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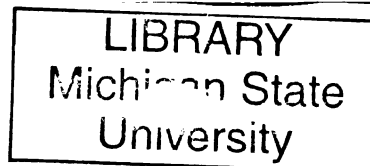has been accepted towards fulfillment
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SOUTH KOREAN PUBLIC RELATIONS PRACTITIONERS' AND JOURNALISTS'
PERCEPTIONS: A GAP ANALYSIS

By

Hyun Jin Kang

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ABSTRACT

SOUTH KOREAN PUBLIC RELATIONS PRACTITIONERS' AND
JOURNALISTS' PERCEPTIONS: A GAP ANALYSIS

By

Hyun Jin Kang

The relationship between journalists and public relations practitioners has often
been described as a 'love-hate' relationship. These two professions are dependant onone
another; yet, they have a somewhat adversarial relationship. In order to better manage the
relationships with journalists more effectively, public relations practitioners need to
examine the underlying source of conflicts. To examine this phenomenon, in this study
the coorientation model (McLeod & Chaffee, 1973) is used. The coorientation model
provides a means to analyze the perceptual balance between public relations practitioners
and journalists toward their relationship, which will help public relations practitioners
understand the source of conflicts. In particular, perceptions and cross-perceptions are
measured in regard to their relationships between South Korean public relations
practitioners and journalists, using the organization-public relationship assessment
(OPRA) scale developed by Huang (2001).

The results suggest that the two professions had similar perceptions regarding
their relationship quality and both groups perceived their relationship as neutral.
However, they failed to estimate the other's perceptions accurately, and they reported
their estimation of each other's perceptions differently from their own perceptions.
Implications for theory development and public relations practices for managing
relationship with journalists are provided.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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I. INTRODUCTION

The relationship that exists between journalists and public relations practitioners has often been described as one of love-hate (Shin & Cameron, 2003b); yet, they are mutually dependent on one another. Journalists do not fully trust information generated by public relations practitioners because they think the information has been prepared primarily to promote their organizations' agenda. Public relations practitioners are aware that journalists' mistrust the materials they provide and as a result do not believe journalists will be fair to their organizations.

Public relations practitioners rely on journalists as one means by which to get their messages to various audiences. Therefore, practitioners attempt to influence the media's agenda by providing information to journalists. Despite the mutual mistrust, journalists largely rely on news sources from public relations. Information such as press releases offered by public relations practitioners enables journalists to scan virtually endless potential stories. Also, Gandy (1982) pointed out that media management tend to use public relations' subsidized news materials in order to reduce their cost of labor. In such situations, journalists are often forced by necessity to rely on information provided by public relations professionals.

Because the source-reporter relationship is highly interdependent but also conflictual, public relations practitioners should manage the relationship with journalists with great care. Therefore, examining perceptual differences that exist between public relations practitioners and journalists is valuable in order to manage their relationships effectively.

Toward that end, using the organization-public relationship assessment (OPRA) scales (Huang, 2001) and the coorientational model (McLeod & Chaffee, 1973), this study explores the relationship between public relations practitioners and journalists in South Korea. This research examines: 1) the level of agreement between the two groups regarding their relationship quality; 2) the level of congruency between each group's perceptions of their relationship with the other group and their estimation of the other group's perception about their relationship; and 3) the level of accuracy of each group's estimation of the other group's perceptions.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Relationship between journalists and public relations practitioners

The relationship between journalists and public relations practitioners is often described as a love-hate relationship (Shin & Cameron, 2003b). The antagonistic climate between these two parties has been widely studied and supported (Aronoff, 1975a; 1975b; Brody, 1984; Jo & Kim, 2004; Pincus, Rimmer, Rayfield & Cropp, 1993; Sallot, Steinfatt, & Salwen, 1998; Shin & Cameron 2003a, 2003b, 2005; Swartz, 1983). This adversarial relationship of journalists and public relations practitioners has existed almost as long as the two occupations (Ryan & Martinson, 1984).

The news media play a role in framing how people perceive the world by determining not only how news will be featured but also how it will be defined. Selected news has more chances to be exposed to the public through the media than un-selected

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news. As a result, the news selected by media is considered more noticeable, important and memorable to the audiences (Yioutas & Segvic, 2003).

In this respect, public relations also affects the media's agenda setting process through advocating their organizations' agendas; public relations practitioners try to use the media as a tool for communicating with their target publics (Cameron, Sallot, & Curtin, 1997; Curtin, 1999; Hallahan, 1999). Previous study suggests that from 25% to 80% of news stories were influenced by either public relations practitioners' subsidies or contacts with public relations practitioners (Cameron et al., 1997). This result clearly shows that public relations practitioners meaningfully contribute to setting the agenda for the media and the public (Sallot & Johnson, 2006). If public relations practitioners offer appropriate information that is worthwhile as news contents, then the final news products are influenced by public relations practitioners' perspectives on media relation and news selection (Gandy, 1982; Manning, 2001). However, journalists often refuse to or are reluctant to admit their dependency on public relations practitioners' subsidies because they want to demonstrate their objectivity and the independence of the news producing process (Gandy, 1982; Shoemaker, 1989).

Aronoff (1975b) found that news editors in Texas perceived public relations practitioners more negative than public relations practitioners perceived themselves. Adopting the research theme from Aronoff's (1975b) work, Jeffers (1977) found that journalists considered public relations practitioners as "obstructionists" who prevent journalists from achieving truthful information and accessing desired organizational sources. Similarly, Kopenhaver, Matinson, and Ryan (1984) found that news editors have more negative perceptions toward public relations than public relations perceive the

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editors had. Responding to journalists' negative perspectives toward public relations

practitioners, practitioners stress that journalists have self-righteous attitude towards their

own occupation, and actually do not have enough knowledge about public relations

(Kopenhaver, 1984).

- *Variables that affect the relationship between journalists and public relations*

    practitioners

Ethics. An important theme of literature regarding relationships between

journalists and public relations practitioners is that the conflict is based on the ethical

issues. As Beltz, Talbottt, & Stark (1984) remarked, journalists perceived that public

relations practitioners tend to compromise, hide agendas and refuse to give information to

them. Moreover, journalists think that public relation practitioners are unethical because

they try to influence the independency of the journalists' news selection process for their

organizations' sake (Gandy, 1982; Shoemaker, 1989). Also, journalists believe they

defend the public's 'right to know'. Therefore, journalists are weary of public relations

practitioners' advocacy role (Sallot et al., 1998). Fedler and DeLorme (2002) examined

the historical root of the adversary relationship between journalists and public relations

practitioners, and found that journalists have contempt for public relations practitioners.

Journalists believed that public relations practitioners often create stunts for free publicity

so that such stunts prevent journalists from writing legitimate news, and threat their

balanced rules for news selection.

Perceptions of others and themselves.   The groups differ in how they are perceived by others and themselves. "Journalists are popularly regarded as defenders of liberty, the watch dogs of the government, idealistic, on the verge of professionalism, and other generally favorable connotations, while the image of the sales-oriented, money hungry huckster continues to haunt the publicists" (Swartz, 1983, p.13). Because of journalists' prestige self-perception, they believe they are 'above' public relations practitioners in both occupational and social hierarchy. However, Swartz (1983) asserted that because journalists are aware that public relations practitioners have overall better job conditions, for example, higher payment and regular working hours, they are jealous of practitioners, and some are tempted to become public relations practitioners.

Skills.   Swartz (1983) argued that journalists and public relations professions have similar missions and are required to have similar skills sets. More specifically, both professions require communication skills such as writing, and they have a common occupational mission—to provide the public with important information that enables them to function in the society. However, journalists complain that public relations practitioners have poor writing skills and are less professional than journalists (Delorme & Fedler, 2003).

Business Pressures.   McManus (1994) asserted that sometimes, news production requires compromises between profit in business and the news values that journalists pursue. Media conglomerates, which also aim to achieve high profits, do not tend to have clear boundaries between newsrooms and the business departments (Underwood, 1993).

For example, sometimes journalists are required to write news stories that place certain organizations in a favorable light because the organizations place a lot of advertisements (Beltz et al., 1984).

Personal relations. In public relations studies set in Asian countries, numerous scholars have found support for the assumption that informal relations influence source-media relationships. Informal relationships are important factors that influence all social interactions in Asian cultures (Hofstede, 1980; Sriramesh, Kim, & Takasaki, 1999). Sinaga and Wu (2007) found that personal connections significantly predicted Indonesian journalists' use of press release materials provided by public relations practitioners. Shin and Cameron (2003a) examined the influences of informal relationship on news and ethical values and found different perceptions of informal relations between journalists and public relations practitioners. Although practitioners perceived great influences of informal relations on the news, journalists reported that they did not think informal relations had a significant affect on news.

Although adversarial relationships between journalists and public relations practitioners were the most common findings in existing research, some studies have not found an adversarial relationship between the two professional groups. Brody (1984) argued that the antipathy between journalists and public relations practitioners is somewhat exaggerated, noting that the tradition of journalism and public relations questioning each other's professional motives is based on 'tradition' not real evidences.

Furthermore, Jeffers (1977) found that journalists were ambivalent in regard to their perceptions of public relations practitioners. According to this study, when

journalists assessed public relations practitioners as an undifferentiated group, they tended to rate practitioners lower than themselves in both professional and status perspectives. However, when they assessed practitioners with whom they had recent contact or practitioners with whom they had recent contact, their ratings were more favorable.

As noted above, a majority of previous studies have portrayed the relationship between journalists and public relations practitioners as less than positive. Existing journalist and public relations practitioner relationship related research can be placed in four major categories, research that addresses the relationship as: interdependent (Sallot, 1993); antagonistic (Cameron et al., 1997); ambivalent (Jeffers, 1977); or somewhat exaggerated (Brody, 1984). Many studies were conducted to explicate this conflictual but inter-dependent relationship by assessing perceptions or cross perceptions of journalists and public relations practitioners.

- Perceptions and cross perceptions of journalists and public relations practitioners.

Beltz et al. (1984) examined cross-perception of journalists and public relations practitioners based on role theory. Role theory has been used broadly in human behavior research. This theory asserts that human behaviors or interactions are somewhat determined by others' expectations, rooted in a metaphor of playing a role in a drama (Beltz et al., 1984). Using Q-methodology, journalists and public relations practitioners were asked how much they agreed on statements that describe roles for their own profession and the roles of the other group's profession. The primary finding was that journalists and public relations practitioners differed significantly in their perspective of

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public relations practitioners' role, but not journalists' role. This result indicated the role of public relations practitioners has intrarole conflict, which means practitioners confront varied expectations from different audiences: peers, employers, and journalists. That is, journalists' standards are different from both peers' and employers' perceptions of public relations practitioners' roles. This study concluded that such intrarole conflict is potentially problematic for public relations practitioners because it is difficult for practitioners to fulfill all standards of their peers, employers, and journalists.

Similarly, Neijens and Smit (2006) examined how Dutch public relations practitioners and journalists perceive one another's role. They categorized the roles of public relations practitioners as informing, influencing, and interacting functions, and the roles of journalists as interpretation, investigation, and information functions. This study found that public relations practitioners and journalists agreed on the importance of both occupations' various functions. The results showed that the two professions did not have negative perception of their relationship. They concluded that although there were differences between the two professions' perspectives in regard to their professional roles, no fundamental problems existed in their relationship.

Other studies have been conducted to assess journalists' and public relations practitioners' perceptions and cross-perceptions on certain issues using the coorientational approach.

Sallot et al. (1998) studied the perceptions and cross-perceptions of journalists and public relations practitioners and found that both groups shared similar concepts regarding news values. However, the journalists believed there was less similarity between the two groups. What is more, there was a difference between the groups in

regard to the agenda-setting role. Public relations practitioners, compared with the journalists, thought public relations practitioners played a greater role in the agenda setting process. Shin and Cameron (2003b) examined whether the traditional conflict between journalists and public relations practitioners would be improved or worsen as a result of the development of online media. In particular, the researchers found that both parties disagreed and inaccurately predicted the opposite party's views, in both online and offline interactions. Also the researchers found that the same conflict that occurred in offline interaction occurred in online interactions. Shin and Cameron (2005) analyzed the perceptions and cross-perceptions of public relations practitioners and journalists toward strategic conflict management and found that the source-reporter relationship was in conflict, and that both groups projected the other group's views inaccurately.

2. Public Relations in South Korea.

The culture of each society affects how organizations operate within that society (Sriramesh et al., 1999). As Hofstede (1980) asserted, communication also influences cultures as a medium for transmission of cultural cues when human beings are acculturated as individuals of either an organization or a society. Considering the strong bonds between culture, organization and communication, scholars and public relations practitioners should acknowledge the culture in which they intend to study or practice public relations (Sriramesh et al., 1999). Therefore, in the current study, it is important to understand how public relations operates in South Korea.

Sriramesh et al. (1999) attempted to analyze public relations in three Asian countries, India, Japan, and South Korea. Using *meta-analysis*, they examined the

effectiveness of J. E. Grunig's original four models, press agentry, public information, two-way asymmetric, and two-way symmetric, in each country. The result strongly supported that the press agentry model is the most common model of public relations practiced in South Korea. Although South Korean practitioners aspired to practice the two-way symmetric communication model, in reality, they admitted to mostly practicing the press agentry and public information models. These characteristics of public relations in South Korea can be explained by the tradition of source-media collaboration in the era of country's dramatic development period (Kim & Hon, 1998), and the Confucianism cultural base, which is commonly found in the Eastern hemisphere.

In South Korea during the 1960s, public relations began to be practiced in organizations nationwide, and public relations academic research began (Choi, 1992). During the 1970s, as private sectors increased exponentially, huge conglomerates, so called "*chaebol*", emerged. As the effect *cheabol*s had on the public increased, they needed to interact with publics beyond advertising (Rhee, 2002). Most public relations activities conducted by conglomerates were focused on publicity designed to defend their corporations from criticism and negative coverage (Kim, 1996; Oh, 1991). During the 1980s, however, as the political environments became democratic and many Korean corporations went global, the public relations role expanded by necessity. The 1998 Olympics, held in South Korea, served as a major impetus for the expansion of public relations as there was a large influx of global corporations entering the country (Kim, 1996).

Another factor that affects the practice of public relations in Korea is Confucianism, which emphasizes hierarchical and informal human relationships, and

proper intrapersonal behaviors according to relations in the hierarchy. The Yi Dynasty, which ruled over Korea for over 50 decades until the early 19th century, adopted Confucianism as an official philosophy (Rhee, 2002). Confucianism has greatly influenced the Korean culture and continues to be pervasive in the country's modern society. Yum (1988) defined Confucianism as a "Philosophy of human nature that considers proper human relationship as the basis of society." The key principles of Confucianism are:

> The basis of society is based on unequal relationships between people; the family is the prototype of all social organizations; Virtuous behavior toward others consists of treating others as one would like to be treated oneself; virtue with regard to one's tasks in life consists of trying to acquire skills and education, working hard, not spending more than necessary, being patient, and persevering (Hofstede & Bond, 1987).

The Confucian culture affects the practices of public relations as well. The traditional standards of Confucianism, such as "Concealing myself is needed at any time," "a metaphor is better than direct exhibition," and "Comparison with others is bad," were applied to public relations activities in South Korea. Those standards made it difficult to practice proactive public relations activities, especially in crisis situations, because organizations tend to conceal the truth (Kim & Hon, 2001). Also, the South Korean public tend to have negative perceptions towards information directly from organizations because of the virtues emphasized by Confucianism. Therefore, public

relations professionals want to communicate with the public via indirect communication tools, primarily the media (Sriramesh et al., 1999). This is why public relations in Korea mainly focus on media relations.

Rhee (2002) attempted to learn whether the global theory of generic principles and specific applications, based on the excellence theory, could be applied to public relations practices in South Korea. That study found that adding collectivism and the dynamic elements of Confucianism would enhance public relations excellence in South Korea.

The Korean culture based on Confucianism explains why a high degree of importance is placed on informal human relationships in South Korean business settings. Several research studies have focused on the importance of informal relationships in South Korean public relations practices. Jo and Kim (2004) examined informal relationships that exist in Korean media relationships and found that personal relationships were an important component of public relations practitioners and journalists establishing effective media relations.

Jo and Kim (2004) developed three-factor model by exploring dimensions that determine media relations in South Korea. Those factors are, establishing personal relationship, providing monetary gifts, and the formal responsibility of public relations. Informal relationships with journalists bear critical value because practitioners often find it difficult to achieve media coverage without personal networks. Also, providing monetary gifts is strongly connected to Confucianism (Kim & Hon, 2001), which stresses loyalty to organizations' authority and social harmony (Kincaid, 1987).

Considering the importance of informal relationships in Korean public relations, this current study includes the fifth dimension of the relationship, face and favor, to the organization-public relationship dimensions in order to measure the relationship between South Korean public relations practitioners and journalists.

3. Organization-Public Relationship Assessment

- *Relationship Perspective in Public Relations*

In the public relations literature, the term 'relationship' is commonly positioned as a core concept. Cutlip, Center and Broom (1985) defined public relations as "the management function that establishes and maintains mutually beneficial relationships between an organization and the publics on whom its success or failure depends" (p.6). That is, public relations can be defined as practices for managing the relationship between organizations and their publics. In this respect, the standardized definition and ability to measure relationships are important for public relations managers and their various publics. Especially, as pressure for accountability within organization continues to increases, practitioners need to demonstrate public relations' meaningful contribution to their organizations' or clients' goals (Johnson, 1994; Kirban, 1983; "Measurement Driving More Programs," 1996). Hon and Grunig (1999) considered why public relations practitioners should have to measure relationship as an outcome. They addressed public relations practitioners' need to have measurement techniques that answer the following broad question, "How can PR practitioners begin to pinpoint and document for senior management the overall value of public relations to the organization as a whole? (p.2)"

Effectiveness measurement methods commonly used in the past are no longer acceptable (Hause, 1993; Wylie & Slovacek, 1984). Hon and Grunig (1999) asserted that most measure techniques that have been conducted in the past were merely evaluating short-term outcomes. A growing number of public relations scholars and practitioners argue that the fundamental goal of public relations is to build and maintain good relationship with key publics, which will bear long-term positive outcomes. Therefore, when a goal is to evaluate public relations' effectiveness, the core concept of public relations, which is 'relationship,' should be measured. Center and Jackson (1995) expressed the essence of public relations as, "The proper term for the desired outcomes of public relations practice is public *relationships*. An organization with effective public relations will attain positive public *relationships*."

- Defining Organization- Public Relationship

In the past, many scholars of public relations have used the term, 'relations' without explaining how to measure it. Rather, they used the term 'relations' assuming that readers would know how to measure relationships as well as agree on the definition of the relationship. As Broom (1977) asserted, the practice is focusing on measuring, analyzing and influencing 'public opinion' rather than 'relations,' even though the definition of public relations includes terms such as *relationships* and *mutual relations* (p. 11). As public relations scholars and practitioners' address the lack of a unified definition and measurement for the relationship concept, Ferguson (1984) defined public relationship as a new paradigm of public relations studies. Since then, public relationship studies began and have now been conducted for more than two decades. Most studies

focused on building theories between relationship and other possible related dependent variables such as, antecedents and outcomes of relationship (Huang, 2001) and relationship maintaining strategies (Broom, Casey, & Ritchey, 1997).

Exploring relationship dimensions and antecedents were done by incorporating relationship components research from other academic areas that frequently address 'relationship' as a central concept, such as interpersonal communication, relationship marketing, inter-organizational communication and psychotherapy.

Broom et al. (1997) reviewed how the term 'relationship' is explicated in various fields, including interpersonal communication, psychotherapy, inter-organizational relationship and systems theory. They found that different perspectives of diverse academic fields regarding relationships resulted in various observations and conclusions. They suggested a systems theory for building public relationship theory. According to systems theorists, relatedness of elements and interdependence are the central concept of their systems definitions. Broom et al. (1997) adopted this notion of systems theory to organization-public relationship:

... Therefore, attributes of those exchanges or transfers represent and define the relationship. At the level of organization-public systems, the attributes of linkages among the participants describe the relationships within the system as well as the structure of the system (p. 94).

Early public relations studies concerning a relationship perspective were

conducted to explicate antecedents and consequences of 'relationship' (Broom et al,

1997; Cutlip et al., 1985).

Antecedents to relationships are the causes or contingencies that have an affect on

relationship formation, such as motives, perceptions, behaviors and needs (Cutlip et al.,

1985, p. 213). To build a relationship between an organization and a public, the two

parties need to have certain aspects in common, such as social and cultural norms,

collective perceptions and expectations, needs for resources, perceptions of uncertain

environment and legal necessity, which can be defined as antecedents (Broom et al.,

1997). The *consequences* of relationships are the results of relationships that influence

on both state of the goal achievement of organization, and internal and external

environments (Cutlip et al., 1985, p. 213). An organization and a public anticipate certain

consequences from the relationship, which include goal achievement, dependency or loss

of autonomy, and routine and institutionalized behavior (Broom et al., 1997).

- Exploring of Organization- Public Relationship Elements

Hon and Grunig (1999) applied the relational features that appeared in the

interpersonal communication literature to the strategies for public relationship

maintenance. Those include features such as, *access, positivity, openness, assurance, and*

networking. They also identified six elements that can indicate the outcomes of long-term

relationships between an organization and its key constituencies: *control mutuality, trust,*

satisfaction, commitment, exchange relationship, and communal relationship. Jo, Hon

and Brunner (2004) empirically tested the OPR elements of Hon and Grunig (1999). The

result showed that Hon and J. E Gruinig's (1999) proposed six-factor model is conceptually meaningful and can be operationalized. They concluded that the model is applicable for measuring relationship between an organization and its publics. Also, the data showed each relationship factor is closely related each other. Ki and Hon (2007) explored how well managed OPR affect that public's attitude and behavioral intention. Among Hon and Grunig's (1999) six indexes, relationship satisfaction was the most significantly influencing factor on students' attitudes about their university. This study also found a strong link between attitude and behavior intention.

In another study, Grunig and Huang (2000) defined four relationship dimensions based on the study of Hon and Grunig (1999), which include trust, control mutuality, relationship satisfaction, and relationship commitment. These four dimensions formed the basic structure of the organization-public relations assessment (OPRA) scale, which they developed to measure the quality of the relationship between an organization and its publics. Later, Huang (2001) added face and favor, which represents the specific cultural characteristic of Asian countries. She found face and favor as an important relational dimension in East Asian societies, which are largely influenced by Confucianism. The OPRA scale developed by Huang (2001) has value in providing global measures as well as specific measures, which enables researchers to assess specific cultural characteristics of East Asian societies.

- Dimensions of Organization-Public Relationship

This current research aims to assess the relational perspective of two professional groups—journalists and public relations practitioners—in a South Korean setting.

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Therefore, it is necessary to consider specific cultural characteristic of East Asia, in which Korea is geographically located. In this respect, the OPRA scale developed by Huang (2001) is appropriate for the current study because it includes both global measures (trust, control mutuality, relationship satisfaction, and relationship commitment) and specific relationship measure (face and favor) for East Asian settings.

Trust is perceived to be an important value for organizations to maintain relationships with their publics. According to Canary and Cupach's definition (1988), trust is "a willingness to risk oneself because the relational partner is perceives as benevolent and honest" (p.308). Parks, Heneger, and Scamahorn (1996) defined trust as a belief that someone will not take advantage of one's good intention (Yamagishi, 1986). From the perspective of marketing communication, Morgan and Hunt (1994) defined trust as, "existing when one party has confidence in an exchange partner's reliability and integrity" (p.23). Trust is a critical concept in interpersonal relationship (Canary & Cupach, 1988) and organizational communication as well (Fitchen, Hearth, & Ressenden-Raden, 1987; Krimsky & Plough, 1988; National Research Council, 1989).

Summing up the definitions of trust in a range of disciplines, Huang (2001) proposed that, "trust highlights one's confidence in and willingness to open oneself up to fair and aboveboard dealings with one other party" (p.66). Hon and Grunig (1999) defined trust as "one party's level of confidence in and willingness to open oneself to the other party" (p.14). They maintained that trust is so complicated that it has several underlying dimensions: integrity, dependability, and competence. Integrity is the belief that an organization treats the public fairly and justly. Dependability is the belief that an

organization will keep promises that it makes, and competence is the belief that an organization has the ability to do what it promises.

Trust has been recognized as one of the fundamental elements of relationships. Huang's (1999) research supports that an organization's execution of ethical and two-way communication can enhance trust between the organization and its key constituencies. In addition, Hon and Grunig (1999) emphasized the importance of trust in the context of an organization's reputation.

The second dimension of relationship, *control mutuality* is defined as, "the degree to which partners agree about which of them should decide relational goals and behavioral routines" (Stafford & Canary, 1991; p.224) or "the degree to which parties agree on who has rightful power to influence one another" (Hon & Grunig, 1999; p. 14). Jo (2006) defined control mutuality as "the extent to which each party's voice can be heard in the final outcome" (p.229).

Huang (1999)'s study found that control mutuality and trust are the two major variables that can mediate the effectiveness of public relations strategies in regard to conflict resolution. This study showed that control mutuality between an organization and its publics can enhance the possibilities of finding constructive solutions for conflict situations or to achieve support from third parties. Therefore, control mutuality is very closely related to public relations practices, especially public relations' manner of trying to be ethical and symmetrical. Building some degree of control mutuality with their public is crucial for organizations to have a positive and stable relationship with their publics (Huang, 2001). L. A. Grunig, J. E. Grunig, and Doizer (2002) asserted that empowerment to every member in the organization need to be distinguished from

possessing power over other members. From their perspective, control mutuality is empowerment to every party, including an organization, which participates in decision-making processes.

Relationship satisfaction refers to the degree of satisfaction a particular public has in regard to its relationship with an organization. Hon and Grunig (1999) defined relation satisfaction as, "the extent which one party feels favorably toward the other because positive expectations about the relationship are reinforced" (p. 14). As Hendrick (1988) suggested, relationship satisfaction is one of the major variables that can assess feelings, thoughts, or behaviors in interpersonal relationships. Therefore, relation satisfaction can be measured by thought, feelings, or behaviors shared between an organization and its publics (Ferguson, 1984). In this respect, relationship satisfaction differs from control mutuality and trust as it includes cognitions, such as affection and emotion (Huang, 2001). Hon and Grunig (1999) asserted that satisfaction occurs when one feels that benefits from the relationship exceed costs that one input, or when one feels that other party's relationship maintenance behaviors are positive.

Hon and Grunig (1999) defined *relationship commitment* as, "the extent to which one party believes and feels that the relationship is worth spending energy to maintain and promote" (p.14), and Moorman, Zaltman, & Deshpande (1992) defined commitment as "an enduring desire to maintain a valued relationship" (p.93). Hon and Grunig (1999) asserted that there are two aspects of the commitment; affective commitment and continuous commitment (Hon & Grunig, 1999). Affective commitment is an positive emotional feeling the public has toward an organization and the continuous commitment is the public's intention to continue certain actions, such as using the products of given

organizations (Meyer & Allen, 1984). For example, from a marketing perspective, a commitment can be perceived as brand loyalty.

These four dimensions of organization and public relationship are based on the Western literature. Huang (2001) added another dimension "face and favor (*mianzi* and *renqing*)." Huang (2001) explained *face and favor* as "maintaining face or doing a face-work in front of others is important in social interactions, especially for expanding or enhancing human networks" (p. 69). Also, Kim (1996) explained face and favor as face saving works to save one's social dignity in order to keep social respectability.

The face and favor dimension originated from an Eastern relationship value. Eastern countries have a more hierarchical social structure. A high level of respect is accorded to elders and seniors. Moreover, many studies have shown that Eastern countries, as compared to Western countries, tend to be more collectivistic (Rhee, 2002; Yang, 1981; Yum, 1988). These characteristics of Eastern culture can be characterized as relationship oriented (Bond & Hwang, 1986; Hwang, 1987) or socially oriented (Yang, 1981). Face and favor is a strategy that people use to acquire resources from people who allocate them and to build human networks (Hwang, 1987).

A face (*mianzi*) strategy is another important strategy to build relationship and social networks in China. To build a close relationship, people deliberately set social interactions, take care of others with personal interactions, and behave in specific protocols that can make an attractive and powerful image, which may motivate others to build a good relationship with them (Bond & Hwang, 1986).

Hwang (1987) explained that favor (*renqing*) can be maintained with two basic types of behaviors:

(1) Ordinarily, one should keep in contact with the acquaintances in one's

social networks, exchanging gifts, greetings, or visitations with them from time

to time and (2) when a member of one's reticulum gets into trouble or faces a

difficult situation, one should sympathizes, offer help, and do 'renqing' for that

person (p. 954).

- How to Measure Organization-Public Relationship?

Since 1980s, when organization- public relationship began to be considered as a

major paradigm of public relations study, many public relations scholars worked to build

valid and reliable relationship measures (Kim, 2001). Most techniques developed to

measure relationships focused on assessing relationship perceptions. These perceptual

measures can be administered either one-way or two-way (Hon & Grunig, 1999; Kim,

2001).

However, most OPR perceptions were measured from only one party. Hon and

Grunig (1999) asserted, "At some point, public relations researchers should measure

relationships as seen or predicted by both parties. This evaluation would document how

organizational decision makers see the relationship as well as how publics see the

organization" (p.25). Hon and Grunig (1999) suggested, for the future research, that the

two-way measurement techniques would be helpful to assess the perceptual gap between

the two parties. Such a gap analysis will provide more insights about the relationship

status, which will help public relations practitioners build strategies that can maintain and

or repair relationships. The two-way measure technique in public relations incorporates the coorientational model of interpersonal communication (Kim, 2001).

4. Coorientational approach

The coorientational approach provides a means to analyze the perceptual balance between an organization and its publics toward certain issues, which can provide a better understanding of both parties' beliefs, and help organizations learn more about the source of conflicts. The coorientational approach has been applied in many communication studies to assess the conflict of the source-reporter relationship.

Stegall and Sanders (1986) studied the coorientation of public relations practitioners and news personnel in regard to education to assess the different perspectives on the roles of public relations practitioners and journalists in educational news fields. They found journalists' and public relations practitioners' relationships less adversarial than suggested by Jeffers (1977). Sallot et al. (1998) also used the coorientation model to examine the perception and cross-perception; the results showed that journalists and practitioners had similar perceptions regarding news values. However, the results showed journalists' lack of awareness of that similarity.

Shin and Cameron (2003a; 2003b; 2005) also applied the coorientational approach to assess agreement and congruency between journalists' and public relations practitioners' perceptions on diverse issues. Shin and Cameron (2003a) assessed public relations practitioners' and journalists' perceptions of the influences of informal relations on the news and how each group perceived the ethics of informal relations. The two

groups showed significantly different perceptions regarding the influence of informal relations on the news, and the ethics of informal relations that existed between them. Practitioners as compared to the journalists perceived greater influence of informal relations on news coverage contents. Also, practitioners perceived informal relations as more ethical or acceptable in practice than did the journalists.

In addition, Shin and Cameron (2003b) studied the conflict between public relations practitioners' and journalists' perspectives regarding the potential of online media, and found that both groups disagreed and inaccurately predicted the other's views. However, respondents in both groups predicted less conflict of source-reporter relationship in an online environment. Furthermore, Shin and Cameron (2005) also used the coorientational approach to examine public relations practitioners' and journalists' different views toward strategic conflict management. The results exhibited the "mixed views" of the two groups on dimensions of "conflict" and "strategy." Both professions failed to agree and failed to predict the other's perceptions accurately.

The coorientation model begins with the notion that the organization-public relationship is affected by what the organization and the public knows and thinks about the related issue and each other's perception regarding the issue. That is, the level of the public's knowledge about the organization and the related issue affects the relationship between the organization and its public. Likewise, an organization's knowledge about its publics and the issue at hand affects the relationship between the organization and the public. Similarly, how individuals inside the organization and the public estimate what the other side thinks about the related issue also has an affect on the organization- public relationship (Broom & Doizer, 1990). Therefore, in order to manage the organization-

public relationship effectively, organizations should audit not only their publics'

perceptions but also their own perceptions (Broom & Doizer, 1990).

Broom (1977) offered four questions to assess cross perceptions for a public

relations audit:

1. What are the organization's views on the issue?

2. What is the dominant view within the organization of the public's views?

3. What are the public's actual views on the issue?

4. What is the dominant view within the public of the organization's views?

The answers to these questions make it possible to measure three variables of the

coorientational approach: agreement, accuracy, and perceived agreement as illustrated in

Figure 1 (McLeod & Chaffee, 1973).

Figure 1. The coorientational model (McLeod & Chaffee, 1973)
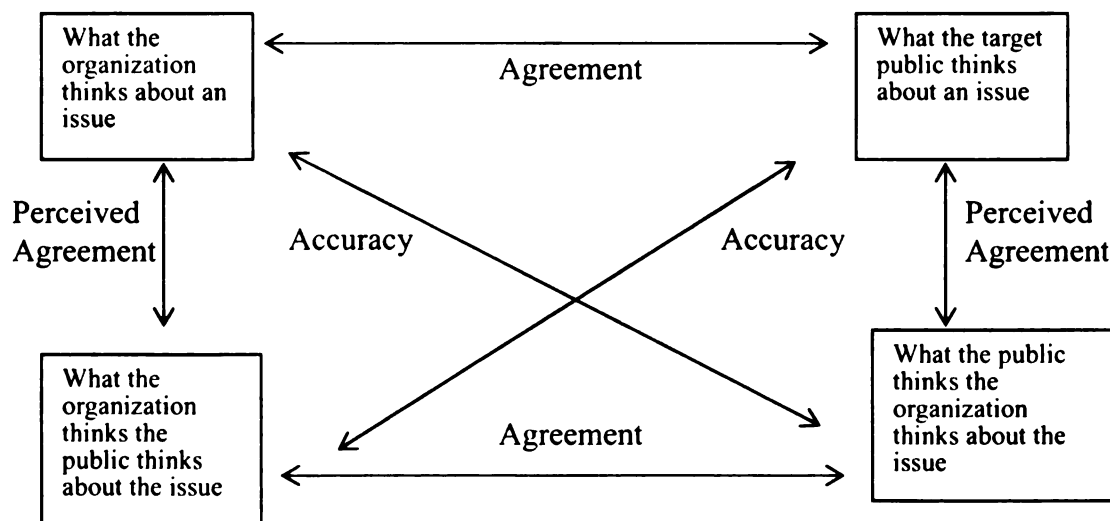
Agreement shows how two parties actually agree on a certain issue, and accuracy signifies the extent to which one side's estimation is similar to the other side's actual view of the issue. Perceived agreement indicates the extent to which estimations of the other's view is congruent with their own views (Broom & Doizer, 1990).

Seltzer (2006) suggested measuring the organization-public relationship using the coorientational model and attempted to establish a model (Figure 2) to evaluate the organization-public relations in integration by including both parties (organization and public) using the organization-public relationship scale developed by Hon and Grunig (1999). The model proposed by Seltzer (2006) is applied to the framework for the current study.

Figure 2. The coorientational model of relationship (adopted from study of Broom & Doizer,1990)

(Seltzer, 2006)
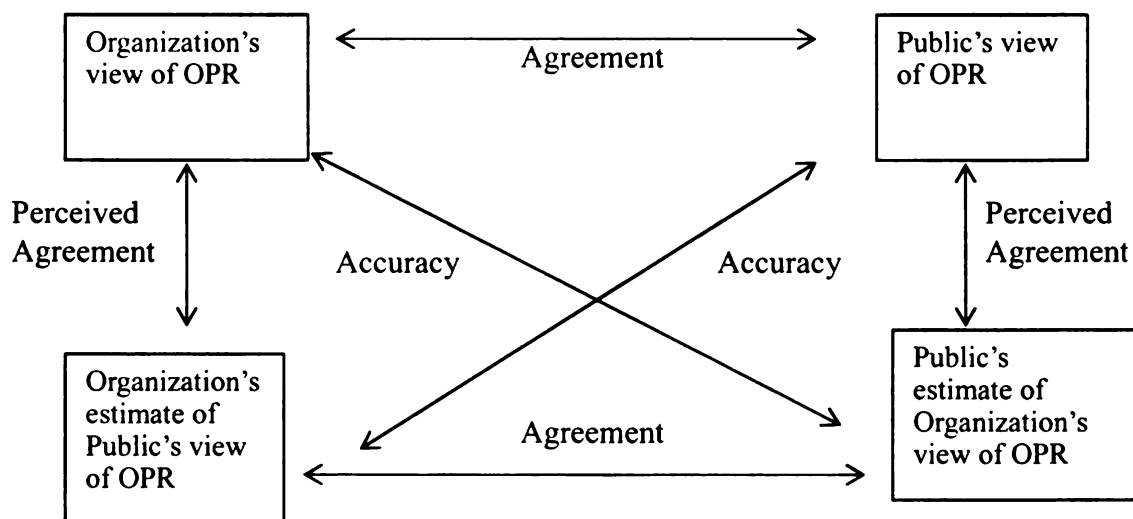
III. HYPOTHESES

The basic question of this study is, 'How do South Korean public relations practitioners and journalists differ in their perceptions of their relationship?' Existing research indicates that a gap exists between public relations practitioners' and journalists' perceptions and that of the two groups journalists perceive the gap to be larger. In order to examine this phenomenon in a South Korean setting, the following hypotheses are posed (see Figure 3):

H1: PR practitioners and journalists will disagree on their relationship quality.

H2: Both professions will inaccurately estimate the other's own perceptions of relationship quality.

H2a: Journalists will inaccurately estimate PR practitioners' perceptions of their relationship quality.

H2b: PR practitioners will inaccurately estimate journalists' perceptions of their relationship quality.

H2c: PR practitioners will estimate more accurately what journalists think about their relationship than journalists will estimate what PR practitioners think about their relationship

H3: Both professions' perceptions will not be congruent with their estimations of the other's perceptions of their relationship quality.

H3a: PR practitioners' perception of the relationship quality will not be congruent with their projections of journalists' perception.

H3b: Journalists' perception of the relationship quality will not be

congruent with their projections of PR practitioners' perception.

Figure 3. The framework of the research

H1: Agree

What the PR practitioners think about J-PR relationship

What the journalists think about J-PR relationship

H3a: Perceived agreement   **H2a**: Accurate   **H2b**: Accurate   **H3b**: Perceived agreement

What the PR practitioners think the journalists think about J-PR relationship

What the journalists think the PR practitioners think about J-PR relationship
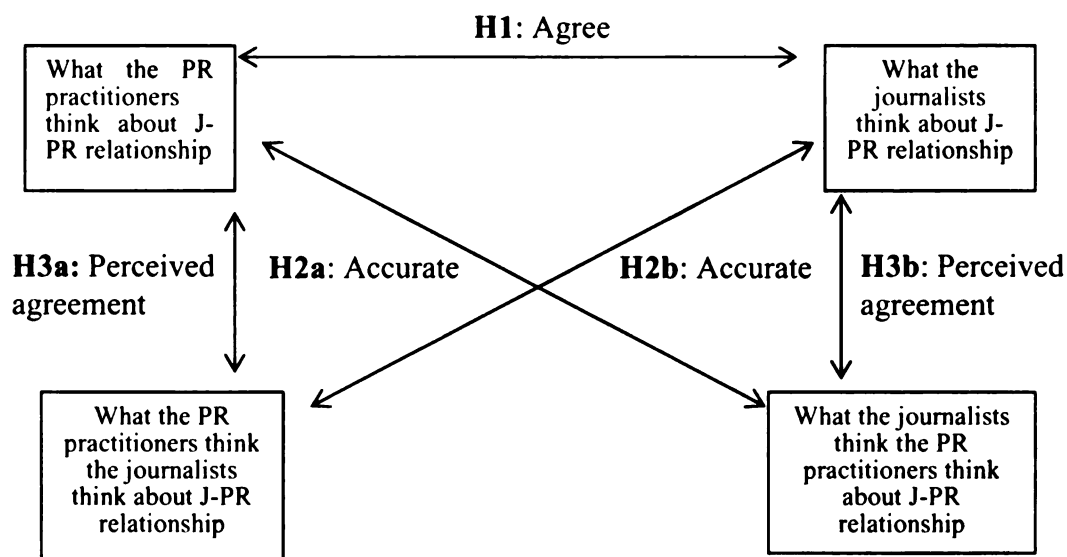
IV. METHOD

Survey methodology is used in this study. Systematic random sampling was administered to maximize reliability. The current study's analysis method replicated the Shin and Cameron (2003a)'s research method, which used the coorientation model to examine perceptions and cross-perceptions of the informal relationship that exists between public relations practitioners and journalists. This study, using coorientational analysis method, examined South Korean journalists' and practitioners' perceptions and cross-perceptions of their relationship.

- Independent and Dependent Variables

This study examined South Korean public relations practitioners' and journalists' self-perceptions and cross-perceptions on five relational dimensions developed by Huang (2001), and examined the extend of agreement, accuracy, and congruency of the two groups' relational perceptions.

Therefore, the professions (public relations practitioners or journalists) each respondent belong to are the independent variables, while the degrees of agreement, accuracy, and congruency of the two professions' perceptions drawn from the coorientational analyses are the dependent variables.

- Scale

The OPRA scale, a cross-cultural and multiple item scale, developed by Huang (2001) to measure organization-public relationships, is used in this study. The scale consists of five relationship dimensions: *trust, control mutuality, relationship satisfaction, relationship commitment,* and *face and favor.* Existing research (Jo & Kim, 2004; Kim, 1996; Oh, 1991; Rhee, 2002; Yum, 1988) supports that South Korean culture and business are largely relationship and socially oriented based on the country's Confucianism foundation. Therefore, measuring the personal relationship between Korean public relations practitioners and journalists will provide insight regarding the importance and influence of personal relationships on the source-reporter relationship. Therefore, the face and favor component of OPRA scale is of value in the current study. The initial OPRA scale has high validity and reliability (Huang, 2001; See Appendix 1).

- Development of Questionnaire

The questionnaires for this study applied OPRA items developed by Huang (2001) to measure the relationship between public relations practitioners and journalists. The relationship measure questions are divided into two parts; one is to assess the respondents' perceptions and the other is to assess respondents' projection of the opposite group's perceptions (See Appendix 2). For example, an item designed to measure journalists' perception of 'trust' will appear twice in the first part and the second part as follows:

- *Public relations practitioners are truthful with us.*

- *I think that public relations practitioners think journalists are truthful with them.*

Each question used a seven-point Likert-type scale, where one is 'strongly disagree', and seven is 'strongly agree'. In addition to the relationship-based questions, demographic variables, including gender, education, organization size, type of the organization, and years of experience were included.

The questionnaires were translated into Korean by the researcher, and pretested with six Koreans: two public relations practitioners, two journalists, and two students who are studying in unrelated fields, to test whether the translated questionnaire was understood clearly.

- Survey Method

The survey population included public relations practitioners and journalists working in South Korea at the time of the survey. Public relations practitioners who are

employed in both corporate and agency settings were included as were journalists employed in both the print and electronic media. A members' list of the Korea Public Relations Association (KPRA: www.koreapr.org) for public relations practitioners and the Korea Press Foundation (KPF: www.kpf.or.kr) for journalists were used to generate the systematic sample. From those lists, 6,000 public relations practitioners' and 3,000 of journalists' email addresses were generated. More email addresses of public relations practitioners were eventually collected and used because the KPRA list also included students and scholars who are either studying or are interested in public relations.

An online web survey program provided by a private company, 'SurveyMonkey (www.surveymonkey.com)' was used. This site provides user-friendly survey tools that facilitate online web surveys, which provided a means to build web questionnaires professionally and collect data automatically. Moreover, the web survey provided easy access and navigation for respondents. Emails that contained a description of the study and the online survey page URL were sent from December 2006 to March 2007.

- Respondents

Table 1 shows demographic variables of respondents of this research. Of the 250 usable responses, 121 were public relations practitioners and 129 were journalists. Of the 120 public relations practitioners who participated in the survey, the percentage of females was higher than males (female: 52.1% / male: 47.1%). However, the majority of journalists who responded to the survey were male (female: 20.9% / male: 79.1%). Traditionally the journalist profession has been male-dominated in South Korea.

In regard to organization type, 63.3% of practitioners worked for corporations'

public relations teams and 34% worked for public relations agencies. Of the journalists,

53.5% were employed as newspaper journalists and 34.9% were employed by

broadcasting companies. All respondents of both groups have at least a college degree,

and 25.6% of practitioners, and 31.0% of journalists have master's degrees. Also, four

journalists and one practitioner reported having Ph.D. degrees.

Table 1. Respondents' demographic variables

PR Practitioners		Variables		Journalists	
Frequency	Percent			Frequency	Percent
		<Gender>			
57	47.1	Male		102	79.1
63	52.1	Female		27	20.9
		<Org. Type>			
77	63.6	Inhouse	Newspaper	69	53.5
34	28.1	Agency	Broadcast	45	34.9
2	1.7	Ad agency	Magazine	2	1.6
			Online	8	6.2
7	5.8	Other	Other	5	3.9
		<Education>			
87	71.9	College		82	63.6
31	25.6	Master		40	31.0
1	.8	Ph.D.		4	3.1
1	.8	Other		1	.8
		<Org.Size- #of employees>			
24	19.8	~20		6	4.7
14	11.6	20~50		10	7.8
12	9.9	50~100		12	9.3
11	9.1	100~200		13	10.1
20	16.5	200~500		43	33.3
39	32.2	500~		45	34.9
		<Year of experience>			
21	17.4	~2		3	2.3
35	28.9	2~5		24	18.6
34	28.1	5~10		42	32.6
19	15.7	10~15		38	29.5
7	5.8	15~20		15	11.6
3	2.5	20~		7	5.4

– Reliability

Means and reliability scales (Cronbach's alpha) are summarized in Table 2 and Table 3. For the items of the self-perceptions of public relations practitioners, the values of Cronbach's alpha for trust, control mutuality, relationship satisfaction, relationship commitment, and face and favor are .72, .59, .48, .64, .73, and for the items of the public relations practitioners' estimations, the values of Cronbach's alpha for trust, control mutuality, relationship satisfaction, relationship commitment, and face and favor are .75, .53, .67, .68, .81, respectively. Also, for the items of the self-perceptions of journalists, the values of Cronbach's alpha for trust, control mutuality, relationship satisfaction, relationship commitment, and face and favor are .64, .55, .62, .56, .55, and for the items of journalists' estimations, the values of Cronbach's alpha for trust, control mutuality, relationship satisfaction, relationship commitment, and face and favor are .75, .59, .47, .62, .76, respectively. Reliability scales of some constructs are high enough, but some others are not. Possible causes of the reliability problems will be discussed in the limitations section.

Table 2. Mean and reliability of each variable (PR practitioners)

Dimension	PR's self-perceptions				PR's estimations			
	Variable Name	M	SD	α	Variable Name	M	SD	α
Trust	PRJtruthful	3.79	1.21		PRJEtruthful	3.65	1.22	
	PRJjust	3.31	1.26		PRJEjust	3.69	1.17	
	PRJtrust	3.89	1.39		PRJEtrust	4.24	1.27	
	PRJpromis	3.89	1.25		PRJEpromis	4.75	1.12	
Overall M		3.72		.72		4.08		.75
Control Mutuality	PRJsatiswo	3.74	1.07		PRJEsatiswo	4.37	1.10	
	PRJequal	2.52	1.22		PRJEequal	3.20	1.38	
	PRJmutual	4.78	1.09		PRJEmutual	4.37	1.05	
	PRJsymm	5.60	1.26		PRJEsymm	4.72	1.32	
Overall M		4.17		.59		4.17		.53
Relationship Satisfaction	PRJneed	4.84	1.34		PRJEneed	4.74	1.20	
	PRJprobrel	3.75	1.35		PRJEprobrel	4.71	1.02	
	PRJsatisfy	3.65	1.15		PRJEsatisfy	4.41	1.01	
	PRJrelation	4.40	.98		PRJErelation	4.40	.95	
Overall M		4.17		.48		4.57		.67
Relationship commitment	PRJcontirel	4.40	1.75		PRJEcontirel	4.84	1.45	
	PRJmainrel	6.15	.93		PRJEmainrel	5.11	1.27	
	PRJlongrela	5.90	1.17		PRJElongrela	4.89	1.15	
	PRJinteract	4.88	1.58		PRJEinteract	4.61	1.36	
Overall M		5.33		.64		4.86		.68
Face and Favor	PRJperson	4.83	1.24		PRJEperson	4.73	1.36	
	PRJfavor	3.92	1.27		PRJEfavor	5.38	1.24	
	PRJface	4.03	1.25		PRJEface	5.21	1.21	
	PRJloseface	3.07	1.16		PRJEloseface	5.24	1.25	
Overall M		3.96		.73		5.15		.81

Table 3. Mean and reliability of each variable (Journalists)

Dimension	Journalists' self-perceptions				Journalists's estimations			
	Variable Name	M	SD	α	Variable Name	M	SD	α
Trust	JPRtruthful	3.44	1.14		JPREtruthful	3.18	1.14	
	JPRjust	2.87	1.20		JPREjust	3.21	1.16	
	JPRtrust	4.13	1.15		JPREtrust	3.58	1.36	
	JPRpromis	4.77	1.22		JPREpromis	3.65	1.31	
Overall M		3.80		.64		3.41		.75
Control Mutuality	JPRsatiswo	3.83	.99		JPREsatiswo	3.52	1.08	
	JPRequal	2.50	1.10		JPREequal	2.74	1.20	
	JPRmutual	4.24	1.22		JPREmutual	3.97	1.07	
	JPRsymm	5.00	1.01		JPREsymm	4.82	1.26	
Overall M		3.89		.55		3.76		.59
Relationship Satisfaction	JPRneed	4.16	1.23		JPREneed	4.52	1.18	
	JPRprobrel	4.29	1.14		JPREprobrel	4.24	1.22	
	JPRsatisfy	3.77	1.20		JPREsatisfy	3.55	1.11	
	JPRrelation	4.35	.99		JPRErelation	4.04	1.05	
Overall M		4.14		.62		4.09		.47
Relationship commitment	JPRcontirel	4.75	1.43		JPREcontirel	4.00	1.63	
	JPRmainrel	5.24	1.06		JPREmainrel	5.60	1.17	
	JPRlongrela	4.57	1.31		JPRElongrela	5.08	1.33	
	JPRinteract	4.23	1.47		JPREinteract	4.12	1.46	
Overall M		4.70		.56		4.70		.62
Face and Favor	JPRperson	5.05	1.21		JPREperson	4.95	1.15	
	JPRfavor	4.68	1.03		JPREfavor	4.52	1.08	
	JPRface	4.59	1.09		JPREface	4.43	.96	
	JPRloseface	4.10	1.32		JPREloseface	3.96	1.15	
Overall M		4.61		.55		4.47		.76

V. RESULTS

- Self-perceptions of public relations practitioners and journalists

The results indicated that both professions have somewhat neutral perceptions of their relationships. Both groups' overall relationship perception scores, which are the means of all the dimensions' means, were 4.27 for practitioners and 4.22 for journalists. Also, most of mean scores of dimensions were in the range of three to five, except the

score of public relations practitioners' score for relationship commitment (M = 5.33).

Both groups rated the dimension of relationship commitment most positively (M of PR= 5.33/ M of J = 4.70), and the dimension of trust most negatively (M of PR= 3.72/ M of J = 3.80).

Table 4. Self-perceptions of public relations practitioners and journalists

Dimension	Mean of PR practitioners' self-perception	Mean of journalists' self-perception
Trust	3.72	3.80
Control Mutuality	4.17	3.89
Relationship Satisfaction	4.17	4.14
Relationship Commitment	5.33	4.70
Face and Favor	3.96	4.61
Overall Relationship	4.27	4.22

- *Agreement*

To assess the agreement between practitioners' and journalists' perceptions of their relationship, between-subject tests (independent sample t-test) were conducted. Every analysis used this study performed the Bonferroni corrections, in order to avoid spurious positives that occur when several independent or dependent t-tests are performed simultaneously (Weisstein, 2004). The alpha values were divided into five, the number of the tests conducted at the same time. Therefore, this study used .01 for the alpha value.

Table 4 exhibits the means of practitioners' and journalists' self-perceptions of each dimension and overall relational perception. The overall perception is the mean of scores of all dimensions. The overall relationship perceptions were not significantly different (t(248)= .66, *n.s*), which means <Hypothesis 1: PR practitioners and journalists

will disagree on their relationship quality.> was not supported. However, the comparison of two groups' self-perceptions in each dimension revealed disagreements.

Trust: Both professions perceived the quality of trust most negatively (M of PR = 3.72 / M of J = 3.80) among relationship dimensions, and there was no significant difference in the trust dimension (t(248) = - .68, *n.s*). This result indicates that public relations practitioners and journalists do not trust each other at a similar level.

Control Mutuality: Public relations practitioners and journalists showed different perspectives on control mutuality (t(248)= 3.02, *p* < .01). Both groups had somewhat neutral perspectives (M of PR = 4.17 / M of J = 3.88), and practitioners rated slightly higher on control mutuality than journalists. Although the reliability scores of the control mutuality dimensions of practitioners' and journalists' self-perceptions are low (Cronbach's α of PR = .59 / Cronbach's α of J = .55), the result reveals significant difference between the two professions in their perspectives regarding control mutuality.

Relationship Satisfaction: It cannot be concluded from this result that the two professions agree on the relationship satisfaction quality because the reliability scores of both groups' self-perceptions on relationship satisfaction are low as well (Cronbach's α of PR= .48 / Cronbach's α of J= .62). Therefore, this result cannot be reported as explaining the two groups' agreement on relationship satisfaction.

Relationship Commitment: Both groups perceived the relationship commitment dimension most positively (M of PR = 5.33 / M of Journalists = 4.70), but they did not agree on the level of relationship commitment quality (t(248) = 5.50, p < .001). Although the reliability scores of both groups' self-perceptions on relationship commitment are low (Cronbach's α of PR = .64 / Cronbach's α of J = .56), the result was significant.

Face and Favor: The two groups reported the biggest difference in regard to the face and favor dimension ($t(234.04) = -6.07$, $p < .001$). Journalists as compared to public relations practitioners were more positive regarding the face and favor dimension (M of PR = 3.96 / M of Journalists = 4.61).

Table 5. Agreement

Dimension	Mean of PR practitioners' self-perception	Mean of journalists' self-perception	Mean Differences	t-values	Sig. (2-tailed)
Trust	3.72	3.80	-0.08	-0.68	.495
Control Mutuality	4.17	3.88	0.29	3.02	.003
Relationship Satisfaction	4.17	4.14	0.03	0.34	.733
Relationship Commitment	5.33	4.70	0.64	5.50	.000
Face and Favor	3.96	4.61	-0.64	-6.07	.000
Overall Relationship	4.27	4.22	0.05	0.66	.509

- Accuracy

To measure the accuracy of each group's estimation of the other group's perception on their relationship, between-subject tests (independent sample t-test) were conducted. The results supported the related hypotheses, <**Hypothesis 2a:** Journalists will inaccurately estimate PR practitioners' perception of their relationship quality> and <**Hypothesis 2b:** PR practitioners will inaccurately estimate journalists' perception of their relationship quality>. However, <**Hypothesis 2c:** PR practitioners will estimate more accurately what journalists think about their relationship than journalists will estimate what PR practitioners think about their relationship.> was not supported.

Table 6 shows the comparisons of each group's self-perceptions and estimations of their counterpart's self-perceptions. This comparison shows how accurately each group estimated their counterpart's perceptions.

Overall, public relations practitioners thought that journalists would perceive the relationship with practitioners better than the journalists actually did (M of PR practitioners' estimation = 4.55 vs. M of J' self-perception= 4.22, t(248) = 4.41, p < .001). Journalists estimated practitioners' self perceptions more negative than what practitioners' actually perceive (M of J' estimation = 4.08 vs. M of PR' self-perception = 4.27, t(248) = -2.64, p < .01). The mean differences (PR = .33/ J = -.19) between estimation of counterpart's perceptions and counterpart's real perceptions shows that journalists estimated practitioners' perceptions more accurately than practitioners estimated journalists'.

Trust: Both groups failed to estimate accurately their counterpart's actual perceptions on the trust dimensions (M of PR's estimations = 4.09, M of J's perceptions = 3.80, t(248) = 2.71, p < .01 / , M of J's estimations = 3.41, M of PR's perceptions = 3.72, t(246.48) = - 2.61, p < .01).

Control Mutuality: Both professions did not estimate accurately their counterpart's self-perceptions of the control mutuality dimension (M of PR's estimations = 4.15, M of J's perceptions = 3.88, t(248) = 2.79, p < .01/ , M of J's estimations = 3.77, M of PR's perceptions = 4.17, t(248) = -4.13, p < .001).

Relationship Satisfaction: For the relationship satisfaction dimension, the public relations practitioners fail to estimate the journalists' self-perceptions accurately (M of PR's estimations = 4.55, M of J's perceptions = 4.14, t(248) = 4.20, p < .001). Although

there was no significant difference between journalists' estimations and practitioners' self-perceptions (t(248)= - .83, *n.s*), this result cannot conclude that journalists estimated practitioners' perceptions accurately because the reliability of this dimension is low (Cronbach's α of J's estimation = .47 / Cronbach's α of PR's self-perception = .48).

Relationship Commitment: There was significant difference between journalists' estimations and practitioners' self-perceptions (M of J's estimations = 4.67, M of PR's perceptions = 5.33, t(248) = -5.39, *p* < .001). However, practitioners' estimations were not significantly different from journalists' perceptions (M of PR's estimations = 4.84, M of J's perceptions = 4.70, t(248) = 1.25, *n.s*).

Face and Favor: Both professions did not estimate the other group's perceptions accurately in regard to the face and favor (M of PR's estimations = 5.15, M of J's perceptions = 4.61, t(222.86) = 4.77, *p* < .001 / M of J's estimations = 4.46, M of PR's perceptions = 3.96, t(248) = 4.54, *p* < .001).

Table 6. Accuracy

	Dimension	Mean of PR practitioners' estimation	Mean of journalists' self-perception	Mean Differences	t-values	Sig. (2-tailed)
Accuracy of PR practitioners' estimations	Trust	4.09	3.80	0.29	2.71	.007
	Control Mutuality	4.15	3.88	0.27	2.79	.006
	Relationship Satisfaction	4.55	4.14	0.41	4.20	.000
	Relationship Commitment	4.84	4.70	0.14	1.25	.124
	Face and Favor	5.15	4.61	0.54	4.77	.000
	Overall Relationship	4.55	4.22	0.33	4.41	.000

	Dimension	Mean of journalists' estimation	Mean of PR practitioners' self-perception	Mean Differences	t-values	Sig. (2-tailed)
Accuracy of journalists' estimations	Trust	3.41	3.72	-0.31	-2.61	.010
	Control Mutuality	3.77	4.17	-0.40	-4.13	.000
	Relationship Satisfaction	4.09	4.17	-0.08	-0.83	.410
	Relationship Commitment	4.67	5.33	-0.66	-5.39	.000
	Face and Favor	4.46	3.96	0.50	4.54	.000
	Overall Relationship	4.08	4.27	-0.19	-2.64	.009

- *Congruency*

Table 7 shows how each group of journalists and public relations practitioners shows congruency between self-perceptions and estimations of other group's perceptions. To compare mean of each group's self perceptions and estimation, within-subject tests (paired sample t-test) were conducted. The results supported related hypotheses; <**Hypothesis 3a:** PR practitioners' perceptions of the relationship quality will not be congruent with their projections of journalists' perception> and <**Hypothesis 3b:** Journalists' perceptions of the relationship quality will not be congruent with their projections of PR practitioners' perceptions>.

The results of within-subject tests showed that each group estimated the other group's perceptions differently from their own perceptions (M of PR's self-perception = 4.17, M of PR's estimation = 4.55, $t(120)=-4.54, p< .001$ M of J's self-perception = 4.22, M of J's estimation = 4.08 / $t(128)=3.02, p< .01$).

Trust: Both professions estimated the other group's perceptions would be incongruent with their own perceptions in regard to the trust dimension. Practitioners estimated journalists' perceptions more positive than their own perceptions, and journalists estimated practitioners' perceptions more negatively. (M of PR's self-perception = 3.72, M of PR's estimation = 4.09, $t(120)=-4.18, p< .001$ / M of J's self-perception = 3.80, M of J's estimation = 3.41 / $t(128)=5.28, p< .001$).

Control Mutuality: Both groups' estimations of the other's perceptions were not significantly different from their own perceptions (PR: $t(120)=. 31, n.s$ / J: $t(120)= 1.78,$ n.s). However, it cannot be concluded that each group estimated other group's perception congruently with their own perception in regard to the control mutuality dimension, because the reliability scores of this dimension are low (Cronbach's α of PR's self-perception = .59, Cronbach's α of PR's estimation = .53 / Cronbach's α of J's self-perception = .54, Cronbach's α of J's estimation = .59).

Relationship Satisfaction: For this dimension, practitioners' estimations of journalists' perceptions were significantly different from practitioners' self-perceptions. Practitioners estimated journalists' perception of relationship satisfaction more positively than their own perceptions (M of PR's self-perception = 4.17, M of PR's estimation = 4.55, $t(120) = -4.14, p < .001$). On the other hand, there was no significant difference between journalists' estimations and their own perceptions ($t(120) = .64,$ n.s). However,

the reliability scores of relationship satisfaction dimension is low as well (Cronbach's α of J's self-perception = .62, Cronbach's α of J's estimation = .47).

Relationship Commitment: Public relations practitioners estimated that journalists were less committed in their relationship than were the practitioners (M of PR's self-perception = 5.33, M of PR's estimation = 4.84), t(120) = 4.07, $p < .001$). However, there was no significant difference in journalists' estimation and their own perceptions (t(120) = .24), but the reliability scores for relationship commitment dimension was low as well (Cronbach's α of J's self-perception = .56, Cronbach's α of J's estimation = .62)

Face and Favor: For the face and face dimension, public relations practitioners had incongruent estimations of journalists' perceptions with their own perceptions. Practitioners estimated journalists' perceptions of this dimension more positively than practitioners' own perceptions (M of PR's self perception = 3.96, M of PR's estimation= 5.15, t(120) = -10.99, $p < .001$). However, the results did not show a significant difference in journalists' estimations of practitioners' perceptions and their own perceptions (t(120) = 1.80, *n.s*).

Table 7. Congruency

	Dimension	Mean of PR practitioners' self-perception	Mean of PR practitioners' estimations	Mean Differences	t-values	Sig. (2-tailed)
Congruency of PR practitioners' perceptions	Trust	3.72	4.09	-0.37	-4.18	0.00
	Control Mutuality	4.17	4.15	0.02	0.31	0.75
	Relationship Satisfaction	4.17	4.55	-0.38	-4.14	0.00
	Relationship Commitment	5.33	4.84	0.49	4.07	0.00
	Face and Favor	3.96	5.15	-1.18	-10.99	0.00
	Overall Relationship	4.17	4.55	-0.38	-4.54	0.00
	Dimension	Mean of journalists' self-perception	Mean of journalists' estimations	Mean Differences	t-values	Sig. (2-tailed)
Congruency of journalists' perceptions	Trust	3.80	3.41	0.39	5.28	.000
	Control Mutuality	3.88	3.77	0.11	1.78	.078
	Relationship Satisfaction	4.14	4.09	0.04	0.64	.524
	Relationship Commitment	4.70	4.67	0.02	0.24	.808
	Face and Favor	4.61	4.46	0.15	1.80	.074
	Overall Relationship	4.22	4.08	0.14	3.02	.003

- *Summary of the results*

In this study I examined South Korean public relations practitioners' and journalists' perceptions and cross-perceptions regarding their relationships. Previous studies indicated that coorientation analysis is useful when the goal is to examine whether two groups have consensus or conflict regarding given issues. Examining coorientation of the two groups' perceptions and cross-perceptions towards their relationship enlightens not only the status of their relationship, but also the source of conflicts.

Agreement. Overall, the two professions' self-perceptions regarding their relationship

quality were not significantly different. Both groups perceived their relationship quality as neutral. However, they disagreed on the dimensions of control mutuality and relationship commitment, face and favor. For the control mutuality and relationship commitment, public relations practitioners rated higher than journalist did. However, journalists perceived face and favor dimension more positive than practitioners perceived.

Accuracy. Both parties failed to estimate their counterpart's perceptions accurately. Public relations practitioners estimated journalists' perceptions more favorably than journalists' self-perceptions, and journalists estimated practitioners' perceptions lower than what practitioners actually perceived. Moreover, in contrast to **<Hypothesis 2c:** PR practitioners will estimate more accurately what journalists think about their relationship than journalists will estimate what PR practitioners think about their relationship> journalists estimated more accurately public relations practitioners' perceptions than practitioners estimated journalists' perceptions.

Public relations people estimated journalists' perceptions higher than what journalists actually perceive the dimensions of trust, control mutuality, relationship satisfaction, and face and favor. Also, journalists estimated practitioners' perceptions lower than practitioners' actual perceptions in the areas of trust, control mutuality, and relationship commitment. However, for the face and favor dimension, journalists, compared with the practitioners, rated higher their estimation of practitioners' perceptions than practitioners' self perception on that dimension.

Congruency. Both professions have incongruent estimations of other professions'

perceptions with their own perceptions. The discrepancy between self-perceptions and the estimations of the other group's perception was larger in the public relations practitioners' perceptions than journalists'. Practitioners estimated journalists' perceptions of trust, relationship satisfaction, and face and favor dimensions more positive than practitioners' self-perceptions. In particular, the degree of incongruence was largest in the dimension of face and favor. Although practitioners rated negative (M = 3.96) for their own perceptions for the quality of face and favor dimension, they estimated journalists had more positive (M = 5.15) perceptions of the face and favor dimension. Also, practitioners estimated journalists' perceptions would be more positive than practitioners' own perceptions of trust and relationship satisfaction dimensions. However, practitioners were more committed to their relationships with journalists than journalists were.

Compared to practitioners' perceptions, journalists did not show incongruence between their own perceptions and estimations of practitioners' perceptions. Journalists showed incongruence only in the trust dimension. That is journalists thought that the practitioners would trust more negatively than the journalists.

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

- The nature of the relationship between public relations practitioners and journalists

Love-hate relationship. Overall, the results of this study are consistent with findings of prior research (eg. Sallot et al., 1998; Shin & Cameron, 2003a; Shin & Cameron, 2003b; Shin & Cameron, 2005) that reported journalists and public relations

practitioners have 'mixed perceptions' of their relationship. The data of journalists' and public relations practitioners' self-perceptions show that both groups rated relationship commitment the highest, and trust the lowest. The results do a good job of explaining the source of the love-hate relationship.

Journalists and public relations practitioners in South Korea commit themselves to their relationship because of the nature of their work relationship. This finding is consistent with prior studies (eg. Cameron et al., 1997; Hallahan, 1999; Sallot, 1993) that found two professions' interdependent relationship. For instance, journalists need news stories from public relations practitioners that may enable them to save a lot of time in regard to news searching. Also, practitioners want to fill the news holes with positive news about their organizations as much as possible. However, as the results show, they do not seem to trust each other as much as they depend on each other. This finding suggests that 'love' between two professions in South Korea comes from each other's necessity to commit themselves in the relationship and 'hate' comes from mutual mistrust.

Status Perceptions.   According to the congruency analyses, both journalists and practitioners seem to have a common understanding that journalists, compared to practitioners, would perceive relationship quality higher. Practitioners rated their estimation of journalists' perceptions higher than practitioners' own perceptions, and journalists estimated practitioners' perception on their relationship quality lower than journalists' own perceptions. This congruency gap was larger in practitioners' answers than journalists.

This result seems to be rooted on the asymmetric status of two occupations. According to study Sriramesh et al. (1999), most public relations in South Korea practice press agentry, which is a form of one-way asymmetric communication. This finding is consistent with existing research. Most practices of media relations in South Korea are conducted in the manner of one-way asymmetric communications. Because public relations practitioners want journalists to choose and write positive news about their organizations, practitioners keep producing press release materials, which are convenient and ready-to-use for journalists. In this relationship, public relations practitioners want something from journalists, and in this situation, practitioners are in the 'serving' position and journalists in the 'being served' position.

Also, the fact that practitioners estimated journalists' perceptions higher than journalists' actual perceptions, and journalists estimated practitioners perceptions lower than practitioners' actual perceptions provide insight regarding the fact that that both professions have fixed perceptions of hierarchical structure that existing between them.

- Perceptions of informal relationship

This study borrowed the concept of 'face and favor' from Huang's (1999) study to assess journalists' and public relations practitioners' perceptions of their informal relationship. One of the notable findings in this current study is the large discrepancy between the groups' perception in regard to the face and favor dimension. This result parallels Shin and Cameron's study (2003a). This study found that South Korean journalists and public relations practitioners have significantly different views toward the influence of informal relationship on the news.

In the agreement analysis, the two groups exhibited the most different perceptions on the face and favor dimension. Moreover, both group failed to estimate accurately the other profession's perceptions regarding the face and favor dimension. Both professions estimated the other group's perceptions of face and favor higher than it actually was. More specifically, this discrepancy appeared larger for the public relations practitioners' responses compared with the journalists'.

More specifically, the public relations practitioners estimated journalists' perception of face and favor much higher than practitioners' own perceptions. This result suggests that both professions have an illusion that their counterparts have more positive perception of their personal relationship than actually occurs in reality.

The potential reasons practitioners have such illusions regarding face and favor can be seen in journalists' commentaries, which follows:

The relationship between journalists and public relations practitioners can be neither distant nor close. We meet each other out of our necessities. Usually, we cannot build personal relationships detached from our business relationships. In another side of this relationship, there is somewhat mutual mistrust. If we can maintain the relationship for a longtime, then the mistrust can be ameliorated. However, because the beat of each journalist is changing in a regular basis, we cannot build (informal) relationship with public relations practitioners.

As this journalist pointed out, the informal relationship between public relations and journalists is built out of mutual necessities. Because journalists acknowledge the

intentions of practitioners' personal relationship building efforts, journalists may not perceive the quality of face and favor as positively as public relations practitioners estimate. Also, the lack of trust between the two professions may obstruct building personal relationship between them.

Another potential reason for the discrepancy in the face and favor dimension can be seen in the following journalist's commentary:

South Korean public relations practitioners lack professionalism. Especially, senior practitioners tend to think building personal networks with journalists through frequent social gatherings (having dinners or drinks together) is most important. During recent years, some large companies are hiring journalists as their public relations managers. I think this phenomenon is also problematic.

The perspective of this journalist provides insight regarding why journalists do not perceive the face and favor dimension as positively as public relations practitioners estimate. Journalists may think that practitioners' efforts to build informal relationship with them are mere consequences of practitioners' lack of professionalism. According to the journalists' comment, journalists may think that practitioners, who lack professionalism, rely on the personal relationship with journalists for the positive outcomes of media relations, such as positive news coverage.

- *Antipathy between public relations practitioners and journalists is relaxing*

50

A majority of existing literature that examines the source-reporter relationship found the existence of an adversarial atmosphere between public relations practitioners and journalists (Brody, 1984; Jeffers, 1977; Jo & Kim, 2004; Pincus et al., 1993; Sallot et al., 1998; Swartz, 1983). However, the results of this study did not reveal an extreme antagonistic atmosphere for either public relations practitioners' or journalists' perceptions. Therefore, the results of this study are in line with recent studies (e.g., Neijens & Smit, 2006; Pincus et al., 1993; Shaw & White, 2004), which found matured professional relationships between journalists and practitioners replacing the relationship of animosity.

Both parties responded neutrally for most dimensions. Both professions' preference for neutral evaluations regarding their relationship may indicate a change in their relationship.

A public relations practitioner noted, "In these days, the relationship between PR practitioners and journalists are becoming more rational and cooperative relationships than before." This perspective is echoed by a journalist as followed:

Until now, the source-reporter relationships have been more hierarchical than horizontal in South Korea; Journalists have been in the upper level and practitioners in the lower level. However, this hierarchical relationship is gradually breaking down in these days, and I think the relationship is changing into cooperative relationships with maintaining some tensions between them.

These comments indicate that the adversarial relationship between public relations practitioners and journalists seems to be relaxing.

- Managerial implications for public relations practices.

Whereas both professions rated most dimensions neutrally, trust is the dimension that both professions perceived most negatively. Although other relational dimensions were not perceived negatively, the fact that practitioners and journalists showed mutual mistrust signifies their problematic relationship. Considering journalists are one of the important publics of most organizations, restoring journalists' mistrust towards public relations practitioners, who play a critical role as representatives for an organization, is very important. As Canary and Cupach (1988) stressed, trust is a fundamental element in every relationship. Without the solid basis of trust, no relationship can be secure and robust.

Furthermore, the results showed that the largest perceptual gap between public relations practitioners and journalists lies in the dimension of face and favor. Both journalists and public relations practitioners estimated the other profession's perceptions of face and favor more positively than their counterparts perceptions. Moreover, practitioners expected that journalists would perceive face and favor dimension much more positively than themselves.

Considering the importance of trust for building interpersonal relationships, it is not surprising that journalists did not rate face and favor dimension as high as practitioners estimated. As one of the journalists pointed out, the mutual mistrust obstructs building informal relationship between journalists and practitioners.

Another reason for the discrepancy in the face and favor dimension may be partially explained by journalists' perceptions that the public relations practitioners' lacked professionalism. Several journalists who participated in this study pointed out public relations practitioners' insufficient professionalism. One of journalists reported negative views toward practitioners' concentrated efforts on the informal relationship building without showing any professionalism. This finding implies that in order to achieve the positive effects of face and favor in relationships with journalists, practitioners need to fulfill journalists' professional needs prior to the face and favor.

VII. LIMITATION

One of the critical limitations of this research is that some of the Cronbach's alpha scores of the scales are below .70, the minimum commonly accepted reliability level. This means that the scales this study used are not internally consistent, so they may cause measurement error and noise in the results. Because of the low reliability scores for some dimensions, such as control mutuality, relationship satisfaction, and relationship commitment, it was impossible to explain the reasons for the lack of significant results in regard to these dimensions. The insignificant results can be either truly insignificant differences between the two groups or results of inconsistent measurement. Also, the overall relationship scores, which are means of all five dimensions, might possess measurement error or noise because of the low reliability scores.

There can be several possible reasons for the low reliability scores of the measurement; incorrect interpretation of the original scale, culture differences, or the small sample size.

Another limitation of this research is that the scales used in these studies were somewhat obscure for the purpose of obtaining journalists' and practitioners' relational perceptions. In this study, the OPRA scales were directly applied to assess the relationship between the two professions. Perceptions on journalists or public relations practitioners may have wider spectrum than the perceptions of a given organization. As several respondents commented, the somewhat obscure and lack of specificity in some of the questions made it difficult to respond. This problem may be partially responsible for the low reliability scores of the measurement.

VIII. FUTURE RESEARCH

The analysis of South Korean public relations' and journalists' perceptions on their relationship suggests directions of future research regarding this topic:

1.   Qualitative analysis can add some important insights for understanding the nature of source-reporter relationship in South Korea. Responses provided by some of the respondents were extremely helpful in interpreting the result during data analysis. A set of in-depth interviews or focus group interviews based on the results of this study would add to the value of understanding the relationship between public relations practitioners and journalists.

2.   This study borrowed the scales that have four dimensions based on the global

value and one dimension based on the Eastern value. To understand the nature of

relationship between journalists and public relations practitioners in South Korea, future

research can add a dimension, which can represent a specific relational value of South

Korea, such as personal relationship. Over the years, researchers often found the

"personal influence" model in Asian countries' public relations practices; the "personal

influence" model explains how practitioners try to build informal relationship with key

individuals in key publics, such as media, government, and activist groups (J. E. Grunig,

L. A. Grunig, Huang, Lyra, & Sriramesh, 1995), and Kim (1996) suggested that the

personal influence model exists in South Korea as well.

Jo (2006) added one more dimension, which is 'personal network (*yon*),' on the

OPRA scale developed by Huang (2001), for measuring manufacturer-retailer

relationships in South Korea.. According to Jo (2006) personal networks are more likely

to be decided by uncontrollable external factors such as blood ties, common hometowns,

and schools whereas face and favor results from controllable relationship management.

If this specific and important relational component for South Korean culture is

added as a dimension on relationship assessment scales, an increased understanding of

the source-reporter relationship in South Korea can be developed

3.   The perceived relationship quality that journalists and public relations

practitioners have may be different according to their years of experience, gender, and the

type organizations they work for. Pincus et al. (1993) found editors' different perceptions

of public relations according to different departments. Likewise, journalists in different

departments, for instance, journalists in charged of business section, and political section,

may perceive relationship with practitioners differently. Also, public relations practitioners in different organizations, such as corporations' public relations teams, public relations agencies, and non-profit organizations, may have different perceptions of their relationships with journalists.

Moreover, different perspectives in regarding to journalists-practitioners relationship according to the different demographic variables, such as age, years of experience, status level in the organization, and gender, will add more knowledge regarding the body of the source-reporter relationship studies.

4. A comprehensive study incorporating diverse cultures around the world. The current study encompasses the Eastern cultures and values. To extend a body of knowledge on international public relations, it will be valuable to conduct the current study with journalists and public relations practitioners in the Western settings, and compare the results with those in Eastern settings.

APPENDICES

1. Questionnaire for Public Relations Practitioners (English)

2. Questionnaire for Public Relations Practitioners (Korean)

3. Questionnaire for Journalists (English)

4. Questionnaire for Journalists (Korean)

1. Questionnaire for Public Relations Practitioners (English)

PART A and B: Based on your personal experiences, thoughts, attitudes, and belief regarding the nature of relationships between PR practitioners and journalists, please choose the number from 1 to 7, with one (1) representing strongly disagree and seven (7) representing strongly agree, that best represents your general experience.

PART. A

	Strongly Disagree					**Strongly Agree**
Generally Speaking...						
1. Journalists are truthful with PR practitioners.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. Journalists treat PR practitioners fairly and justly.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. PR practitioners' relationships with journalists are good.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. Journalists and PR practitoners agree on what they expect from one another.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. PR practitioners don't trust journalists.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. PR practitoners believe that it is worthwhile to maintain relationships with journalists.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. PR practitioners and journalists have symmetrical give-and-take relationships.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. PR practitioners' relationships with journalists are problematic.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. Journalists keep their promises made to PR practitoners.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. PR practititioners wish to maintain long lasting relationships with journalists.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11. PR practitoners are satisfied with their relationships with journalists.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. In most instances, journalists and PR practitoners have equal influences on decision making. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13. PR practitioners wish they didn't have to interact with journalists to do their jobs. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

14. Working with journalists meet PR practitioners' needs. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

15. Given a viable alternative, PR practitioners would not continue relationships with journalists. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

16. Journalists and PR practitioners are satisfied with their working relationships. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

17. Given conflict situations, jounalists consider personal relationships they have with PR practitioners. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

18. When PR practitioners ask favors, journalists give face and render their help. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

19. In certain situations, journalists will do the face-work for PR practitioners. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

20. Given situations of disagreement, journalists do not let PR practitioners lose face. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

PART. B

Generally, I think that...	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1. Journalists believe PR practitoners are truthful with them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Journalists believe PR practitoners treat journalists fairly and justly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Journalists believe their relationships with PR practitioners is good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Journalists believe they and PR practitoners agree on what they expect from one another.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Journalists don't trust PR practitioners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Journalists believe it is worthwhile to maintain their relationships with PR practitioners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. Journalists believe they and PR practitioners have symmetrical give-and-take relationships.　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

8. Journalists believe their relationships with PR practitioners are problematic.　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

9. Journalists believe PR practitioners keep their promises made to journalists.　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

10. Journalists wish to maintain long lasting relationships with PR practitioners.　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

11. Journalists satisfied with their relationships with PR practitioners.　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

12. In most instances, journalists believe they and PR practitoners have equal influences on decision making.　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

13. Journalists wish they didn't have to interct with with PR practitoners to do their jobs.　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

14. Journalists believe working with journalists meet PR practitioners' needs.　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

15. Given a viable alternative, journalists would not continue relationships with PR practitioners.　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

16. Journalists are satisfied with working relationships with PR practitioners.　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

17. Given conflict situations, journalists believe PR practitioners consider personal relationships they have with jouralists.　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

18. Journalists believe PR practitioners give them face and render helps when journalists ask favors to PR practitioners.　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

19. In certain situations, journalists believe PR practitioners do the face-work for journalists.　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

20. Journalists believe PR practitioners do not let them lose face in situations of disagreement.　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

PART C. Finally, I would like to ask you a few questions to classify your answers.

1. What is your gender?　　☐1) Male　　☐2) Female

2. Which of the following describes the type of your organization.

☐1) In-house PR team   ☐2) PR agency

☐3) PR division in an advertising agency ☐4) Other, please specify:

_____

3. How many people are there in your organization?

☐1) less than 20   ☐2) 20-50   ☐3) 50-100

☐4)100-200   ☐5) 200-500   ☐6) more than 500

4.   Which of the following describes your highest level of education?

☐1) High school graduate   ☐2) Some college   ☐3) College graduate

☐4) Master's degree   ☐5) PhD degree

☐6) Other, please specify: _____

5.   How long have you been working in the PR field?

☐1) less than 2 yrs.   ☐2) 2-5 yrs.   ☐3) 5-10 yrs.

☐4) 10-15 yrs.   ☐5) 15-20 yrs.   ☐6) more than 20yrs.

6. Please include any additional comments you have.

Thank you very much for your patience and participation.

2. Questionnaire for Public Relations Practitioners (Korean)

PART A 와 B: 홍보 담당자들과 기자들의 관계에 대한 개인적인 경험이나 생각, 태도,

믿음에 비추어 아래 항목들에 대해 1 부터 7 사이에서 본인의 대체적인 생각과 가장

가깝다고 생각되는 수를 골라주십시오. (1) 은 '전혀 아니다', (7) 는 '매우 그렇다' 임을

나타냅니다.

PART. A

대체적으로 말해…	전혀 아니다					매우 그렇다	
1. 기자들은 홍보담당자들에게 진실되다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 기자들은 홍보담당자들을 공평하고 정의롭게 대한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 기자들과 홍보담당자들과의 관계는 좋다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 기자들과 홍보담당자들은 서로가 서로에게 기대할 수 있는 바에 대해 동의한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 홍보담당자들은 기자들을 믿지 않는다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 홍보담당자들은 기자들과의 관계를 유지할 가치가 있다고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 홍보담당자들과 기자들은 평등한 상호 협조의 관계에 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 홍보담당자들과 기자들과의 관계에는 문제가 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 기자들은 홍보담당자들과의 약속을 지킨다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 홍보담당자들은 기자들과 지속적인 관계를 유지하기를 원한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 홍보담당자들은 기자들과의 관계에 대해 만족한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. 대부분의 상황에서 홍보담당자들과 기자들은 의사결정을 하는데 있어서 동등한 영향력을 행사한다.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

13. 홍보담당자들은 기자들과 업무적으로 엮이지 않았으면 하고 바란다.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

14. 기자들과의 업무는 홍보담당자들의 필요를 충족시켜준다.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

15. 가능한 대안이 있다면, 홍보담당자들은 기자들과의 관계를 지속하고 싶지 않아 한다.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

16. 홍보담당자들과 기자들은 그들의 업무적 관계에 만족한다.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

17. 갈등의 상황을 해결하는데 있어서 기자들은 홍보담당자들과의 사적인 관계를 고려한다.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

18. 홍보담당자들이 기자들에게 부탁을 하였을 때, 기자들은 홍보담당자들의 체면을 생각하여 도움을 줄 것이다.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

19. 특정한 상황에서 기자들은 홍보담당자들의 체면을 세워주기위한 노력을 할 것이다.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

20. 의견이 불일치 할 때, 기자들은 홍보담당자들의 체면을 꺾지 않는다.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

PART.B

	전혀 아니다					매우 그렇다	

대체적으로 짐작할 때…

1. 기자들은 홍보담당자들이 그들에게 진실되다고 생각한다.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

2. 기자들은 홍보담당자들이 그들을 공정하고 정의롭게 대한다고 생각한다.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

3. 기자들은 홍보담당자들과의 관계가 좋다고 생각한다.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

4. 기자들은 그들과 홍보담당자들이 서로가 서로에게 기대하는 바에 대해 동의 한다고 생각한다.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

5. 기자들은 홍보담당자들을 믿지 않는다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 기자들은 홍보담당자들과의 관계를 유지할 가치가 있다고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 기자들은 그들과 홍보담당자들과의 관계가 평등한 상호협조의 관계라고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 기자들은 홍보담당자들과의 관계에 문제가 있다고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 기자들은 홍보담당자들이 그들에게 한 약속을 지킨다고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 기자들은 홍보담당자들과의 지속적인 관계를 유지하기를 바란다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 기자들은 그들과 홍보담당자들과의 관계에 대해 만족한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. 대부분의 상황에서, 기자들은 그들과 홍보담당자들이 의사결정을 하는데 있어서 동등한 영향력을 행사한다고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. 기자들은 업무적으로 홍보담당자들과 엮이지 않았으면 하고 바란다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. 기자들은 홍보담당자들과의 업무가 그들의 필요를 충족시킨다고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. 가능한 대안이 있다면, 기자들은 홍보담당자들과의 관계를 지속하고 싶지 않아할 것이다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. 기자들은 홍보담당자들과의 업무적 관계에 만족한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. 갈등의 상황을 해결하는데 있어서, 기자들은 홍보담당자들이 그들과의 사적인 관계를 고려한다고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. 기자들은 그들이 홍보담당자들에게 도움을 요청했을 때 홍보담당자들은 기자들의 체면을 생각하여 도움을 줄 것 이라 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. 기자들은 특정한 상황에서 홍보담당자들이 그들의 체면을 세워주기 위한 노력을 한다고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. 홍보담당자들과 기자들의 의견이 불일치할 때 홍보담당자들은 기자들의 체면을 꺾지 않을 것이라 기자들은 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART C. 마지막으로 귀하의 답변을 분류하기위한 질문을 몇가지 하겠습니다.

3. 귀하의 성별은 무엇입니까?   ☐1) 남   ☐2) 여

4. 귀하께서 속한 조직의 성격을 가장 잘 표현한 것은 무엇입니까?
    ☐1) 사내 홍보팀   ☐2) 홍보 대행사
    ☐3) 광고대행사 내 홍보담당 부서   ☐4) 기타: _____

3. 귀하께서 속한 조직에는 몇 명의 직원이 있습니까?
    ☐1) 20 이하   ☐2) 20-50   ☐3) 50-100   ☐4)100-200
    ☐5) 200-500   ☐6) 500 이상

4. 귀하께서는 어느 수준까지 교육을 받으셨습니까?
    ☐1) 고등학교   ☐2) 대학교   ☐3) 석사
    ☐4) 박사   ☐5) 기타: _____

5. 귀하께서는 홍보담당자로서 일하신 지 얼마나 되셨습니까?
    ☐1) 2 년 이하   ☐2) 2-5 년   ☐3) 5-10 년
    ☐4) 10-15 년   ☐5) 15-20 년   ☐6) 20 년 이상

6. 그 외 하시고 싶은 말씀이 있으시면 아래 란에 적어주십시오.

본 설문에 참여해 주서서 감사합니다.

3. Questionnaire for Journalists (English)

PART A and B: Based on your personal experiences, thoughts, attitudes, and belief regarding the nature of relationships between PR practitioners and journalists, please choose the number from 1 to 7, with one (1) representing strongly disagree and seven (7) representing strongly agree, that best represents your general experience.

PART. A

Generally Speaking...	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree	
1. PR practitioners are truthful with journalists.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. PR practitioners treat journalists fairly and justly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Journalists' relationships with PR practitoners are good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Journalists and PR practitoners agree on what they expect from one another.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Journalists don't trust PR practitoners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Journalists believe that it is worthwhile to maintain relationships with PR practitoners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Journalists and PR practitioners have symmetrical give-and take-relationships.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Journalists' relationships with PR practitoners are problemetic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. PR practitoners keep their promises made to journalists.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Journalists wish to maintain long lasting relationships with PR practitoners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Journalists are satisfied with their relationships	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

with PR practitoners.

12.	Journalists and PR practitoners have equal influence in the decision making process.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	Journalists wish they didn't have to interact with PR practitoners to do their jobs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	Working with PR practitoners meet journalists' needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	Given a viable alternative, journalists would not continue relationships with PR practitoners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	Journalists and PR practitioners are satisfied with their working relationships.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	Given conflict situations, PR practitioners consider personal relationships they have with journalists.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	When journalists ask favors, PR practitioners give face and render their help.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	PR practitoners do face-work for journalists.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	Given situations of disagreement, PR practitoners do not let journalists lose face.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART. B

Generally, I think that...		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1.	PR practitoners believe journalists are truthful with them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	PR practitoners believe journalists treat PR practitoners fairly and justly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	PR practitoners believe their relationships with journalists are good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	PR practitoners believe they and journalists agree on what they expect from one another.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	PR practitoners don't trust journalists.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. PR practitoners believe it is worthwhile to maintain their relationships with journalists.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. PR practitoners believe journalists and PR practitioners have symmetrical give-and-take relationships.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. PR practitoners believe relationships with journalists are problemetic.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. PR practitoners believe journalists keep their promises made to them.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10. PR practitoners wish to maintain long lasting relationships with journalists.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. PR practitoners are satisfied with their relationships with journalists.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. PR practitoners believe journalists and PR practitioners have equal influence in the decision making process.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13. PR practitoners wish they didn't have to interact with journalists to do their jobs.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

14. PR practitoners believe working with journalists meet PR practitioners' needs.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

15. Given a viable alternative, PR practitoners would not continue relationships with journalists.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

16. PR practitoners are satisfied with their working relationships with journalists.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

17. Given conflict situations, PR practitioners believe journalists will consider personal relationships they have with PR practitioners.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

18. PR practitoners believe journalists will give them face and render help when they ask favors to journalists.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

19. In certain situations, PR practitoners believe journalists do the face-work for PR practitioners.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

20. PR practitoners believe journalists do not let them lose face in situations of disagreement.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

PART C. Finally, I would like to ask you a few questions to classify your answers.

5.   What is your gender?   ☐1) Male   ☐2) Female

6.   Which of the following describes the type of your organization?
     ☐1) Newspaper publishing company   ☐2) Broadcasting station
     ☐3) Magazine publishing company   ☐4) Online news company
     ☐5) Other, please specify: _____

3.   How many employees are there in your organization?
     ☐1) less than 20   ☐2) 20-50   ☐3) 50-100   ☐4)100-200
     ☐5) 200-500   ☐6) more than 500

4.   Which of the following describes your highest level of education?
     ☐1) High school graduate   ☐2) College graduate   ☐3) Master's degree
     ☐4) PhD degree   ☐5) Other, please specify: _____

5. What was your major? _____

6.   How long have you been working as a journalist?
     ☐1) less than 2 yrs.   ☐2) 2-5 yrs.   ☐3) 5-10 yrs.
     ☐4) 10-15 yrs.   ☐5) 15-20 yrs.   ☐6) more than 20 yrs.

7.   Please include any additional comments you may have.

Thank you very much for your participation.

4. Questionnaire for Journalists (Korean)

PART A   B: 홍보 담당자들과 기자들의 관계에 대한 개인적인 경험이나 생각, 태도, 믿음에 비추어 아래 항목들에 대해 1 부터 7 사이에서 본인의 대체적인 생각과 가장 가깝다고 생각되는 수를 골라주십시오. (1) 은 '전혀 아니다', (2) 는 '매우 그렇다' 임을 나타냅니다.

PART. A

	전혀 아니다						매우 그렇다
대체적으로 말해…							
1. 홍보 담당자들은 기자들에게 진실되다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 홍보 담당자들은 기자들을 공정하게 대한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 기자들과 홍보담당자들과의 관계가 좋다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 기자들과 홍보담당자들은 서로가 기대할 수 있는 정도에 대해 동의한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 기자들은 홍보담당자들을 믿지 않는다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 기자들은 홍보담당자들과의 관계를 유지할 가치가 있다고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 기자들과 홍보 담당자들은 평등한 상호 협조의 관계에 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 기자들과 홍보담당자들과의 관계에는 문제가 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 홍보 담당자들은 기자들과의 약속을 지킨다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 기자들은 홍보담당자들과 지속적인 관계를 유지하기를 원한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 기자들은 홍보담당자들과의 관계에 대해 만족한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. 대부분의 상황에서 기자들과 홍보담당자들은
    의사결정을 하는데 있어서 동등한 영향력을   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
    행사한다.

13. 기자들은 홍보담당자들과 업무적으로 엮이지
    않았으면 하고 바란다.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

14. 홍보담당자들과의 업무는 기자들의 필요를
    충족시켜준다.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

15. 가능한 대안이 있다면, 기자들은
    홍보담당자들과의 관계를 지속하고 싶지 않아   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
    한다.

16. 기자들과 홍보담당자들은 그들의 업무적 관계에
    만족한다.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

17. 갈등의 상황을 해결하는데 있어서 홍보담당자들은
    기자들과의 사적인 관계를 고려한다.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

18. 기자들이 홍보담당자들에게 부탁을 하였을 때,
    홍보담당자들은 기자들의 체면을 생각하여 도움을   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
    줄 것이다.

19. 특정한 상황에서 홍보담당자들은 기자들의 체면을
    세워주기위한 노력을 할 것이다.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

20. 의견이 불일치 할 때, 홍보담당자들은 기자들의
    체면을 꺾지 않는다.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

PART.B

	전혀 아니다					매우 그렇다	

대체적으로 짐작할 때…

1. 홍보담당자들은 기자들이 그들에게 진실되다고
   생각한다.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. 홍보담당자들은 기자들이 그들을 공정하고
   정의롭게 대한다고 생각한다.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. 홍보 담당자들은 기자들과의 관계가 좋다고
   생각한다.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. 홍보 담당자들은 그들과 기자들이 서로에게
   기대하는 정도에 대해 동의 한다고 생각한다.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5.	홍보담당자들은 기자들을 믿지 않는다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	홍보담당자들은 기자들과의 관계를 유지할 가치가 있다고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	홍보담당자들은 그들과 기자들과의 관계가 평등한 상호협조의 관계라고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	홍보담당자들은 기자들과의 관계에 문제가 있다고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	홍보담당자들은 기자들이 그들에게 한 약속을 지킨다고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	홍보담당자들은 기자들과의 지속적인 관계를 유지하기를 바란다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	홍보담당자들은 그들과 기자들과의 관계에 대해 만족한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	대부분의 상황에서, 홍보담당자들은 그들과 기자들이 의사결정을 하는데 있어서 동등한 영향력을 행사한다고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	홍보담당자들은 기자들과 업무적으로 엮이지 않았으면 하고 바란다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	홍보담당자들은 기자들과의 업무가 그들의 필요를 충족시킨다고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	가능한 대안이 있다면, 홍보담당자들은 기자들과의 관계를 지속하고 싶지 않아할 것이다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	홍보담당자들은 기자들과의 업무적 관계에 만족한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	갈등의 상황을 해결하는데 있어서, 홍보담당자들은 기자들이 그들과의 사적인 관계를 고려한다고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	홍보담당자들은 그들이 기자들에게 도움을 요청했을 때 기자들은 홍보담당자들의 체면을 생각하여 도움을 줄 것 이라 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	홍보담당자들은 특정한 상황에서 기자들이 그들의 체면을 세워주기 위한 노력을 한다고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	홍보담당자들과 기자들의 의견이 불일치할 때 기자들은 홍보담당자들의 체면을 꺾지 않을 것이라 홍보담당자들은 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART C. 마지막으로 귀하의 답변을 분류하기위한 질문을 몇 가지 하겠습니다.

7. 귀하의 성별은 무엇입니까? □1) 남 □2) 여

8. 귀하께서 속한 조직의 성격을 가장 잘 표현한 것은 무엇입니까?
   □1) 신문사 □2) 방송국
   □3) 잡지사 □4) 인터넷 뉴스 회사
   □5) 기타: _____

3. 귀하께서 속한 조직에는 몇 명의 직원이 있습니까?
   □1) 20 이하 □2) 20-50 □3) 50-100 □4)100-200
   □5) 200-500 □6) 500 이상

4. 귀하께서는 어느 수준까지 교육을 받으셨습니까?
   □1) 고등학교 □2) 대학교 □3) 석사
   □4) 박사 □5) 기타: _____

5. 귀하께서는 기자로서 활동하신지 얼마나 되셨습니까?
   □1) 2 년 이하 □2) 2-5 년 □3) 5-10 년
   □4) 10-15 년 □5) 15-20 년 □6) 20 년 이상

6. 그 외 하시고 싶은 말씀이 있으시면 아래에 적어주십시오.

   _____

본 설문에 참여해 주셔서 감사합니다.

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