 999 Refused

A Journalism education 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
B Ethical standards 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
C Competition 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
D Advertising considerations 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
E Profit making pressures 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
F Public relations 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
G Audience research 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
H User-generated contents, such as blogs 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
J Social media, such as [add 1 or 2 examples] 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
K Audience involvement in news production 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
L Audience feedback 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
M Pressure toward sensational news 5 4 3 2 1 777 999

Journalism is in a state of change. Please tell me whether you think there has been an increase or a decrease in the importance of following aspects of work in

5 means they have increased a lot, 4 means they have somewhat increased, 3 means there has been no change, 2 means they have somewhat decreased, and 1 means they have decreased a lot. 777 Don’t know 999 Refused

A Journalists’ freedom to make editorial decisions 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
B Average working hours of journalists 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
C Time available for researching stories 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
D Interactions of journalists with their audiences 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
E The importance of technical skills 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
F The use of search engines 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
G The importance of having a university degree 5 4 3 2 1 777 999
H The importance of having a degree in journalism or a related field

J The credibility of journalism

K The relevance of journalism for society

O6 Do you think that most people would try to take advantage of you if they got the chance, or would they try to be fair?

1 most people would try to take advantage of me
2 they would try to be fair
3 777 Don’t know

• What is the highest grade of school or level of education you have completed?
  (Read list.)

1 Not completed high school
2 Completed high school
3 College/Bachelor’s degree or equivalent
4 Master's degree or equivalent
5 Doctorate
4 Undertook some university studies, but no degree
5 777 Don’t know
6 999 Refused

• During your studies, did you specialize in journalism or another communication field?

1 Yes, specialized in journalism
2 Yes, specialized in other communication field
3 Yes, specialized both in journalism and another communication field

1 No, did not specialize in these fields
2 777 Don’t know
3 999 Refused

• What is your gender?

1 Female
2 Male
777 Don’t know
999 Refused
• In what year were you born? ........................

777 Don’t know
999 Refused

• In political matters, people talk of “the left”, “the right”, and the “center”.

On a scale where 0 is left, 10 is right, and 5 is center, where would you place yourself? ........................

777 Don’t know
999 Refused