Predicting Webcasting Adoption via Personal Innovativeness and Perceived Utilities

Broadcasting over the internet presents a new frontier for media and advertising industries to conquer. At the local level, the greatest asset of a television station is its "localism"—with the audience still regarding television stations as the most effective source for local weather, traffic, and sports news as well as advertising—compared to cable television, public television, newspapers, magazine, or the internet. Hence, the unique advantage that a television station website can offer may involve providing locally-oriented webcasting services as well as serving as a portal to features and other websites of local interest. This study explored the profile of early adopters of webcasting, the potential predictors of webcasting adoption, and audience interest in different types of local webcast features. A national sample representing the top 50 television markets in the United States was interviewed via a computer-assisted telephone interviewing system for data collection. Study results found that webcasting adopters suited the profile of "early adopters" of online technology. Moreover, personal innovativeness, perceived utilities of webcasting as well as online-use frequency and per-online-use duration were found to be significant predictors of webcasting adoption (although demographic characteristics were not). Findings on audience adoption interest in local webcast features, and their implications for advertisers, were also discussed.

Broadcasting over the internet presents a new frontier for media and advertising industries to conquer. Large media conglomerates (e.g., Disney) and national sports franchises (e.g., the NFL) (Wingfeld, 2002) have been offering webcasting services of news and/or television programs for a fee; even Sprint wireless has gone into this market (e.g., Richman, 2003). Compared to other media, local television stations were relative latecomers in utilizing their websites to provide webcasting to reap additional local advertising revenues (Murray, 2001).

The greatest unique asset of a local station is its "localism"—a branding device that cannot be easily duplicated by any other national media outlets. This inherent branding strength is evident in that audiences still deem television stations as the most effective source for local weather, traffic, and sports news as well as advertising, compared to cable television, public television, newspapers, magazine, or the internet (Television Bureau of Advertising, 2003). Hence, the unique advantage that a television station website has to offer should evolve around locally-oriented web services, including providing webcasting services and serving as a portal to features and other websites of local interest (Lin and Jeffres, 2001).

At this early stage of local television station webcasting development, little is known about who the potential adopters for such webcasting
services are, what types of webcast content will interest them, and what motivates them to undertake such adoption. This study will examine the profile of early adopters of webcasting, explore the potential factors that could be predictive of webcasting adoption, ascertain audience interest in different types of webcast content, and explain how it can be used as an advertising vehicle. The present study is exploratory in nature, as there is no published social scientific literature on the subject of webcasting adoption at the time of this writing.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A Nielsen/NetRatings study (NetRatings, 2006) reported that nearly 72 percent of all home internet users were connected to a broadband network by May 2006; an Arbitron study put the estimate at 58 percent as of February 2006 (Rose and Lenksi, 2006). As broadband delivery of internet services is capable of providing high-speed and bandwidth-rich media offerings, including rich-media advertisements featuring on-demand video and flash as well as video streaming, national advertisers have also started to take notice (Weaver, 2003). This growth in rich-media advertising goes hand in hand with the continued increase in internet advertising revenues in the past year. For instance, the ABC network’s online news division was profitable in 2003, due to high-speed internet advertising (Henderson, 2003).

The rising popularity of broadband access to internet homes appears to parallel the growth of video stream downloading or webcasting. According to a study conducted by Accustream Imedia Research (AIR, 2003), internet users accessed nearly 4 billion streams in 2002, reflecting a 52.3 percent increase from the previous year. Each unique user accessed 1.53 streams per month, which represented a 25 percent higher level than year 2001. Likewise, Arbitron research (Rose and Lenski, 2006) suggested that at least 12 percent of internet users watched a streamed video weekly during February 2006.

Adoption of webcasting

The latest Arbitron study (Rose, 2003) on internet audience identifies 11 percent of American consumers as early adopters; those who accessed internet broadcasts were 50 percent more likely to be “early adopters” than the “total population” of internet users. In percentage terms, streamies appeared to be slightly younger and wealthier than nonstreamies. (The Arbitron data do not provide any statistical tests to indicate whether significant statistical differences exist between any of the percentages reported.) They were also found to possess strong buying power, as reflected by their consumption of a wide array of goods and services, in addition to their occupation, education level, and home value. These findings were consistent with SRI International’s (1995) characterization of early internet users, profiling 70 percent of those internet users as having the “innovator” and “risk-taker” personality traits.

Moreover, male internet users seemed to outnumber female internet users in accessing streaming videos or webcasting (Lam, 2001). (The data do not provide any statistical tests to indicate whether a significant statistical difference exists in the total number of male and female streamies.) The average streamies were said to be between 25–44 years of age, have at least some college education, and earn about $50,000 per year. Moreover, webcast users were also found to be spending more time online than all internet users as a whole, aside from going online more often (Rose, 2003). These facts indicate webcast adopters were among the more frequent and heavier users within the online user population.

Such findings are consistent with work on the diffusion of innovations perspective, which suggests that adoption of new media can be resource driven (e.g., Rogers, 1995). Insofar as men have traditionally been more likely to possess the requisite operational skills and interests motivating technology adoption, education level and male gender have also been predictors of computer technology adoption (e.g., Schumacher and Morahan-Martin, 2001).

To explore the role of these demographic and internet-use characteristics in shaping webcasting adoption outcome, two separate research hypotheses are proposed below.

H1: Age, male gender, education, and income will be predictive of webcasting adoption.

H2: Online-use activity levels will be predictive of webcasting adoption.

Personal innovativeness

Aside from demographic characteristics, early adopters also are said to possess certain personality attributes that set them apart from the general population. These attributes may reflect an individual who is relatively more innovative and is also more willing to take risks in adopting a new product or innovation relatively earlier than others (Rogers and Shoemaker, 1971). Empirically speaking, the concept of personal innovativeness was primarily operationalized as a post-hoc behavioral measure—actual time of adoption—in most studies (e.g., Mahajan, Muller, and Srinivasan, 1990; Martinez and Polo, 1998). Others considered personal innovativeness as a personality trait that contains both sociological as well as psychological dimensions. For instance, Summers (1971)
contends that situational factors such as income or product involvement may drive an individual to consider adopting specific products, but other individual traits (e.g., sociological, psychological, etc.) could influence the individual's innate innovative tendency.

Robertson and Kennedy (1968) tested a handful of sociological and psychological trait variables to contrast innovators and noninnovators in their adoption of a home appliance innovation. They found venturesomeness or willingness to take risk in adopting a new product and social mobility (or upward mobility) to be the most important discriminating factors, followed by social integration, priviledgedness, and cosmopolitanism. By contrast, the venturesomeness construct was also explored by Feldman and Armstrong (1975) as a personality trait that can indicate whether an individual is willing to take risks in general (instead of considering adoption interest in a specific innovation).

Midgley and Dowling (1978, p. 236) dismissed the notion of equating innovativeness with relative time of adoption and designated "innate innovativeness" (i.e., sociological and psychological factors) as an antecedent for "actualized innovativeness" (or relative time of adoption). Hirschman (1980, p. 284) considered the construct of novelty seeking as similar to an internal drive or motivating force that propels an individual's interest in seeking out novel stimuli. She distinguished "inherent novelty seeking," which describes an individual's willingness to adopt an innovation (whether it be a new idea, product, or service), from "actualized novelty seeking," which indicates an individual's action to initiate the "information search" for an innovation.

Even though the literature has established the theoretical significance of personal innovativeness in the innovation diffusion process, the empirical operationalization of the construct still has not gone much beyond the singular adoption outcome indicator—relative adoption time (e.g., Chandrashekaran and Sinha, 1995). More recently, Lin (1998) proposed the concept of "likely adopters" to delineate a class of individuals who may have a strong need for innovativeness but have not actualized such need (via personal computer adoption) due to situational factors (e.g., financial constraints). She operationalized the construct of need for innovativeness to reflect a set of personality measures and thus further dissociated "relative adoption time" as the sole indicator for personal innovativeness. Busselle, Reagans, Pinkleton, and Jackson (1999) validated this need for innovativeness scale and found that an individual's need for innovativeness was a reliable and positive predictor for their level of internet use.

Additional evidence of the role of innovativeness traits in consumer adoption behavior was also reported by Donthu and Gilliland (1996), who found that more innovative consumers were less risk averse and adventurous in their willingness to conduct in-home shopping from a variety of sources. Applying the same "risk aversion" and "innovativeness" scales to examine the motives of internet shoppers, Donthu and Garcia (1999) also discovered that internet shoppers were more innovative and less risk disinclined than internet nonshoppers.

To further explicate the role of personal innovativeness in influencing one's decision to adopt an innovation such as webcasting, the following research hypothesis is posed.

H3: Personal innovativeness will be predictive of webcasting adoption.

**Perceived utilities**

Studies that examined perceived utilities of online media often found similar or parallel perceived utility clusters between online and offline media use (e.g., Flanagin and Metzger, 2001). This is not surprising, as online media content tends to emulate offline mediated content. One common theoretical thread that links the research on perceived utilities of online and offline media is the uses and gratification perspective. The uses and gratification perspective embody the assumptions that audiences are actively involved in making their media-use decisions (Katz, Blumler, and Gurevitch, 1974), as they are capable of perceiving the unique utilities associated with the use of different types of media content (e.g., Kippax and Murray, 1980).

Even though there is no available work on perceived utilities of webcasting to draw from at this point in time, it would be useful to review the general perceived online-media utility studies to help shed some light on perceived webcasting utilities. For instance, Kaye's (1998) study found information seeking as the most popular web-use utility. Korgaonkar and Wolin (1999) found that, aside from economic motivation (i.e., online shopping ease and saving), online shopping was also motivated by the social escapism (i.e., diversion and companionship) utility. Similarly, Lin's (2001) findings indicated that perceived informational learning and escape/interaction utilities were predictive of likely adoption of communication-, task-, and marketing-oriented services. Parker and Plank (2002), likewise, established that relaxation and escape utilities were perceived to be important motivations for internet use.

Moreover, Ferguson and Perse's (2000) study discovered that the audiences perceived the best utility of web use was to fulfill their entertainment or diversion needs. Other studies showed that seeking interpersonal communication utilities via email or newsgroups (Sproull and Faraj,
Parks and Floyd (1996) revealed that nicate v^itl others was a strong motive.

Atkin, Jeffres, and Neuendorf (1998) was a significant motive to use the inter-

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to be more likely to adopt webcasting orig-

Applying the use and gratification per-

H4: Perceived utilities of webcasting

To further pinpoint the phenomenon of

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A national telephone survey was con-

generated through a set of randomly selected phone numbers

RQ2: What is the level of interest

RQ3: Are demographic characteris-

The variables tested in this study are con-

Webcasting adoption. A single dichoto-

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Online-use level. Online-use frequency was gauged by asking the respondents to provide the number of times per week or month they spent online; the 10 response categories ranged from "less than one day per month" to "about 7 days per week." Per online-use duration was assessed by the average amount of time the respondent spent online each visit, ranging from "½ hour" to "12 hours plus" along the continuum of 24 one-half-hour unit increments.

Webcast features. Altogether 14 local webcast feature categories were rated by the respondents in terms of their viewing interest level on a 10-point scale, ranging from 1 = "not interested at all" to 10 = "highly interested." While some of the webcast feature categories were constructed through randomly sampling the webcast features on one local station's website in each of the top 50 television markets, some were developed based on the principle of "localism" (e.g., local concert previews). These 14 locally-oriented webcast categories include: newscasts, sports games, restaurant tours, tourist sites, city tours, retail shopping, classified advertisements, movie trailers, stage show trailers, concert previews, event booking (with event previews), live traffic reports, live weather forecasts, and live city beat.

Personal innovativeness. This construct was assessed by asking the respondents to indicate how often they would fit in with a list of nine different descriptions of personality traits. A 5-point scale, ranging from 1 = "Never" to 5 = "Always" was employed to measure these items. The principal component factor analysis (with Varimax rotation) generated two factors. The first factor consists of seven items that reflect an individual's tendencies toward embracing new challenges, being curious, seeking new ideas, learning new skills, as well as keeping up with new innovations, scientific progress, and computer technology. These seven items were integrated to construct the "novelty seeking" variable (Cronbach's α = .90). The second factor includes the following two items — "like taking risks" and being "unconventional." These two items were merged to formulate the "venturesome" variable (Cronbach's α = .79).

Perceived utility. Respondents were queried about how often they would be interested in accessing local webcasts, based on a set of 18 perceived webcast-use utility items—measured on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 = "Never" to 5 = "Always." These items were similar to the internet adoption motivation items used in past studies (e.g., Kaye, 1998). The factor analysis procedure generated two factors. The first factor contains the following perceived utility items: a lot of fun, interesting, entertaining, relaxing, spicing up down time, killing boredom, helping one escape, keeping one company, and keeping one occupied. These nine variables were collapsed to form the "diversion/escape" scale (Cronbach's α = .96). The second factor clusters the following perceived utilities: keeping current on local news, community events, and retail sales; giving one things to talk about with family, friends, and others (e.g., coworkers); providing useful information as well as helping one to explore new things and broaden one's knowledge. These nine items were also combined to compose the "news/information" scale (Cronbach's α = .95).

RESEARCH RESULTS
Results of testing all of the research hypotheses are presented in Table 1 with a

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<td>Structure Matrix for the Discriminant Analysis: Adopters Versus Nonadopters</td>
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| Wilks' Function Lambda F Significance |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Innovativeness (Bc-i) | .648 | .936 | 24.841 | .000 |
| Logged on to a local TVstations website | .596 | .945 | 21.005 | .000 |
| Diversion (5a-i) | .438 | .970 | 11.385 | .001 |
| Time you spend online each time? | .431 | .971 | 11.010 | .001 |
| Risk taking (8a-b) | .390 | .976 | 9.015 | .003 |
| Information learning (5j-r) | .381 | .977 | 8.613 | .004 |
| Frequency per week or month you get online | .322 | .983 | 6.136 | .014 |
| Gender | -.230 | .991 | 3.134 | .078 |
| Your annual household income is | 204 | .993 | 2.464 | .117 |
| Your education level is | .123 | .998 | .894 | .345 |
| Your age is | -.112 | .998 | .742 | .390 |

Note: Box's M = 99.607, F = 1.431, significance = .012; eigenvalues = .163, canonical correlation = .374; Wilks' lambda = .860, chi-square = 54.023, significance = .000.
PREDICTING WEBCASTING ADOPTION

Discriminant analysis, which succeeded in correctly classifying 72 percent of all cases. Hypothesis H1, which postulates demographic characteristics as predictors for webcasting adoption, was not supported due to the lack of significant discrimination in age, income, education, and gender between adopters and nonadopters. By contrast, Hypothesis H2 was supported as both online-use level variables—online-use frequency (r = .32, Wilke’s lambda = .98, F = 6.14, p = .014) and per online-use duration (r = .43, Wilke’s lambda = .97, F = 11.01, p = .004)—were significantly discriminated between webcasting adopters and nonadopters.

Hypothesis H3, which posits personal innovativeness as a factor in predicting webcasting adoption, also was supported by the statistical findings that show both venturesomeness (r = .39, Wilke’s lambda = .98, F = 9.02, p = .003) and novelty-seeking (r = .65, Wilke’s lambda = .94, F = 24.84, p = .0001) being significantly discriminated between adopters and nonadopters. Likewise, as significant discriminant outcome was found for both perceived diversion/escape utility and per online-use duration. The weaker predictors include the following variables: venturesomeness tendency, perceived news/information utility, and online-use frequency.

RQ2 inquires about audience adoption interest in different locally oriented webcast-feature categories. The findings described in Table 2 suggest that live weather forecasts (M = 5.6, SD = 3.4), local event booking (with previews) (M = 5.2, SD = 3.4), and local movie trailers (M = 5.0, SD = 3.3) were perceived to be the most preferred locally-oriented webcast features. These were followed by local concert previews (M = 4.9, SD = 3.2), local stage show trailers (M = 4.9, SD = 3.2), local tourist sites (M = 4.8, SD = 3.1), local city tours (M = 4.7, SD = 3.1), and live city beat features (M = 4.7, SD = 3.2).

Webcast features of third-tier interest include live traffic reports (M = 4.4, SD = 3.3), local retail shopping outlets (M = 4.4, SD = 3.2), local classified advertisements (M = 4.3, SD = 3.2), restaurant tours (M = 4.3, SD = 3.1), local newscasts (M = 4.2, SD = 3.1), and local sports games (M = 3.9, SD = 3.3).

Correlation results addressing RQ3 are reported in Table 3. Based on these findings, younger age was a factor in user interest in accessing all webcast features, except for news and weather. Education and income level, however, were irrelevant to webcast feature access interest. While male gender was found to matter more in sports game access, female gender was revealed as more relevant in retail-shopping features and local outing-related

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*The numeral scale ranges from 1 to 10, with 10 showing the highest interest level.
features including restaurant tours, local site tours, and city tours.

Perceived diversion/escape and perceived news/information utilities, on the other hand, were significantly correlated with interest in accessing all webcast features. The same is true for personal innovativeness. By contrast, venturesomeness was related to all webcast features, except for the three local outing-related features, retail shopping, and live weather forecasts.

Finally, the online-use level variables showed a rather irregular pattern of relationships with interest in webcast features. Specifically, online-use frequency was significantly related to access interest in newscasts, sports games, traffic and weather updates, and classified advertisements, in addition to previewing city tours and local recreational events (for booking purposes). Per online-use duration, however, was completely irrelevant to all webcast feature access interest. By comparison, those who had experience logging on a local station website were also more interested in accessing the following webcast features: live local news, traffic, weather and city beat, local retail sites, and classified advertisements, as well as previewing local recreational events (for booking purposes).

**DISCUSSION**

This exploratory study provides an initial look at a set of factors that were influential in discriminating adopters from non-adopters of webcasting. Theoretically speaking, the application of the diffusion of innovations theory was proven successful, giving credence to the construct validity of “innovativeness” in a new study context. More importantly, study findings found support for measuring the innovativeness construct as a personality trait instead of a singular behavioral outcome (i.e., relative time of adoption).

In particular, the internet users who scored higher on personal innovativeness scales were more likely to be webcasting adopters. Given the fact that at least 80 percent of those webcasting adopters in the sample mentioned that they accessed webcasts at home, it seems that these individuals were either (1) highly motivated users who were willing to “endure” slow connection speed or (2) the early adopters of high-speed broadband networks. The missing indicator for internet connection modality here reflects a study limitation. Nonetheless, in either case, these users appear to represent the segment of the internet population that is considered the “early adopters” of online technology—in terms of personality traits—and online-use behavior.

Specifically, one of the personal innovativeness scales, novelty seeking (α = .90), was the strongest predictor for webcasting adoption. This finding affirmed...
[Webcasting adopters] appear to represent the segment of the internet population that is considered the “early adopters” of online technology—in terms of personality traits—and online-use behavior.

Midgley and Dowling’s (1978) contention that “innate innovativeness” is an antecedent for “actualized innovativeness” (or relative time of adoption). It also echoes Hirschman’s (1980) conceptualization of novelty seeking as an internal motivating force that prompts an individual’s willingness to adopt an innovation (e.g., a novel idea, product, or service). By the same token, this novelty seeking construct also lends support for the “need for innovativeness” concept (Busselle, Reagan, Pinkleton, and Jackson, 1999; Lin, 1998) that operationalized personal innovativeness as a personality measure instead of an indicator for “relative adoption time.”

By comparison, the other personal innovativeness scale, venturesomeness, was a weaker predictor for webcasting adoption. This might have been due in part to its lower scale reliability ($\alpha = .79$) and to the fact that experimenting with the use of webcasting technology involves little economic, social, or physiological risk. Nonetheless, the venturesomeness scale as developed here did capture the essence of Feldman and Armstrong’s (1975) conception to reflect an individual’s personality trait of willingness to take risk in general. It also validated Robertson and Kennedy’s (1968) hypothesis that asserts risk-taking willingness is an important personality factor in influencing one’s decision to adopt a new product. Moreover, the success of both personal innovativeness scales here also reaffirms the reliability of Donthu and Garcia’s (1999) two personality trait measures—innovativeness and risk aversion—as predictors for online shopping behavior.

The other theory tested in the equation—the use and gratification perspective—was also revealed as an empirically sound element in predicting webcasting adoption. Fundamentally, the two perceived utility scales that emerged—diversion/escape ($\alpha = .96$) and news/information ($\alpha = .95$)—by and large conformed to the perceived utility dimensions of web use in past studies (e.g., Kaye, 1998). It should be noted that perceived diversion/escape utility was a stronger predictor than perceived news/information utility for webcasting adoption. Hence, it may be reasonable to assume that what users seek from webcasting services, whether localized or nationalized, are primarily content features that could fulfill their needs for affective release (i.e., entertainment), followed by cognitive stimulation (i.e., surveillance and information learning).

What users seek from webcasting services, whether localized or nationalized, are primarily content features that could fulfill their needs for affective release (i.e., entertainment), followed by cognitive stimulation (i.e., surveillance and information learning).
Webcast feature interest is idiosyncratic and not easily generalized via online-use activity levels.

around recreational activities—i.e., previewing local events, movie trailers, concerts, and stage shows for booking considerations, with the exception of a definite interest in keeping up with the local weather. Web users were least interested in news, information, retail shopping, and classified advertising features. These findings then are consistent with audience perception of what the functions of the television medium represent—an entertainment medium that also delivers news and information.

As webcasting features tend to emulate the content of their offline counterparts (e.g., news, sports, and weather), this observation does reinforce Chan-Olmsted and Ha’s (2003) conclusion that television stations use their websites as a source to cultivate station-audience relationships and to provide support for their core products offline. In the present study, station website users made up 49 percent of the webcasting adopters, which appears to be a solid starting viewer base.

All told, webcasting services could offer a television station a brand new outlet for attracting advertisers who wish to target audiences possessing diverse demographic profiles and divergent viewing interests (e.g., news, weather, sightseeing, recreation, and entertainment choices)—all through the same virtual address. For example, with a well-positioned webcasting service, users could plan their leisure time by watching weather, news, traffic update, cooking demonstrations (from a weekly “menu” customized for the season and the region), restaurant preferences, and outing choices (e.g., movie trailers or event previews) on a station’s website.

Importing this scenario into a marketing context, advertisers could sponsor these webcast features by closely matching the content and media platform with their targeted advertising messages. A variety of consumer incentives (e.g., coupons, rebates, contests, etc.) could be integrated into these sponsorships to encourage the viewing of advertising webcasts. Brand placement could also be easily built into the different webcast programs, ranging from cooking demonstrations (e.g., Procter & Gamble) to event previews (e.g., Pepsi-sponsored concerts). Webcast advertising, hence, bears the substance of “mass appeal” delivered with a “personalized touch”—due to the one-to-many modality of webcasting delivery, tempered by a one-on-one intimate nature of webcast viewing.

CONCLUSION

Technically speaking, the bottleneck for webcasting diffusion—the last-mile issue related to broadband internet connection to the curb—is quickly dissolving. As the largest cable television (e.g., Comcast and Time Warner) and regional telephone companies (e.g., AT&T and Verizon) are all vying to dominate in the broadband market by offering consumers bundled-service packages at a discount rate, homes served by broadband networks are rapidly increasing. According to Nielsen/NetRatings (NetRatings, 2006), even though broadband internet connection has not reached the saturation point, price incentives are no longer the primary reasons for generating market growth. Instead, as the internet environment continues to move toward multimedia video platform in lieu of text-based information modality, consumers will embrace broadband services as a necessity. Hence, the timing may be ripe for the television industry to embark on its next frontier—internet TV—if the industry intends to tame the increasingly pervasive digital video piracy phenomenon, both domestically and internationally.

As a case in point, to combat online video piracy, the major television networks (during the spring of 2006) started to provide internet users free access to some of their most popular prime-time programs (e.g., 24, Alias, Desperate Housewives, etc.)—on their own and their local station affiliates’ websites—the day after these shows’ first airing for a certain period of time. This webcasting strategy may thus result in expanding the reach of these network and local station websites by
attracting new users. As the competition in delivering webcasting services grows between the major media conglomerates, who crave synergy between their horizontally and vertically integrated holdings (in both programming and delivery systems), the key to a television station's niche as a webcaster still rests with localism.

If television stations are to develop local webcasting as a venue for expanding their broadcast service online, they will need to identify potential early adopters in their respective markets, understand these users' perspectives on the utilities of webcast content usage, and ascertain webcast service features that could capture user interest. As the present study documents that webcasting adopters fit the early adopter profile of an avid online user with greater personal innovativeness and stronger utilitarian objectives, future studies should explore the potential role of these early adopters as a consumer base that can help accelerate a critical mass of adopters that will drive the widespread diffusion of webcasting.

Finally, as younger audiences continue to "flee" from broadcast television viewing (Livsey, 2004) and migrate their media-leisure time online, cultivating the webcasting landscape may be a necessary programming strategy for local television stations in the near future. To help survive and stay competitive in this rapidly changing digital media marketplace, especially with the pending arrival of digital broadcasting and its range of interactive features, a sound local webcasting strategy will be able to afford a television station additional programming platforms, branding outlets, and advertising revenue sources.

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