

PERCEPTIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION AND GENDER ROLES AMONG
AGRICULTURAL COMMUNICATIONS PRACTITIONERS

By

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Rebecca L. McGovney

This document is dedicated to my parents, thank you for giving me the right to dream.

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Abstract of Thesis Presented to the Graduate School
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Agricultural communications is a specialized area of communications in which practitioners function as communicators on behalf of agriculturally orientated academic institutions, industry and media outlets. Although at one time male-dominated, in the last 20 years agricultural communications has seen an increasing number of women enter the field. The purpose of this study was to explore attitudes towards job satisfaction and gender of those currently working in the agricultural communications field, specifically focusing on members of the Association for Communication Excellence in Agriculture, Natural Resources, and Life and Human Sciences (ACE).

The objectives of the study were to describe the demographics of the population of current, active, US-based agricultural communications practitioner respondents in ACE in terms of age, income level, education, marital status, and position; describe their perceived job satisfaction level in terms of overall job satisfaction and faceted job satisfaction; and to describe respondents' perceptions of gender roles. Perceptions of job

satisfaction and gender roles were then further described in terms of respondents' gender. The research design for this study was a descriptive census survey of the population of all current, active ACE members located within the United States for 2004 (n=510). The overall response rate for this study was 35.1% (n=179). The gender breakdown of respondents was 58.8% female (n=104) and 41.2% male (n=73), and almost all of the respondents were Caucasian (94.9%, n=168).

Results of this study showed that respondents were satisfied with their agricultural communications jobs overall, based on the Job in General (JIG) scale. Interestingly, although respondents were satisfied with the job satisfaction facets "work," "supervision," and "coworkers," as measured by the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), they were dissatisfied with the facets "pay" and "opportunities for promotion." In addition to the quantitative portions of this study, the researcher included a set of nominal "yes/no" questions, followed by an opportunity for open-ended qualitative responses. A key finding for this section of the study was that the majority of respondents (79.1%) stated they had not experienced any form of inequality in their field due to gender in the last five years. Qualitative analysis of the open-ended responses yielded several common themes. They were "agriculture=male," "sex or gender roles," "good old boys," "discrimination," "societal problem," and "rationalizations." A key counterevidence theme was statements that gender is not a factor at all in agricultural communications.

A major implication of this study is that there does seem to still be a glass ceiling of sorts for some women in agricultural communications employment as experienced by ACE member respondents that affects positions, salary, raises, and promotion opportunities.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Originating in the early 1800s, agricultural communications is one of the newer sectors of the agriculture industry (Buck & Paulson, 1995). Members of the profession are defined not as “agriculturalists primarily, but communicators who have a specialty” (Sprecker & Rudd, 1998, p. 40). It is a profession that applies the techniques and theories of communications to the agriculture industry (Sprecker & Rudd, 1998). The agricultural communications industry developed to meet the needs of scientists, who at the time asked for help responding to questions from the public as “agriculture outgrew the ability to pass information by word-of-mouth” (Buck & Paulson, 1995, p. 3). These scientists were on the forefront of the extension systems that would evolve with the Federal Land-Grant Act of 1862 and the state colleges of agriculture the bill provided (Boone, Meisenbach, & Tucker 2000; Buck & Paulson, 1995). “The United States agricultural college and extension system developed to fulfill a need for scientific information that could improve farming efforts” (Buck & Paulson, 1995, p. 3).

As state extension services grew in size and purpose in the early 20th Century, agricultural communications became recognized as a field of study at the university level (Buck & Paulson, 1995; Sprecker & Rudd, 1998). It has been a “professional field in the United States for approximately 100 years” with “professionals who combine 1) knowledge of agriculture, 2) skills in communications, and 3) interest in working with people” (Buck & Paulson, 1995, p. 2-3). There are currently over 30 agricultural

communications programs throughout the United States, most of which do not date back to the early 1900s, but are instead less than 20 years old (Scherler, 2001).

Today, agricultural communications is a hybrid of most of the media industries with practitioners working in news/reporting, editing, broadcast (including radio and television), electronic and web-based media, marketing, and public relations (ACE, 2004; Bowen & Cooper, 1989; Buck & Paulson, 1995; Scherler, 2001; Sprecker & Rudd, 1998; Terry & Bailey-Evans, 1995). Studies in which agricultural communications practitioners were asked to list their primary job descriptions/job skills produced a list centered around writing, editing, reporting, public relations, public speaking, and broadcast (Bowen & Cooper, 1989; Buck & Paulson, 1995; Scherler, 2001; Sprecker & Rudd, 1998; Terry & Bailey-Evans, 1995).

However, a major change has been occurring within agricultural communications in the last 20 years that has had little study: the “feminization” of agricultural communications. Similar to the employment trends within other media industries (Creedon, 1989; Grunig, 1992; Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001; Marlane, 1999; Toth & Cline, 1989), this involves an increasing number of women moving into the field (Scherler, 2001). Although past studies or discussions of agricultural communications employment trends have touched on some aspects of this issue, such as the number of women in undergraduate programs, the number of women in the industry, or how women moving into the industry might be perceived by farmers, there has been no single study on how female practitioners are treated by and within agricultural communications (Jeffers, 1987; Scherler, 2001; Sprecker & Rudd, 1998; Women at Work, 1976).

Jeffers (1987) presented the results of a study on the impact of gender on job satisfaction and status within livestock magazines. “As communications professions become female-dominated, salary and status within these professions will decrease—as they have with other female dominated professions such as nursing and teaching” (Jeffers, 1987, p. 4). The study showed a distinct difference in opinion between men and women responding to statements such as “men get promoted faster,” “men earn more than women,” and “men get raises faster.” Most of the male respondents did not believe these statements to be true, while most of the female respondents did (Jeffers, 1987).

Interviews with female agricultural communicators, both past and present, show an awareness of the perceived differences between men and women within the field. JoAnn Bell Pierce was one of the first female agriculture writers/editors in the U.S. and has described her first job with *Farm Quarterly* as being an inexpensive investment for the magazine because they could pay her 50% less than another new male employee (Pierce, 1998). In 1973, Colleen Callahan Burns became the first full-time woman farm broadcaster, but only after answering questions like “‘O.K., let’s say we hire you. What are all these farm men going to think of a woman giving the farm price quotations and talking about production ag—which is traditionally a man’s job?’” (Women at Work, 1976, p. 17). More recently Mila Shah, the American Agricultural Editors’ Association 2001 intern, stated; “I think it is very hard for women starting out because there still is a ‘good old boys’ network” (Sapp, 2002, p. 1).

Justification

As in many other communications fields, the field of agricultural communications may be experiencing a demographic shift towards females representing the majority of practitioners. Media researchers state that whenever an occupation becomes “female,”

meaning a higher number of female workers than male workers, the value of the work decreases (Creedon, 1989; Grunig, 1992; Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001; Marlane, 1999; Toth & Cline, 1989). Traditional female occupations in which this trend has been documented include nursing, teaching, and clerical work (Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001; Kimmel, 2004). This devaluing process can be seen in many ways, but media researchers focus on the gender-based inequalities that a shift in female numbers brings about. These include, but are not limited to, unequal pay/salary, unequal opportunity for advancement, unequal distribution in areas of work, and perceptions of worker relations and the work itself (Creedon, 1989; Gallagher, 1981; Grunig, 1992; Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001; Toth & Cline, 1989).

Pay/Salary

Salary differences exist between men and women in many parts of the media, including journalism/news, broadcasting (including television and radio), and public relations (American Society of Newspaper Editors, 1999; Creedon, 1989; Grunig, 1992; Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001; Marlane, 1999; Stone, 2000a,b,c,d; Toth & Cline, 1989; US Census, 2004a,b; Weaver, Beam, Brownlee, Voakes, & Wilhoit, 2003). A look at earnings data from the 2000 United States Census shows differences ranging from \$8,000 to \$20,000 between male and female salaries within media occupational categories (US Census, 2004a; US Census, 2004b). (See Table 1-1.) For the occupational category of news analysts, reporters and correspondents, the average male salary is \$55,000 while the average female salary is \$11,000 lower based on the almost 60,000 people who are considered full-time workers in this category. Although men slightly outnumber women in this category, women do make up a great portion of this media area. Public relations data from the 2000 Census shows around 17,000 more women than men in the

occupation, while salary for men is an average \$19,000 higher. Women also outnumber men as full-time workers in the occupational categories of editors and technical writers. Male and female editors make an average salary of \$53,000 and \$42,000 respectively, while male and female technical writers are separated by an \$8,000 difference in their salaries.

Broadcast media shows similar salary differences, although men far outnumber women in these technical occupation categories. (See Table 1-1.) The category including broadcast and sound engineering technicians and radio operators showed men's average salaries to be \$10,000 higher than that of women working in the same profession (US Census, 2004a,b). More than 63,000 photographers participated in the 2000 Census with male salaries averaging \$43,000 and female salaries averaging \$29,000. A second technical position of television and video camera operators and editors has 10,000 more men than women and a \$10,000 difference between their salaries. The final occupational category of miscellaneous media and communication workers is not clear as to what job descriptions are accounted for, but does show a \$10,000 difference between male and female salaries.

Table 1-1. Average earnings of male and female media workers

Occupation	Salary		Difference
	Male	Female	
News analysts, reporters and correspondents	\$55,000 n=34,530	\$44,000 n=25,340	\$11,000
Public relations specialists	\$65,000 n=39,290	\$46,000 n=56,410	\$19,000
Editors	\$53,000 n=59,560	\$42,000 n=61,320	\$11,000
Technical Writers	\$55,000 n=25,150	\$47,000 n=26,560	\$8,000
Broadcast/sound engineering techs & radio operators	\$46,000 n=49,700	\$36,000 n=6,860	\$10,000
Photographers	\$43,000 n=45,920	\$29,000 n=17,400	\$14,000
Television & video camera operators & editors	\$51,000 n=12,740	\$41,000 n=2,200	\$10,000
Miscellaneous media & communication workers	\$45,000 n=10,070	\$35,000 n=14,020	\$10,000

Note: based on number of year-round full-time workers (US Census, 2004a,b)

It has been argued that any differences between the salaries of men and women in media jobs are due to factors such as level of education, years of experience, age, or work-related training, instead of gender. However, many media studies have shown this to be false, finding differences in male/female salary levels still exist when these variables are held constant (Creedon, 1989; Grunig, 1992; Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001; Toth & Cline, 1989; Weaver et al., 2003). Although this was most likely not done for the 2000 Census data, the size of the sample suggests that these differences between male and female salaries do exist. A related area of study indicates that women's roles as

mothers, both childbearing and childrearing, has an effect on their level of pay.

“Employers may justify giving women lower salaries because of their belief that women are less loyal than men, quicker to leave the organization, largely because of family considerations” (Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001, p. 91). According to Harkness and Waldfogel “The fact that women with children are lower paid ... may reflect employer preferences or discrimination” (1999, p. 9).

Position/Advancement

Another trend seen within media research is unequal opportunity or unequal advancement for men and women. Many studies have shown that men and women do different types of work within the individual media industries. Although described in different ways, such as vertical job segregation or public relations roles, the reality is that women tend to be clustered around the lower level of jobs in an industry while men are more likely to hold high-level decision making positions (American Society of Newspaper Editors, 2004; Arnold & Hendrickson, 2003; Communication Research Associates, Inc., 2002, Fall, Winter, 2004; Creedon, 1989; Grunig, 1992; Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001; Jamieson, 2001; Marlane, 1999).

There is a connection from this division of jobs between men and women back to the pay gap discussed earlier. Those who argue against the existence of a gendered pay gap claim that men make more than women because they are in the higher levels of the organization (Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001). But these arguments do not take into account the limited movement women have within the media industries. “Backlash against women, which Rosen (1982) defined as men’s resentment toward groups given access to managerial positions (typically through affirmative action), represents an important barrier” (Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001, p. 92).

Public relations studies have found that women face unique problems within their industry, including a double standard for men and women, unequal advancement opportunity, and discrimination on the basis of sex or gender (Toth & Cline, 1989). Using focus groups of men and women in 1990 and 1995, Grunig, Toth, and Hon (2001) found that women feel men get promoted more quickly than women do, and that respondents considered it harder for women to reach the top of an organization than for men. A 2002 *PR Week* survey demonstrated the division of men and women into higher and lower job roles within public relations. While 8% of the men surveyed were chairmen, presidents, or CEOs of their companies, only 3% of the women were (Echo Research Inc., 2002). At the senior vice president level, 7% of the male respondents held the position, while only 2% of the women did. This trend is reversed for the lower position/role of account executive where 27% of the women surveyed work versus 18% of the men (Echo Research Inc., 2002).

Studies in broadcast media, both radio and television, have shown the same scarcity of women in high-ranking positions (Communication Research Associates, Inc., 2004; Creedon, 1989; Jamieson, 2001; Marlane, 1999). While women hold 26.5% of the news director positions in local television news, according to the 2003 Radio and Television News Directors Association Survey, this is up from only 14% in 1987 (Creedon, 1989). In addition, women only hold 13.9% of general manager positions at television stations (Papper, 2003). Patterns are similar in radio, with only 14.4% of news director positions for local radio news being held by women and only 7% of the general manager positions (Papper, 2003). Jamieson (2001) found women hold larger numbers in positions such as

anchors (52% local and 44% national) and promotions managers (46% television and 43% radio).

This trend extends past the individual television and radio stations and up into the broadcast and cable companies that own them (Jamieson, 2001). Of the five major network news networks (ABC, CBS, CNBC, CNN, and Fox), only 20% (13 out of 64) of the executives are women (Jamieson, 2001). As for major media/entertainment companies such as AOL/Time Warner, Clear Channel Communications, GE, Viacom, and Disney, only 10% of all company executives are women (Jamieson, 2001). In addition to these small numbers, Jamieson (2001) found that around half of female executives in both categories are in “traditional” female departments such as human resources, public relations, communications and government relations which are considered outside of the promotions ladder.

Newspaper studies highlight the gendered division of labor, as well. According to the 2004 American Society of Newspaper Editors survey, 49% of women hold jobs as reporters in newsrooms while only 18% of women hold titles of president, publisher, or CEO in newspapers (Arnold & Hendrickson, 2003). In addition, only 16% of executive vice presidents and general managers are women (Arnold & Hendrickson, 2003).

Women do comprise 63% and 73% of personnel senior vice president/vice president or director of human resource positions and senior vice president/vice president or director of community affairs, respectively, in newspapers or newspaper groups (Arnold & Hendrickson, 2003). These again are the positions that are considered female and outside of the “line of succession” (Arnold & Hendrickson, 2003, p. 53).

The reasons for this restriction of women to the lower job categories are rooted in sociological methods and theories that focus on the concept of “gender bias.” Gender bias is defined as “unequal treatment in employment opportunity (such as promotion, pay, benefits and privileges), and expectations due to attitudes on the sex of an employee or a group of employees” (Hill & Hill, 2003). Many researchers have cited the “good old boys” network described by American Agricultural Editors’ Association intern Mila Shah (Sapp, 2002). According to Grunig, Toth, and Hon (2001), “Almost all of our interviewees and focus group participants talked about women’s isolation from the inner circle where important business gets done” (p. 293). Female public relations practitioners also stated that this network “shuts them out at the management table as well as on the basketball court or on the golf course” (Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001, p. 293-294). Arnold and Hendrickson (2003) also found evidence of this male network in their 2003 survey of newspapers and newspaper groups. Jamieson described the media companies in her 2001 study as “innovating in technology, ways of sending and receiving information, and economic models for the 21st century—but their executive suites and boardrooms still largely resemble the stereotyped practices of the 1950s” (p. 13).

Job Satisfaction

One way to look at an individual in the workplace is through job satisfaction. This provides a method to determine how a person feels about his or her job, and if factors such as those listed above have any impact on those feelings. Although variously defined, job satisfaction is simply “the degree to which people like their jobs” (Scherler, 2001, p. 11). DeFleur (1992) conducted a study on job satisfaction between the media industries. Within the media careers she studied she found that practitioners were most satisfied with the prestige and creativity of their jobs and least satisfied with the control

and income they received (DeFleur, 1992). She ranked nine media occupations on their job satisfaction levels from high to low—photography (highest), public relations, magazine, advertising, journalism/electronic, film, television, radio, and finally journalism/newspaper (lowest) (DeFleur, 1992).

A large number of studies have been completed on job satisfaction within the media with varying results (Serini, Toth, Wright, & Emig, 1997). While some studies have shown that gender is related to the job satisfaction of media workers (Barrett, 1984; Communication Research Associates, Inc., 2004; Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001), others have shown that no such relation exists (Serini et al., 1997; Stone, 2000a,b,c,d). One consistent finding is that both men and women are satisfied with their jobs as a whole (Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001; Selnow & Wilson, 1985; Serini et. al, 1997; Stone, 2004a,b,c,d). The difference lies, then, in certain facets or variables related to a job. “The result of the inquiry into job satisfaction, although frequently contradictory, leads to an overall understanding that there are indeed differences between men’s and women’s levels of satisfaction with a variety of variables related to the work environment” (Serini et al., 1997, p. 101). These variables include the work itself; job level, job security and promotions; pay; supervision and coworkers; and amount of work (Barret, 1984; Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001; Selnow & Wilson, 1985; Serini et. al, 1997).

Selnow and Wilson (1985) found in their study that women were less favorable on their salary satisfaction scores than men. Similar results on salary satisfaction differences between men and women in public relations are presented in studies by Grunig, Toth, and Hon (2001) and Serini et al. (1997). Another facet of job satisfaction that female respondents indicated they are less satisfied with is the amount of work. In a 1990 study,

public relations practitioners were questioned if they were asked within their job to do excessive amounts of work. Female respondents “were less apt to agree that they were not asked to do excessive amounts of work” and “less satisfied with the amount of time they have to get the job done” (Rentner & Bissland, 1990, p. 954). Women have been found to be less satisfied with their jobs when their supervisor is male, citing exclusion and isolation (Serini et al., 1997).

Job satisfaction in broadcast media is similar between men and women, according to Stone (2000c,d). Slightly more men are satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs in television than women, 79% vs. 74%. In radio, more women than men are satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs, 78% vs. 72%. Broadcast communication tends to pay lower than most other communication fields, and this is seen in the influence facets such as salary and position were found to have the most influence on job satisfaction of both genders (T. Irani, personal communication, March 7, 2004; Stone, 2000a,b,c,d). Fifty-four percent of women in television said their current salaries are less than they expected when they entered the field while 67% of women in radio said the same (Stone, 2000a,b). Forty-four percent of men in television and 62% of men in radio said their current salaries are less than they expected when they entered the field (Stone, 2000a,b).

Women in news/journalism are also less satisfied with these facets of their jobs (Communication Research Associates, Inc., 2004). A 2002 study showed that women reported lower job satisfaction with salary and relationships with their bosses, as well as lower satisfaction with salary levels when they held low ranking positions within the newsroom (Communication Research Associates, Inc., 2004). In addition, women are four times more likely than men to predict they will leave the newspaper industry to work

in another field (Communication Research Associates, Inc., 2004). The 2002 American Journalist Survey showed that only 71.7% of female journalists were “fairly” or “very” satisfied with their jobs, while 86.6% of male journalists were (Weaver et al., 2003). Barrett (1984) studied job satisfaction among newspaperwomen and found high overall job satisfaction levels. However, low job satisfaction was expressed by the women in regards to opportunity to advance and salary.

Problem Statement

The literature suggests that the feminization of any industry produces inequalities as demonstrated above in public relations, news, radio, and television. Although a great number of women work in these fields, men are primarily still in charge. As agricultural communications is a field comprised of a hybrid of media occupations, it is important to explore any possible implications feminization has had on the industry and those working within it. This demographics shift could result in inequalities in pay, position, advancement, and job satisfaction, which could have an effect on current and future employment trends within agricultural communications.

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this study is to explore attitudes towards job satisfaction and gender of those currently working in the agricultural communications field, specifically focusing on members of the Association for Communication Excellence in Agriculture, Natural Resources, and Life and Human Sciences (ACE). Like many other industries, agricultural communications has professional organizations in which its members participate. ACE is the oldest and perhaps largest of those in agricultural communications with 674 members across the United States and the world (Carnahan, 2000; Hilt, 1988).

The association began in 1913 with a meeting of six land-grant college agricultural editors at the University of Illinois (Carnahan, 2000; Hilt, 1988). Originally called American Association of Agricultural College Editors (AAACE), the organization changed names in 1978 to Agricultural Communicators in Education (ACE) and once again in 2003 to the current name. They met annually so practitioners could discuss and review the work of their peers (Carnahan, 2000; Hilt, 1988). Members of this organization range in job descriptions from writers and photographers to graphic designers and electronic media producers, as well as marketing, public relations, editors, and web designers representing most, if not all, of the agricultural communications industry (ACE, 2004; Carnahan, 2000; Hilt, 1988). They work in both private sector in companies and firms, as well as the public sector within universities, government agencies, and research organizations (ACE, 2004; Carnahan, 2000; Hilt, 1988). In addition, a comparison of ACE members' job descriptions with those listed by corporate leaders in a national study as used in private industry showed similarity--marketing, advertising, public relations, writing/publishing, internet/web, and broadcast (ACE, 2004; Doerfert, Akers, Davis, Compton, Irani, & Rutherford, 2004).

By studying this large group of agricultural communicators, their responses and attitudes towards these subjects in relation to their jobs and the industry will go far to illuminate the role of gender within the profession.

The following research objectives guided this study:

- Describe the demographics of the population of current, active, US-based agricultural communications practitioner respondents in ACE in terms of age, income level, education, marital status, and position.

- Describe the perceived job satisfaction level of agricultural communications practitioner respondents in ACE in terms of overall job satisfaction (JIG) and faceted job satisfaction (JDI).
 - Describe respondents' job satisfaction as measured by the items in the PRSA job satisfaction scale.
 - Describe these items in terms of respondents' gender.
- Describe ACE agricultural communications practitioner respondents' perceptions of gender roles.
 - Further describe in terms of respondents' gender.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

This chapter describes the theoretical framework used to base this research study. It covers fundamentals of feminism and gender, including important definitions related to this area. Work as a gendered entity is also described, as well as job satisfaction, both general and faceted. Finally, social cognitive theory and cognitive dissonance are explored specifically in relationship to the media.

Theoretical Framework

Feminism/Gender

“If we are going to successfully understand the ‘feminization’ of public relations and the response it has involved, first we need to develop a sophisticated understanding of gender” (Toth & Cline, 1989, p. 288). The same can be said for understanding the feminization of agricultural communications. Feminism is a theory that describes and explains the devalued position of women throughout history and the current world and then sets out to change that position. The basis for feminist theories is grounded in the idea of a patriarchal society in which men occupy great power positions and can access items of value, such as money, through those positions. “In consequence of these asymmetries, feminists demonstrated, men (i.e. affluent white men) in such societies have license to shape and control many aspects of women’s lives” (Code, 2000, p. xix). History has shown through its record keeping and literary works that the society most

industrialized countries rely upon is a patriarchal one (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000; Kimmel, 2004).

There have been, and are, many waves of feminist political movement and theory. These theories vary in themes and time frames, but all acknowledge the inequality in society between men and women (Steeves, 1987). Equality is therefore the foundation of feminism. “In general it [equality] has been interpreted as women possessing the same essential capacities as men such that both sexes should enjoy access to the same opportunities and activities and be valued as of equal worth” (Code, 2000, p. 174). Code wrote that education was a value item, or essential capacity, denied to women because of their undervalued or lesser status. Feminists hoped that once women had access to education and qualifications to make them competitive with men, the inequality in work would end (Code, 2000). However, this does not seem true even in current society. “One of the assumptions has always been that once women had access to education, salary inequities would decrease. Not so” (Benokraitis, 1997, p. 8).

A difference exists between the terms “sex” and “gender,” which needs to be addressed. Sex is the natural or biological categories humans are born into by reproductive organ, or chromosomes, generally resulting in man and woman (Kimmel, 2004). Gender, male/female, is the meaning assigned to the different sexes by the society they live in (Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001; Kimmel, 2004). A step further is gender roles, or “social practices associated with masculinity or femininity” (Code, 2000, p. 223). The difference in these terms is rooted in the different explanations of gender that theorists use. Since the sexes have been given gendered meanings in American society, and this study will be working with people who may consider gender and sex to be the same, for

the purpose of this study the term “gender bias” will be interchangeable with the terms “sexual inequality” and “sexual discrimination.” The same will be true for “male” and “man” as well as “female” and “woman.”

Gendered Work

“The pay differential between men and women may have been mentioned first in the book of Leviticus (27:3-4). God told Moses that the work of women was worth three-fifths the pay of men, or 30 shekels of silver versus 50. Considerably more recently, Kaufman and Richardson (1982) concluded that women historically have held lower-status positions than have men” (Grunig, 2001, p. 35-36). Men and women have worked in some form or another, whether unpaid, compensated, or paid for as long as they have walked the earth (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000). And as long as there has been work, in some societies there has been a division of labor that places more value on the work of the male than the female (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000; Kimmel, 2004).

There have been many explanations given for this division of labor. The first is the biological explanation of gender and the division of labor. It states that men and women are naturally different at the anatomical, chemical and chromosomal levels (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000; Kimmel, 2004). Meanings are attached to these two categories within each society that show the differences between man and woman (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000; Kimmel, 2004). Since man and woman are naturally different, then they are better suited for different types of work, such as the hunter-gatherer arrangement (Kimmel, 2004). The cross-cultural explanation of gender shows that there is a great variation of gender across cultures and throughout time, so it is not as natural and consistent as the biological explanation explains (Kimmel, 2004). The

type of work men and women do varies across cultures and time as well, but the division of labor between them stays constant (Kimmel, 2004).

The social constructionist explanation of gender says that gender in western societies is socially reproduced through processes called gender relations that shape ideas of appropriate and inappropriate sex roles (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000; Kimmel, 2004). These processes occur through interactions within institutions that are gendered, such as schools and the workplace (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000; Kimmel, 2004). Since institutions are gendered and characterized by a male power, there is a division of labor within them (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000; Kimmel, 2004). Gender differences then come to be seen as natural through the process of reproducing the differences that exist in these institutions (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000; Kimmel, 2004). “It is through our experiences in the workplace...that the differences between women and men are reproduced and by which the inequality between women and men is legitimated” (Kimmel, 2004, p. 104).

Women nationally earn 74 to 75 cents to each dollar a man earns as shown by both government and private research (Benokraitis, 1997; DeLaat, 1999). This means that for every \$10,000 a man earns a woman will only earn \$7,400-7,500. In addition to pay inequality, women experience other forms of bias and discrimination in work. “The workplace is an important arena for sex inequality in our society” (Padavic & Reskin, 1994, p. 31). It sustains gender differentiation by focusing men and women into certain occupations and then at different levels within these occupations; which leads to unequal pay, authority and status; and subjects women to physical and verbal expressions of gender inequality (Padavic & Reskin, 1994). In 1987, writer Ann Morrison first used the

phrase “glass ceiling” to describe the invisible barrier that keeps women out of upper-level management positions and keeps them from advancing at the same speed and in the same way their male counterparts do. “Research has repeatedly demonstrated that men are more likely to be hired for professional and managerial positions than similarly qualified women” (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 57). For the women who do make it up to the management arena, according to Morrison there are “glass walls” present to keep them from interacting with the males at that level. In 1991, the Federal Glass Ceiling Commission was created to research this problem, and one of the findings showed that top level managers assess male and female workers differently, adding to evidence that gender bias is still present in work (DeLaat, 1999).

Code describes the separation of women in the job market as occupational gender segregation; “the concentration of women and men into different occupations, jobs and places of work” (2000, p. 499). Crompton and Sanderson (1990) described this division of labor as the most universal form of labor. “Occupational segregation reflects this division of labor; men are concentrated into ‘men’s’ occupations, women, into ‘women’s’. Gender affects not only what kinds of jobs people do, but also the kinds of rewards accruing to the occupation in question” (Crompton & Sanderson, 1990, p. 6).

There are two types of occupational gender segregation: horizontal and vertical (Benokraitis, 1997; Crompton & Sanderson, 1990; Padavic & Reskin, 1994). “Horizontal occupational segregation refers to the fact that women and men predominate in different kinds of occupation. Most women tend to be concentrated in certain occupations” such as personal services, clerical, health and education (Code, 2000, p. 499). These areas then become connected in people’s minds as being “female” or “male”

jobs (Hartmann & Reskin, 1986; Padavic & Reskin, 1994). This labeling can then influence the expectations of employers and workers as to who should work those jobs, circling back to gender bias (Padavic & Reskin, 1994).

In addition, jobs that are thought of as “female” are thought to be easier, require less ability and deserve less pay than identical work in a “male” job (Rhode, 1997). Vertical occupational segregation says that within an occupation women are grouped at the lower level of positions, including pay and duties (Code, 2000; Crompton & Sanderson, 1990; Padavic & Reskin, 1994). These occupational hierarchies can then be set as gender hierarchies, according to Code. The grouping of women into certain fields, such as education and health care, has long been referred to as “female ghettos” or “job ghettos.” The high number of women trying to get into and move up in these areas causes competition that decreases their earnings to between 30-40% less than men (Code, 2000). Crompton and Sanderson (1990) stated that all forms of occupational segregation explain the lower earnings of women compared to men, while Grunig, Toth, and Hon (2001) stated that 30-45% of the pay gap between men and women is explained by occupational segregation.

Job Satisfaction

Studies of job satisfaction have been around for many years, with some of the first organized attempts to study the subject dating to the early 1930’s (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951). “Job satisfaction refers to an overall affective orientation on the part of individuals toward work roles which they are presently employed in” (Kalleberg, 1977, p. 126). It has been estimated that over 5,000 articles have been written on job satisfaction in fields from psychology to human resources and personnel management (Higgins & Staples, 1998). Most job satisfaction instruments assume that a person’s satisfaction with

his or her job can be reached through their attitude toward their work, and so have questions of this manner (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; Kalleberg, 1977). Studying job satisfaction is important because the majority of people spend most of their time at work and by knowing what provides satisfaction and what does not, changes could be made within work organizations that could benefit society as a whole (Kalleberg, 1977). Even with so straightforward a question--are people satisfied with their jobs--there are still many theories on job satisfaction.

The concept of job satisfaction traditionally has been of great interest to social scientists...Many have been interested in job satisfaction, for example, as a result of a personal value system which assumes that work which enables satisfaction of one's needs furthers the dignity of the human individual, whereas work without these characteristics limits the development of personal potential and is, therefore, to be negatively valued...Other social scientists have been interested in this concept because of evidence that has linked the degree of satisfaction with work to the quality of one's life outside the work role...Still others were motivated to study job satisfaction out of a desire to improve productivity and organizational functioning (Kalleberg, 1977, p. 124).

Traditional job satisfaction theory set out to measure job satisfaction and develop measurement instruments while establishing basic theory (Burr, 1980). Certain aspects of traditional job satisfaction theory set it apart from others. The first aspect is referred to as expectancy, in that not only does the job provide the worker with satisfaction but also that a worker expects the job to provide this satisfaction (Groseth, 1978). A second aspect utilized by Smith, Kendall and Hulin is that job content and situation cannot be held separately of the overall environment the worker exists in when determining job satisfaction (Groseth, 1978). Another aspect of traditional job satisfaction theory is that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are treated as if on a single continuum, where job satisfaction is the opposite of job dissatisfaction (Burr, 1980; Groseth, 1978). (See Figure 2-1.)



Figure 2-1. Traditional job satisfaction model (Groseth, 1978)

The basis of Herzberg's Motivator-hygiene Theory, also referred to as the two-model theory, is that this is not true--job satisfaction is not the opposite of job dissatisfaction (Burr, 1980; Groseth, 1978). Rather there are two continuums, with job satisfaction on one and job dissatisfaction on the other (Burr, 1980; Groseth, 1978). (See Figure 2-2.) The opposite of job satisfaction, then, is the absence of job satisfaction, and the opposite of job dissatisfaction is the absence of job dissatisfaction (Burr, 1980; Groseth, 1978).

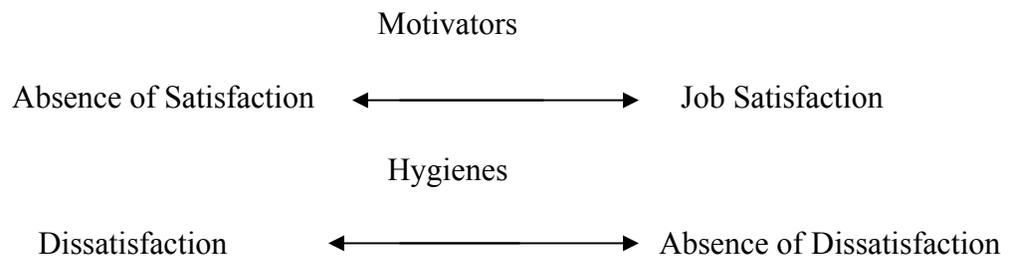


Figure 2-2. Motivator-hygiene job satisfaction model (Groseth, 1978)

This idea of two continuums came about when Herzberg reviewed over 2,000 job satisfaction studies and determined that the factors that cause job satisfaction are different than those that cause job dissatisfaction (Burr, 1980; Groseth, 1978). Factors that cause job satisfaction encompass the feelings a person has towards a job and were termed motivators (Burr, 1980; Groseth, 1978). They include achievement, recognition, responsibility, and the work itself. Factors that caused job dissatisfaction were outside factors not directly related to a job and were termed hygienes (Burr, 1982; Groseth, 1978). They include company policy, relationships, status, salary, and working conditions. "The primary function of 'hygienes' is to prevent or avoid pain or hunger or

to fulfill the other basic biological needs of man... In comparison, ‘motivators’ function to provide the individual with personal psychological growth” (Burr, 1980, p. 20).

In slight contrast to these job satisfaction theories is organizational management theory. Although the focus is still on the attitudes/satisfaction of the worker, it is a means to an end. “The widely-held belief that increased job satisfaction will lead to increased productivity also provides an important incentive for organizations to investigate job satisfaction” (Kalleberg, 1977, p. 211-212). The theory focuses then on how the attitudes of a worker will affect their workplace behavior, and how that can affect the organization they work for (Barrick & Ryan, 2003; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Tosi & Mero, 2003). (See Figure 2-3.) If job satisfaction/attitude can be improved with a reward (i.e. pay increase, etc.) then behavior can be positively changed to acquire a better outcome for the company (Tosi & Mero, 2003).

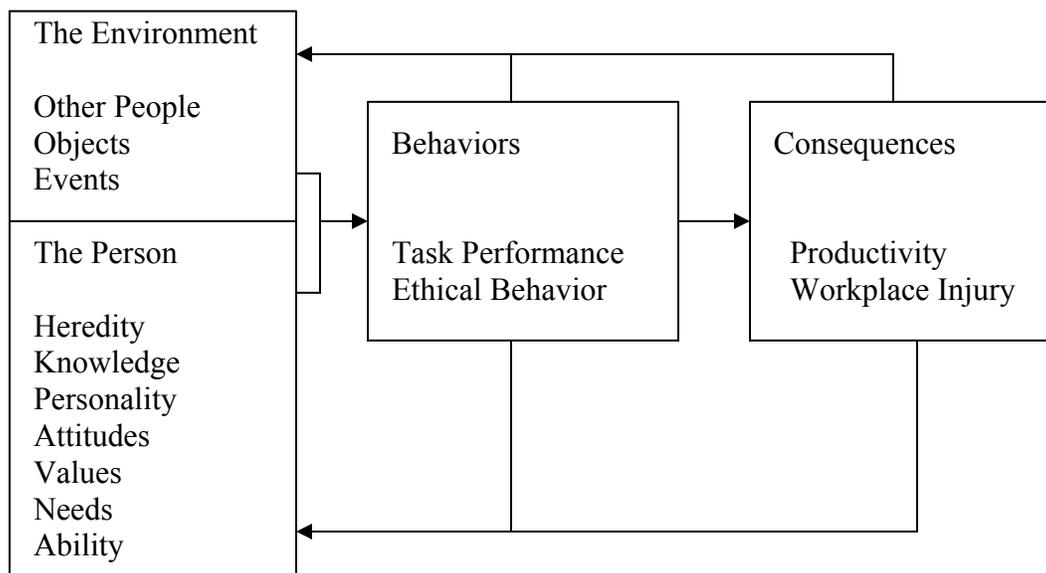


Figure 2-3. Basic model of human behavior (Tosi & Mero, 2003)

Although “no really substantial, reliable, or general correlation between satisfaction and productivity has been established” the ideas have been “sold” to management (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969, p. 3). Organizational management theory of job satisfaction has been taught to managers as a way to increase the production of their business the focus is not on the workers but how to put the workers to better use. Because this link does not exist (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969) the theory and its associated behaviors have been questioned.

Social Cognitive Theory

When studying forms of gender inequality within a sector of the media, it is important to note the influence these gender roles can have on the rest of society (Gallagher, 1981).

Gallagher (1981) stated “that there is a link between media output and the producers of that output: since the presence of women—particularly in creative and decision-making positions—in media organizations is severely imbalanced in relation to that of men, the assumption is that the images of women disseminated by mass media reflect and express male concepts and interpretations (p. 79).

Due to the large number of people that are exposed to the media, as an institution it can perpetuate ideas of gender inequality on a large scale. When men and women go to work in the media industry, they are producing words and images that are distributed into the public sphere. If these words and images reproduce a gender inequality that is present within the media workplace they could have an effect on gender within society as a whole (Bandura, 2001; Entman & Rojecki, 2001).

Social cognitive theory is a process through which individuals adopt behaviors or ideas such as gender (Bandura, 2001; Entman & Rojecki, 2001). A person sees a behavior--referred to as a model--such as gender in the job, in the school environment, or on television or hears it through the radio, by storytelling, or any number of ways

(Bandura, 2001; Entman & Rojecki, 2001). After witnessing the model, a person then compares it to previous knowledge he or she held on the subject and then decides whether to accept the new model (if it is different) or to reject it and stay with the old model (Bandura, 2001; Entman & Rojecki, 2001). The third step in social cognitive theory is spreading the behavior after it is adopted through a social network such as the ones where the model was witnessed in the first place (Bandura, 2001; Entman & Rojecki, 2001). Models which are accessible, are extremely attractive, or unattractive to a person, stand out or are noticeable, usually draw attention which is integral to the first step of acquiring knowledge (Bandura, 2001; Fiske, 1995).

One problem with this process is that humans desire simplicity. This desire results in people taking shortcuts in the process. Rather than compare new models with pre-held knowledge as the theory contends, to weigh the pros and cons of both sets of information, people have presumptions about the world around them that they use as shortcuts in the process. These presumptions are called schemas (Fiske, 1995). Schemas exist for almost everything, including people, places, things, words, and characteristics. “Organized prior knowledge or preconceptions—schemas of all types—smooth our information management and social experiences. The point is that people seek simplicity and good-enough accuracy understanding the world around them, and schemas are guides” (Fiske, 1995, p. 163). As shortcuts, schemas tend to categorize people and events and lead to stereotypes and role casting within society. “Schemas for roles are equivalent to *stereotypes*, people’s expectations about people who fall into particular social categories” (Fiske, 1995, p 162).

The mass media are integral to social cognition in many ways. Media are easily accessible because they come into people's personal and professional lives in multiple formats. Mass media also have tremendous reach, both in the numbers of people they can contact as well as the wide range of places they can serve (Bandura, 2001). Studies have shown that media portrayals shape the beliefs and views of the audience (Bandura, 2001; Dines & Humez, 2003). "Indeed, many of the shared misconceptions about occupation pursuits, ethnic groups, minorities, the elderly, social and sex roles, and other aspects of life are at least partially cultivated through symbolic modeling of stereotypes" (Bandura, 2001, p. 138).

The mass media provide this symbolic modeling. They serve as both a behavior model and a setting to witness a modeled behavior, while at the same time serving as a place to spread a modeled behavior (Bandura, 2001). At the same time the media models can serve as a reinforcement of a separately witnessed modeled behavior, which is the second step in social cognition (Bandura, 2001). According to Bandura, "Verification of thought by comparison with distorted media versions of social reality can foster shared misconceptions of people, places, and things" (2001, p. 269).

Cognitive Dissonance

There is a trend within gender work research that must be acknowledged because of what it implies not only about American society, but also the people who currently hold jobs. "Much of the problem of [gender] inequality is rooted in perceptions that there is no problem" (Toth & Cline, 1989, p. 1). Studies have shown an outright denial of the existence of gender inequality, even when faced with hard statistics such as salary and promotion data (Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001; Rhode, 1997; Toth & Cline, 1989). There are two versions of this denial that are closely related; that there is no problem or there

was a problem but the problem has been fixed. According to Rhode (1987), the most common response to gender inequality is to disagree with the breadth of the problem. “Women’s growing opportunities are taken as evidence that the ‘woman problem’ has been solved” (p. 1). Many men fail to recognize the presence of gender inequality because they do not have to deal with it, and so deny there is a problem (Rhode, 1997). Women, as well as men, are beginning to reject the idea of gender inequality (Rhode, 1997).

Female public relations practitioners have been quick to publicly deny gender inequality in public, as demonstrated in focus groups conducted by Grunig, Toth, and Hon (2001) and Toth and Cline (1989). Both studies showed that women were truthful about their work situations in regard to gender inequality on anonymous items such as the questionnaires used, but were embarrassed or hostile about admitting the same in front of others (Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001; Toth & Cline, 1989). Grunig, Toth, and Hon (2001) theorized that this is related to the negative images related to being a feminist and that women do not want to associate themselves with being a feminist or aligned with feminist causes. Another form of denial is that women who are not paid equally or do not advance equally did not deserve to receive these things (Rhode, 1997). If a woman had done the work to deserve a raise or a promotion, then she would have received it. Since she did not receive a raise or a promotion, instead of it being based on gender inequality, she must have done something wrong (Rhode, 1997). This form of denial places the burden at the individual level, rather than as a societal problem of gender inequality (Rhode, 1997). Instead of fixing society, the individual woman can correct her behavior or work ethic to receive the reward (Grunig, 1992; Rhode, 1997).

These denial attitudes can be explained in part by Festinger's theory of cognitive dissonance. Cognitive dissonance theory starts with the idea of cognitions--pieces of knowledge that people hold that include their ideas, opinions and beliefs on any given subject (Festinger, 1957). At any given time, these cognitions can be consonance or dissonance with other cognitions a person holds (Festinger, 1957). Stated simply, pieces of knowledge or cognitions are consonance with one another when they are consistent. An example is that 1) it is raining and 2) people will get wet as a result. These items are consonance. Cognitions are dissonant if they do not fit together, are inconsistent or contradictory (Festinger, 1957). An example of dissonance is that 1) it is raining and a person does not have an umbrella to walk outside but 2) they will not get wet in the rain. Cognitive dissonance has similarities to social cognitive theory in the manner in which new cognitions are introduced to a person. According to Festinger, new information can come from any number of sources including the home, the environment and the workplace (1957).

The importance of understanding cognitive dissonance is the resulting effect that dissonance can have on human behavior. Although the magnitude of dissonance between cognitions can vary, Festinger states that humans will strive for consistency in their knowledge (1957). "The important point to remember is that there is pressure to produce consonant relations among cognitions and to avoid and reduce dissonance" (Festinger, 1957, p. 9). This effort to reduce cognitive dissonance can take many formats, depending on the power of the previously held cognition or the power of the environment surrounding the person (Festinger, 1957). Ways to reduce dissonance include avoidance of new information that would conflict with a currently held belief, changing a behavior

related to a cognition (i.e. not going out in the rain), changing a social environment a person is in or adding new cognitive elements to reaffirm a consonance relationship and to negate the dissonance cognition (Festinger, 1957).

How then does this explain what is occurring within public relations where women will privately admit to a problem but refuse to publicly, or even become openly hostile? According to Festinger (1957), these actions can be explained by forced compliance theory and the resulting cognitive dissonance felt. “There are circumstances in which persons will behave in a manner counter to their convictions or will publicly make statements which they do not really believe” (Festinger, 1957, p. 84). Forced compliance is enacted through an implied or real threat of punishment for not complying with the social or group ideas, or through a promised reward for complying with the social or group ideas (Festinger, 1957). An important note is that while forced compliance results in a change in public behavior, it does not always affect privately held beliefs (Festinger, 1957). Spiral of silence, a more recent theory, takes a similar perspective, positing that individuals who think they hold a minority opinion tend to remain silent and conceal their views (Stone, Singletary, & Richmond, 1999). When a topic comes into conversation, individuals will internally assess how they believe those around them think and then choose to either voice their opinion or remain silent based on this assessment. This motivation to self-censor is based on the individual’s fear of isolation from the group (Stone, Singletary, & Richmond, 1999).

Because of this inconsistency, forced compliance can be identified by measuring and comparing public actions and/or beliefs with private actions and/or beliefs (Festinger, 1957). “In addition to observing the public behavior, it is also possible to identify a

discrepancy between public and private opinion by eliciting a statement under circumstances where the person is assured of anonymity” (Festinger, 1957, p. 87). These comparison methods were used by the public relations researchers previously described who showed an inconsistency between private and public opinion on the presence of gender inequality within the industry.

Although replication of Festinger’s original theory and resulting behaviors has been established, many criticize his work (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Festinger worked under controlled laboratory conditions and would never fully share all of the specifics of these conditions or his experimental procedures. Later research found that dissonance could be made to appear and disappear by changing some of the experimental methods and so the theory was adapted to include “a much narrower range of situations than Festinger had originally envisioned” (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p. 511). Therefore a direct link between Festinger’s cognitive dissonance theories and the behaviors he suggested people perform in order to reduce their dissonance may not exist. If these behavior patterns do exist they will be hard to measure.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

This chapter will describe the methods and procedures of this study as they relate to 1) research design, 2) subject selection, 3) instrumentation, 4) data collection, and 5) data analysis.

The following objectives, established in Chapter One, guided this research study:

- Describe the demographics of the population of current, active, US-based agricultural communications practitioner respondents in ACE in terms of age, income level, education, marital status, and position
- Describe the perceived job satisfaction level of agricultural communications practitioner respondents in ACE in terms of overall job satisfaction (JIG) and faceted job satisfaction (JDI).
 - Describe respondents' job satisfaction as measured by the items in the PRSA job satisfaction scale.
 - Describe these items in terms of respondents' gender.
- Describe ACE agricultural communications practitioner respondents' perceptions of gender roles.
 - Further describe in terms of respondents' gender.

Research Design

The research design for this study was a descriptive census survey of the population of all current, active ACE members located within the United States for 2004 (n=510).

The survey was conducted via mail using Dillman's Tailored Design method procedures (2000). Although largely quantitative in nature, the survey did allow for some qualitative responses. For the purpose of the study, the instrument was used to assess the dependent

variables (job satisfaction and perceptions of gender) and independent variables (demographics, education, and employment factors).

Subject Selection

To conduct this study, a census population of current, active ACE members within the United States was used. As discussed in Chapter One, ACE is the oldest and possibly the largest organization of agricultural communicators (Carnahan, 2000; Hilt, 1988). ACE members work throughout the industry, in both the private and public sector, with occupations ranging from writers to photographers, graphic designers to educators, and electronic media producers to marketing specialists (ACE, 2004; Carnahan, 2000; Hilt, 1988). The goal of the organization is to develop the “professional skills of its members to extend knowledge about agriculture, natural resources and life and human sciences to people worldwide” (ACE, 2004).

The total number of 2004 ACE members was 674 people. Due to the nature of the study and its focus on job satisfaction (i.e. asking about current job and perceptions related to it), the retired and lifetime members were excluded from the population. Non-U.S. members were also excluded since gender studies and job satisfaction studies outside of the United States tend to be based on a different theoretical framework. This resulted in a population definition of current, active United States ACE members (n=510).

To develop the population used in this study, the ACE coordinator at the University of Florida provided the names and addresses of the members. Permission to do so was received from two ACE presidents, as this study overlapped two executive years (T. Knecht, personal communication, March 2004; J. Winn, personal communication, August 2005).

Instrumentation

The 154-item questionnaire used for this survey was made up of three portions. The first portion consisted of two job satisfaction scales--the Job in General scale (JIG) and the Job Descriptive Index. The second portion consisted of items taken from the Glass Ceiling Survey used by the Public Relations Society of America. The third portion of the survey was designed by the researcher to gather demographic information, as well as open-ended responses to gender related experiences. A panel of experts reviewed the instrument for content and face validity. A pilot test was conducted September 2004 with current, active Florida ACE members (n=24). Responses from the pilot test were used to refine the survey instrument (McGovney, Irani, & Telg, 2005).

Instrument--Part One

Within job satisfaction research there are different types of job satisfaction that can be studied: faceted, or variable job satisfaction, and overall job satisfaction. Faceted job satisfaction deals with specific areas or characteristics of a job, and asks a person how he/she feels specifically about a single area (Bissland & Rentner, 1990; Selnow & Wilson, 1985). These facets are meant to be homogeneous (Ironson et. al., 1989). Several facets or areas are usually tested, including pay, job security, job comfort, financial rewards, support, and promotions (Bissland & Rentner, 1990; Selnow & Wilson, 1985). Overall job satisfaction deals with how people feel about their job as a whole, all things included (Bissland & Rentner, 1990; Selnow & Wilson, 1985). These general scales “estimate the respondents overall feelings about the job” and “are widely used as indexes of organizational effectiveness” (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Givson, & Paul, 1989, p. 194).

The Job in General, or JIG (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Givson, & Paul, 1989), and the Job Descriptive Index, or JDI (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969), were chosen as the primary job satisfaction indexes for the survey instrument. The JDI measures five specific facets of job satisfaction--"work on present job," "pay," "opportunities for promotion," "supervision," and "coworkers." According to Balzer et al (1997) "The JDI has remained the most popular standardized measure of job satisfaction and has been used by hundreds of organizations...it has been called 'the gold standard' of measuring job satisfaction" (p. 15). With this instrument, the facets measured stand alone, meaning they cannot be added together to get an overall level of job satisfaction. For this reason, the JIG was chosen to measure participant's overall job satisfaction. Reliability for the five JDI scales, as well as the JIG, was determined in 1997 using national data (Balzer et al, 1997). (See Table 3-1 for reliability values.)

Table 3-1. Reliability values for the JDI and JIG

	Cronbach's alpha	n
Job Descriptive Index (JDI)		
-Work	.90	1623
-Pay	.86	1603
-Opportunities for Promotion	.87	1611
-Supervision	.91	1613
-coworkers	.91	1615
Job in General (JIG)	.92	1629

Note: "n" is national norm data used to calculate reliability

The JDI contains a total of 72 items. The work, supervision, and coworkers subscales have 18 items apiece, while the pay and promotion subscales each have nine. There are 18 items for the JIG scale. Respondents are given a brief explanation of each scale before the items. For example, before the work subscale items the instrument reads

“Think of the work you do at present. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your work?” The words or short phrases are evaluative adjectives used to describe an individual’s job. Participants can respond in three ways--"yes" the word or phrase applies to their job, "no" the word or phrase does not apply to their job, or "?" they are uncertain/cannot decide if the word or phrase applies to their job. (See Table 3-2 for example of questions.)

Table 3-2. Questions from the JDI pay subscale

Question	Scale		
Think of the pay you get now. How well does each of the following describe your present pay?			
-Fair	Y	N	?
-Barely live on income	Y	N	?
-Less than I deserve	Y	N	?
-Well paid	Y	N	?

Around half of the items for each scale are worded favorably (i.e. “excellent”), while the remaining items are unfavorable descriptions (i.e. “dull”). Job satisfaction scores result by assigning numerical values to “yes,” “no,” and “cannot decide.” For the favorable items, a “yes” receives 3 points, a “no” receives 0 points, and “?” receives 1 point. The scoring is changed for the unfavorable items, where “yes” indicates dissatisfaction rather than satisfaction. A “yes” receives 0 points, a “no” receives 3 points, and a “?” receives 1 point.

Both the JIG and the JDI are copyrighted by Bowling Green University. The researcher received permission to utilize these scales from personnel in the Department of Psychology who oversee the instrument, in return for sending entry-level JIG and JDI data from this study to the department (I. Little, personal communication, February 2004).

Instrument--Part Two

The survey instrument used by the Public Relations Society of America for its 1990 and 1995 glass ceiling surveys was chosen due to its relevance as a gender study of a large communication organization (Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001). According to Grunig, Toth, and Hon (2001) the instrument was initially developed by the Women's Task Force of the Public Relations Society of America to determine "the status of women in public relations" (p. vii). During these first five years of gender research in PRSA, there were two groups of researchers. The main researchers for the first group included Linda Hon, Donald Wright, Elizabeth Toth, Larissa Grunig, and Jeffrey Springston (Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001). The second group of researchers included Donald Wright, Elizabeth Toth, Shirley Serini, and Arthur Emig (Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001).

In 1990, the survey was mailed to a large random sample of PRSA members (n=2,785) with a 37% usable return rate (n=1,027) (Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001). In 1995, the survey was again mailed randomly to a sample of PRSA members with a 45% usable return rate (n=678) (Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001).

Most of the questions addressed gender-related professional issues such as participants' perceptions of the impact of gender-related professional issues within their organization and throughout the overall field of public relations. The questionnaire included a job satisfaction index, as well as questions about demographic and organization characteristics (Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001, p. 362).

Reliability for the PRSA survey instrument subscale indices has been reported as follows: for the gender perception scale (relating to inside one's organization), $r = .73$ and $r = .56$ (with respect to the industry as a whole) (Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001); and for the job satisfaction scale, $r = .85$ (Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001).

The researcher received permission to use and adapt this survey instrument from two of the original researchers, Larissa Grunig and Elizabeth Toth, as well as one of the

current researchers in possession an electronic copy of the instrument, Linda Aldoory (L. Grunig, personal communication, June 2004; E. Toth, personal communication, June 2004; L. Aldoory, personal communication, June 2004). Thirty-eight items from this instrument were included in the researcher's survey. To adapt them for this study, the researcher replaced the words "public relations" with "agricultural communications." The first 14 items came from the job satisfaction scale mentioned above. Respondents were asked to consider their satisfaction with both faceted and overall job satisfaction on a five-point Likert scale; where "1" equaled "extremely dissatisfied," "2" equaled "dissatisfied," "3" equaled "uncertain/don't know," "4" equaled "satisfied," and "5" equaled "extremely satisfied." (See Table 3-2 for example of questions.)

Table 3-3. Questions describing job satisfaction

Question	Scale				
How satisfied are you with...					
-your present job in agricultural communications?	1	2	3	4	5
-your knowledge of agricultural communications skills?	1	2	3	4	5
-the value of your job to society?	1	2	3	4	5
-job security in your present position?	1	2	3	4	5

The other 24 items taken from the PRSA survey addressed perceptions of gender in professional situations, both in the individual's own organization and then throughout the agricultural communications industry. Participants were asked to respond to twelve gender-related statements, once for their organization and then again for the industry. These items were on a five-point Likert scale; where "1" equaled "strongly disagree," "2" equaled "disagree," "3" equaled "uncertain/don't know," "4" equaled "agree," and "5" equaled "strongly agree." (See Table 3-4 for example of questions.)

Table 3-4. Questions describing perceptions of gender in professional situations

Question	Scale									
	In your organization					Throughout Agricultural communications				
-Generally women receive lower salaries than men for doing comparable agricultural communications work.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
-Men are promoted more quickly than women in most agricultural communications employment situations.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
-Women are often hired as a result of affirmative action policies.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
-Members of my audience prefer to work with male agricultural communicators.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Instrument--Part Three

The third portion of the instrument mainly consisted of demographic questions. These included gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, number of children (if any), and highest level of education. Employment status/history questions were also asked in this section, including current organization, number of people in organization, status as a manager and how many people supervised, length of agricultural communications employment, and current salary level. Most of these questions were adapted from similar demographic/employment questions found in the PRSA survey instrument.

There were four researcher-developed questions in this section. The first asked respondents to identify which ACE Special Interest Group (SIG) relates to their current job the closest. There are 14 SIGs available to ACE members, ranging from “photography” to “media relations” to “distance education and instructional design” (ACE, 2004). SIGs are described as groups that “provide a community of common

interests and expertise, and an additional way to sharpen...skills and grow professionally” (ACE, 2004). The remaining three researcher-developed questions were items based on the gender-related professional questions adapted from the PRSA survey. Due to time/monetary limitations, the researcher was not able to conduct focus groups or personal interviews as the glass ceiling researchers did. Because mixed-methods is “one of the hallmarks of feminist scholarship” that produces “new and better (more comprehensive) research” (Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001, p. 361), the researcher worked with experts to develop qualitative-type questions to include in the study. One of these questions was “Have you experienced any form of inequality due to gender or sexual harassment within your work in agricultural communications in the last five years?” Respondents were asked to first select “yes” or “no”, and then to provide a qualitative response if they so desired.

Data Collection

The researcher submitted a detailed research protocol to the University of Florida Institutional Review Board (IRB) July 2004. After making suggested changes to more fully describe the gender situations involved in the nature of the study, full approval was given on August 9, 2004. This approval by the IRB board confirmed that the research presented minimal risk to the participants (Appendix A).

Dillman’s Tailored Design (2000) survey procedures were used for this study. Due to the large number of items in the instrument, as well as the large number of participants, the survey was formatted to be used with a Scantron. Each questionnaire (Appendix B) and Scantron was coded to identify non-respondents. The first wave sent to respondents was an initial contact letter, written by the researcher for the 2005-2006 ACE President Judy Winn (Appendix C). It was sent by email on October 1, 2004 to the entire ACE

listserv, maintained by the University of Florida. It introduced both the researcher and the research, and advised ACE members when they would be receiving the survey.

The second wave was mailed on October 8, 2004. The packet contained a cover letter (Appendix D), two informed consent statements with the IRB approval stamp/study number--one for the participants to sign and return to the researcher and one for them to keep (Appendix E), the survey instrument and a Scantron answer sheet. Two postage-paid, self-addressed campus envelopes were included in this packet so that participants could return their signed informed consent statements separately from their completed surveys if they wished. A reminder/thank you postcard was sent as a third wave to all participants two weeks after the survey packet was sent on October 19, 2004 (Appendix F). The fourth wave was a reminder email sent by the ACE coordinator on behalf of the researcher to the full ACE listserv (Appendix G). This email, sent November 2, 2004, reminded ACE members of the study underway and asked them to please complete and return their survey if they had not already done so.

Data Analysis

Data was coded by computer for those items on the Scantron answer sheet by the University of Florida Academic Technology Forms Processing Office. These included demographics/employment questions, JIG scale, JDI subscales, and the PRSA job satisfaction questions. This data was then transferred into Statistical Software for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 12.0 for Windows. Participants were asked to respond to the gender-related situation questions from the PRSA survey, both in their organization and throughout agricultural communications, on the survey instrument. These items, along with the three researcher-developed gender “yes/no” questions were coded by hand and

entered into SPSS by the researcher. The qualitative responses to the three researcher-developed questions were entered into Microsoft Word (Appendix H).

SPSS was used to develop and calculate frequencies and descriptive statistics, such as means and standard deviations. Reliability of the JIG scale, the JDI subscales, and the PRSA job satisfaction index were calculated in the form of Cronbach's alpha. The researcher hand-coded the qualitative responses to find common groupings and themes using a modified inductive analysis technique based on Hatch's (2002) inductive analysis methods for qualitative responses.

CHAPTER 4 FINDINGS AND RESULTS

The major findings of this study, along with data analysis procedures, are described in this chapter. The order of this chapter will follow the objectives laid out in Chapters One and Three, which are:

- Describe the demographics of the population of current, active, US-based agricultural communications practitioner respondents in ACE in terms of age, income level, education, marital status, and position.
- Describe the perceived job satisfaction level of agricultural communications practitioner respondents in ACE in terms of overall job satisfaction (JIG) and faceted job satisfaction (JDI).
 - Describe respondents' job satisfaction as measured by the items in the PRSA job satisfaction scale.
 - Describe these items in terms of respondents' gender.
- Describe ACE agricultural communications practitioner respondents' perceptions of gender roles.
 - Further describe in terms of respondents' gender.

The overall response rate for this study was 35.1% (n=179) of the 510 current, active ACE members located in the US that defined the accessible population. To control for nonresponse error, the researcher compared early and late respondents. This comparison was conducted first by splitting respondents into quartiles, so that the first 25% who returned completed questionnaires were grouped as "early" respondents and the last 25% were grouped as "late" respondents (Rhoades, 2004). Forty-five respondents were selected for each group.

Frequency distributions were used to analyze early versus late respondents in terms of gender, age, ethnicity, highest level of education, and job satisfaction. The gender breakdown of early and late respondents was exactly the same, with 43.2% (n=19) male and 56.8% (n=25) female. One person from each group declined to list their gender. One hundred percent of early respondents listed their ethnicity as Caucasian compared to 93.3% (n=42) of late respondents.

The majority of early respondents, 75% (n=33), listed their age as 40 years or above as did 79.5% (n=35) of the late respondents. (See Table 4-1.) There were twice as many late respondents (n=6) between the ages of 20-29 years old, and three times as many early respondents between the ages of 30-39 (n=8). Fifty percent of early respondents (n=22) indicated they held a master's degree, while only 39.5% of late respondents (n=17) did. There were slightly more respondents with bachelor's degrees in the late respondents group, and slightly more respondents with doctoral degrees in the early respondents group.

Table 4-1. Comparison of early and late respondents' age and education

	Early Respondents		Late Respondents	
	n	%	N	%
Age				
-20-29 years old	3	6.8	6	13.6
-30-39 years old	8	18.2	3	6.8
-40-49 years old	16	36.4	12	27.3
-50-59 years old	9	20.5	16	36.4
-60+ years old	8	18.2	7	15.9
Highest Level of Education				
-bachelor's degree	10	22.7	14	32.6
-master's degree	22	50.0	17	39.5
-doctoral degree	12	27.3	10	23.3

Overall job satisfaction levels of early and late respondents were also similar. The grand mean for early respondents on the JIG scale was 42.44 while the grand mean for late respondents was 43.87. The researcher used independent samples t-test to compare early and late respondents and no significant differences were observed. (See Table 4-2.)

Table 4-2. T-test for significant differences between early and late respondents

	Early Respondents		Late Respondents		Sig.	t Value
	n	m	n	m		
Gender	44	1.57	44	1.57	1.00	.00
Age	44	3.25	44	3.34	.72	-.36
Ethnicity	44	1.00	45	1.11	.09	-1.68
Highest Level of Education	44	3.05	43	3.00	.79	.27
JIG	45	45.93	45	43.87	2.07	1.03

Objective One

Describe the demographics of the population of current, active, US-based agricultural communications practitioner respondents in ACE in terms of age, income level, education, marital status, and position.

The literature suggests an employment trend in communication fields toward higher numbers of female employees, which was also the case in this study; the majority of the respondents were female. The gender breakdown was 58.8% female (n=104) and 41.2% male (n=73), with two missing responses. An overwhelming majority of the respondents listed their ethnicity as Caucasian, 94.9% (n=168). Four respondents selected African American, three respondents selected Hispanic/Latin American, two respondents selected other, and two respondents did not answer. Respondents were asked to give their age by choosing from five, nine-year age ranges. (See Table 4-3.) The majority of respondents selected either the 40-49 years old range (29.0%, n=51) or the 50-59 years old range (29.5%, n=52).

Table 4-3. Age of respondents

Age Range	N	%
20-29 years old	21	11.9
30-39 years old	26	14.8
40-49 years old	51	29.0
50-59 years old	52	29.5
60+ years old	26	14.8
Total	176	100.0

A majority of the respondents (79.7%, n=141) were married or have a live-in partner. Eighteen (10.2%) of the study participants stated they are single, 15 are divorced (8.5%), two are widowed (1.1%), one is separated (0.6%), and two participants did not respond to the question. Most of the respondents (60.6%, n=106) answered “no” when asked if they have children under 18 years old living at their home. Of those who do have children under 18 living at their home (n=69), the majority have one child (n=29) or two children (n=31).

Almost half of the respondents reported having a master’s degree (41.6%, n=72), followed closely by those holding a bachelor’s degree as their highest form of education (34.7%, n=60). Table 4-4 presents this information.

Table 4-4. Respondents’ highest level of education

Degree	N	%
High school diploma	2	1.2
Bachelor’s degree	60	34.7
Master’s degree	72	41.6
Doctoral degree	39	22.5
Total	173	100.0

One hundred and fifty-one, or 85.8%, of the respondents work for an agricultural institution of higher education. (See Table 4-5.) The next highest response for work organization was government agency with 9.1% (n=16). To further understand the

organizations the study participants worked for, respondents were asked how many agricultural communications practitioners worked in their office, excluding themselves. Almost half, 42.9% (n=75) stated there were more than 11 other agricultural communications practitioners in their department.

Table 4-5. Respondents' organization and agricultural communications coworkers

	N	%
<u>Work organization</u>		
Agricultural institution of higher education	151	85.8
Government agency	16	9.1
Other	5	2.8
For profit company	2	1.1
Trade or professional organization	2	1.1
Total	176	100.0
<u>Number of Agricultural Communicators in Office</u>		
0 practitioners	19	10.9
1 practitioner	13	7.4
2-5 practitioners	38	21.7
6-10 practitioners	30	17.1
11+ practitioners	75	42.9
Total	153	100.0

Participants were asked to report their current salary levels within an approximate \$20,000 range. Of the 175 who responded, 41.7% (n=73) stated that their salary was between \$41,000-60,000, and 29.1% (n=51) stated their salary was between \$20,000-40,000. Respondents were then asked to select how long they had worked in agricultural communications: less than two years, 2-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-20 years or 21-30 years. Responses to this question were distributed evenly across these ranges, 20.2% (n=35) worked in agricultural communications for 2-5 years, 22.5% (n=39) worked in agricultural communications for 6-10 years, 23.1% (n=40) worked in agricultural

communications for 11-20 years, and 30.1% worked in agricultural communications for 21-30 years. (See Table 4-6.)

Table 4-6. Respondents' salary and time spent working in agricultural communications

	N	%
<u>Current Salary</u>		
\$20,000-40,000	51	29.1
\$41,000-60,000	73	41.7
\$61,000-80,000	28	16.0
\$81,000-100,000	9	5.1
\$101,000+	14	8.0
Total	175	100.0
<u>How long worked in agricultural communications</u>		
Less than 2 years	7	4.0
2-5 years	35	20.2
6-10 years	39	22.5
11-20 years	40	23.1
21-30 years	52	30.1
Total	173	100.0

When asked to select the ACE Special Interest Group (SIG) to which their current job function most closely related, responses were distributed somewhat evenly across the board. For this question, the researcher grouped similar SIGs together, and the Writing/Media Relations/Marketing SIGs were selected by most of the participants (30.6%, n=53) followed closely by the Publishing/Graphic Design/Photography SIGs (26.0%, n=45). Six participants did not respond to the question. (See Table 4-7.)

Table 4-7. ACE special interest group with closest relation to respondents' job

SIG	N	%
Writing/Media Relations/Marketing	53	30.6
Academic Programs/Research	22	12.7
Electronic Media/Distance Education and Instructional Design/Information Technology	33	19.1
Communications Management	20	11.6
Publishing/Graphic Design/Photography	45	26.0
Total	173	100.0

The majority of participants do not currently hold management positions in their organizations (63.1%, n=111). Of the 65 respondents (36.9%) who are currently managers, the majority have been in the position for one to five years (n=27) and supervise two to five people (n=28).

Objective Two

Describe the perceived job satisfaction level of agricultural communications practitioner respondents in ACE in terms of overall job satisfaction (JIG) and faceted job satisfaction (JDI).

Describe respondents' job satisfaction as measured by the items in the PRSA job satisfaction scale.

Describe these items in terms of respondents' gender.

Two scales were used to determine participants' overall job satisfaction. The first was the Job in General (JIG) from Bowling Green University, which is comprised of 18 items. The researcher conducted scale reliability analysis with the population data collected using Chronbach's alpha. The standardized item alpha for the JIG was .89. The second scale used by the researcher to test participants' overall job satisfaction was the 14-item job satisfaction index taken from the PRSA glass ceiling instrument. Reliability analysis for this scale was also conducted using Cronbach's alpha. The standardized item alpha for the PRSA job satisfaction scale was .83.

Respondents' faceted job satisfaction levels were measured using the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) from Bowling Green University. The JDI is divided into five subscales that measure specific facets of job satisfaction—work, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, and coworkers. There are a total of 72 items for the JDI, the work, supervision, and coworkers subscales have 18 items apiece, while the pay and promotion subscales each have nine. Standardized item alphas for the five subscales are listed in Table 4-8. These were also calculated using scale reliability analysis.

Table 4-8. Cronbach's alpha values for JDI subscales

	Cronbach's alpha	N
Work	.86	176
Pay	.83	176
Opportunities for Promotion	.86	177
Supervision	.85	159
Coworkers	.83	177

JIG/JDI

The average grand mean for all participants on the JIG scale was 45.88 on a scale that ranges from 0 to 54. (See Table 4-9.) According to Balzer et al (1997) the midpoint of the JIG and the JDI scales is 27, and scores at 32 or above indicate satisfaction while scores of 22 or below indicate dissatisfaction. Because the JDI is divided into five distinct subscales, an individual grand mean was calculated for each one. Participants' responses seemed to show higher satisfaction with the work they currently do (M=45.46), the supervision they received (M=40.92), and their coworkers (M=43.67). Respondents indicated they were less satisfied with their current pay (M=33.66) and dissatisfied with their opportunities for promotion (M=18.28). Table 4-9 presents this information.

Table 4-9. Mean scores for the JIG and JDI

	N	M	SD
JIG	179	45.88	8.23
JDI			
-Work	179	45.46	9.36
-Coworkers	177	43.67	9.17
-Supervision	177	40.92	10.96
-Pay	177	33.66	14.53
-Opportunities for Promotion	177	18.28	14.49

Note: Based on a 0-54 scale, where 22 or less indicates dissatisfaction and 32 or more indicates satisfaction.

PRSA

For these items, respondents were asked to indicate their own satisfaction levels on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1=extremely dissatisfied, 2=dissatisfied, 3=uncertain/don't know, 4=satisfied, and 5=extremely satisfied. Respondents indicated highest satisfaction (M=4.28, n=178) with the freedom and autonomy they have in their present job. (See Table 4-10.) Participants stated they were satisfied with their present job in agricultural communications (M=4.12, n=175) and agricultural communications as an occupation (M=3.99, n=176). Respondents also indicated satisfaction with their knowledge of agricultural communications skills (M=4.09, n=177) and their overall knowledge of agricultural communications (M=4.07, n=177) and the value of their job to society (M=3.90, n=178).

Respondents' indicated they were moderately satisfied with prospects for their future with their present employer (M=3.57, n=177) and prospects for their future in agricultural communications (M=3.59, n=176). Participants were also somewhat satisfied with job security in their present position (M=3.63, n=177) and recognition they get from their superiors (M=3.56, n=178). Respondents indicated moderate satisfaction with their income as an agricultural communications practitioner (M=3.38, n=176), the

prestige of working in agricultural communications (M=3.30, n=176), and opportunities for advancement with their present employer (M=3.02, n=176). This information is presented in Table 4-10.

Table 4-10. Respondents' perceptions of job satisfaction

	N	M	SD
How satisfied are you with...			
-the freedom and autonomy you have in your present job?	178	4.28	.81
-your present job in agricultural communications?	175	4.12	.74
-your knowledge of agricultural communications skills?	177	4.09	.65
-your overall knowledge of agricultural communications?	177	4.07	.69
-agricultural communications as an occupation?	176	3.99	.69
-the value of your job to society?	178	3.90	.83
-how your family and/or friends feel about your working in agricultural communications?	175	3.86	.76
-job security in your present position?	177	3.63	1.06
-prospects for your future in agricultural communications?	176	3.59	.95
-prospects for your future with your present employer?	177	3.57	1.05
-recognition you get from your superiors?	178	3.56	1.04
-your income as an agricultural communications practitioner?	176	3.38	1.10
-the prestige of working in agricultural communications?	176	3.30	.93
-opportunities for advancement with your present employer?	176	3.02	.98

Note: Job Satisfaction scale where 1=extremely dissatisfied, 2=dissatisfied, 3=uncertain/don't know, 4=satisfied, and 5=extremely satisfied

Job Satisfaction and Respondents' Gender

After reviewing the complete data sets, the researcher divided respondents by gender and analyzed the resulting data for each job satisfaction scale. For the JIG scale the average grand mean for male respondents was 47.12, and the average grand mean for female respondents was 45.05. (See Table 4-11.)

On the JDI subscales, male respondents indicated they were most satisfied with their current work (M=46.12), their coworkers (M=43.78), and the supervision they receive in their current position (M=46.12). Female respondents indicated they were also the most satisfied with their current work (M=45.11), their coworkers (M=43.51), and their supervision (M=39.66). The average grand means for the pay subscale were similar for female and male respondents (32.45 and 34.89, respectively). These means are at the low end of the satisfaction scale, as the cutoff for satisfaction is 32. Both male and female respondents indicated they were dissatisfied with their opportunities for promotion. The grand mean for female respondents was M=16.33, and the grand mean for male respondents was M=20.97. Table 4-11 presents this information.

Table 4-11. Mean scores for JIG and JDI by gender

	N	M	SD
<u>Female Respondents</u>			
JIG	104	45.05	9.20
JDI			
-Work	104	45.11	9.79
-Coworkers	103	43.51	9.20
-Supervision	103	39.66	11.17
-Pay	103	32.45	14.60
-Opportunities for Promotion	103	16.33	13.12
<u>Male Respondents</u>			
JIG	179	47.12	6.40
JDI			
-Work	179	46.12	8.64
-Coworkers	177	43.78	9.20
-Supervision	177	42.64	10.56
-Pay	177	34.89	14.29
-Opportunities for Promotion	177	20.97	16.00

Note: Based on a 0-54 scale, where 22 or less indicates dissatisfaction and 32 or more indicates satisfaction.

The researcher then calculated the mean differences between female and male respondents' JIG and JDI scores. (See Table 4-12.) Differences were calculated by subtracting mean responses for female respondents from the mean respondents for male respondents. A mean difference of 2.07 was found between male and female respondents' JIG scores. (See Table 4-12.) For the JDI subscales, the greatest mean difference between male and female scores was 4.64 for "opportunities for promotion." The next greatest difference between males and females was for the subscale "supervision" followed by the "pay" subscale. The lowest mean difference between male and female respondents was 0.27 for the "coworkers" subscale.

Table 4-12. Mean difference of JIG and JDI scores by gender

	Mean Difference
JIG	2.07
JDI	
-Work	1.01
-Coworkers	0.27
-Supervision	2.98
-Pay	2.44
-Opportunities for Promotion	4.64

For the PRSA job satisfaction scale, female respondents indicated the highest levels of satisfaction with the freedom and autonomy they have in their present job (M=4.19, n=103), their present job in agricultural communications (M=4.13, n=101), and agricultural communications as an occupation (M=4.10, n=101). Female respondents also indicated satisfaction with their knowledge of agricultural communications skills (M=4.10, n=102) and their overall knowledge of agricultural communications (M=4.02, n=102). Moderate job satisfaction levels were stated by female respondents for their income as an agricultural communications practitioner (M=3.37, n=101), the prestige of

working in agricultural communications (M=3.23, n=101), recognition they get from their superiors (M=3.46, n=103), and opportunities for advancement with their current employer (M=2.98, n=102). This information is presented in Table 4-13.

Table 4-13. Female respondents' perceptions of job satisfaction

	N	M	SD
How satisfied are you with...			
-the freedom and autonomy you have in your present job?	103	4.19	.83
-your present job in agricultural communications?	101	4.13	.76
-agricultural communications as an occupation?	101	4.10	.69
-your knowledge of agricultural communications skills?	102	4.10	.64
-your overall knowledge of agricultural communications?	102	4.02	.74
-the value of your job to society?	103	3.96	.82
-how your family and/or friends feel about your working in agricultural communications?	101	3.86	.78
-prospects for your future in agricultural communications?	101	3.57	.98
-job security in your present position?	102	3.54	1.12
-prospects for your future with your present employer?	103	3.50	1.07
-recognition you get from your superiors?	103	3.46	1.09
-your income as an agricultural communications practitioner?	101	3.37	1.07
-the prestige of working in agricultural communications?	101	3.23	.93
-opportunities for advancement with your present employer?	102	2.98	1.02

Note: Job Satisfaction scale where 1=extremely dissatisfied, 2=dissatisfied, 3=uncertain/don't know, 4=satisfied, and 5=extremely satisfied

Male respondents indicated similar satisfaction levels as female respondents with their present job in agricultural communications (M=4.14, n=72), their knowledge of agricultural communications skills (M=4.11, n=73), and their overall knowledge of agricultural communications (M=4.16, n=73). High satisfaction levels were also indicated by male respondents for the freedom and autonomy they have in their present

job (M=4.41, n=73), the recognition they get from their superiors (M=3.71, n=73), job security in their present position (M=3.74, n=73), and agricultural communications as an occupation (M=3.86, n=73). When asked their satisfaction with their income as an agricultural communications practitioner, male respondents indicated moderate job satisfaction (M=3.37, n=73). Moderate job satisfaction levels were also indicated by male respondents with prospects for their future in agricultural communications (M=3.59, n=73) and opportunities for advancement with their present employer (M=3.07, n=72). This information is presented in Table 4-14.

Table 4-14. Male respondents' perceptions of job satisfaction

	N	M	SD
How satisfied are you with...			
-the freedom and autonomy you have in your present job?	73	4.41	.78
-your overall knowledge of agricultural communications?	73	4.16	.60
-your present job in agricultural communications?	72	4.14	.70
-your knowledge of agricultural communications skills?	73	4.11	.64
-agricultural communications as an occupation?	73	3.86	.67
-how your family and/or friends feel about your working in agricultural communications?	72	3.85	.74
-the value of your job to society?	73	3.82	.86
-job security in your present position?	73	3.74	.97
-recognition you get from your superiors?	73	3.71	.95
-prospects for your future with your present employer?	72	3.67	1.02
-prospects for your future in agricultural communications?	73	3.59	.93
-the prestige of working in agricultural communications	73	3.40	.94
-your income as an agricultural communications practitioner?	73	3.37	1.15
-opportunities for advancement with your present employer?	72	3.07	.95

Note: Job Satisfaction scale where 1=extremely dissatisfied, 2=dissatisfied, 3=uncertain/don't know, 4=satisfied, and 5=extremely satisfied

Objective Three

Describe ACE agricultural communications practitioner respondents' perceptions of gender roles.

Further describe gender roles in terms of respondents' gender.

PRSA

Respondents' perceptions of gender roles were measured using the PRSA gender roles scale. This scale is comprised of 12 gender-related items, which respondents answer for both their organization and agricultural communications as an industry. Respondents are asked to state their agreement or disagreement with the statement on a 1 to 5 scale, where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=uncertain/don't know, 4=agree, and 5=strongly agree. Scale reliability analysis was conducted on the organization items and the agricultural communications industry items using Cronbach's alpha with the population data. The standardized item alpha for the gender-related items as they related to respondents' perceptions of their own organization was .69. The standardized item alpha for the gender-related items as they related to respondents' perceptions for agricultural communications as an industry was .62. Although these alpha values are slightly low, they are comparable to the alpha values from this scale in the original PRSA surveys; $r=.73$ for organization and $r=.53$ for industry as a whole (Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001). As in the original survey instrument, these items were analyzed individually for descriptives.

Of the gender-related items relating to respondents' perceptions of their own organization, the respondents indicated the highest level of agreement with the statements "there are more women than men in agricultural communications today" ($M=3.43$, $n=167$) and "there is less sexual harassment in agricultural communications environments

today than there was five years ago” (M=3.23, n=168). (See Table 4-15.) Respondents indicated uncertainty (M=3.04, n=167) for the statement “women are more likely than men to be hired for agricultural communications staff positions involving mainly communication skills.” In addition, respondents indicated “uncertain/don’t know” for the statement “women in agricultural communications positions are paid less than men in comparable jobs” (M=3.01, n=168) and the statement “it is more difficult for women than it is for men to reach the top in agricultural communications” (M=3.01, n=167).

Of the gender-related items relating to respondents’ perceptions of their own organization, respondents indicated they disagreed the most with the statement “members of my audience prefer to work with male agricultural communicators” (M=2.33, n=168) and “men are more apt than women to back down or seek compromises in agricultural communications office conflict situations” (M=2.33, n=168). Respondents also indicated disagreement with the statement “women are more likely than men to be hired for agricultural communications management positions involving problem-solving and decision-making” (M=2.40, n=167).

Table 4-15. Respondents' perceptions of gender roles within their organization

	N	M	SD
There are more women than men in agricultural communications	167	3.43	1.02
There is less sexual harassment in agricultural communications environments today than there was five years ago	168	3.23	.76
Women are more likely than men to be hired for agricultural communications staff positions involving mainly communication skills	167	3.04	1.13
It is more difficult for women than it is for men to reach the top in agricultural communications	168	3.01	1.24
Women in agricultural communications management positions are paid less than men in comparable jobs	168	3.01	1.11
Men are promoted more quickly than women in most agricultural communications employment situations	168	2.81	1.07
Generally women receive lower salaries than men for doing comparable agricultural communications work	168	2.74	1.28
If an equally capable woman and man applied for the same agricultural communications job, the woman would be hired	168	2.54	1.00
Women are more likely than men to be hired for agricultural communications management positions involving problem-solving and decision-making	167	2.40	.90
Women often are hired as a result of affirmative action policies	168	2.35	1.07
Men are more apt than women to back down or seek compromises in agricultural communications office conflict situations	168	2.33	.95
Members of my audience prefer to work with male agricultural communicators	168	2.33	.87

Note: Likert scale where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=uncertain/don't know, 4=agree, and 5=strongly agree.

Of the gender-related items relating to respondents' perceptions of agricultural communications as an industry, respondents again indicated the highest level of agreement ($M=3.38$, $n=167$) with the statement "there are more women than men in agricultural communications." (See Table 4-16.) Agreement was also indicated by respondents for the statements "women in agricultural communications management positions are paid less than men in comparable jobs" ($M=3.28$, $n=168$) and "generally women receive lower salaries than men for doing comparable agricultural communications work" ($M=3.27$, $n=168$). Respondents showed uncertainty with the

statements “women are more likely than men to be hired for agricultural communications staff positions involving mainly communication skills” (M=3.14, n=168) and “there is less sexual harassment in agricultural communications environments today than there was five years ago” (M=3.16, n=168). Of the gender-related items relating to respondents’ perceptions of agricultural communications as an industry, respondents indicated disagreement (M=2.51, n=168) with the statement “men are more apt than women to back down or seek compromises in agricultural communications office conflict situations.” They also indicated disagreement (M=2.57, n=167) with “women are more likely than men to be hired for agricultural communications management positions involving problem-solving and decision-making.”

Table 4-16. Respondents' perceptions of gender roles throughout agricultural communications

	N	M	SD
There are more women than men in agricultural communications	167	3.38	.76
Women in agricultural communications management positions are paid less than men in comparable jobs	168	3.28	.85
Generally women receive lower salaries than men for doing comparable agricultural communications work	168	3.27	.88
There is less sexual harassment in agricultural communications environments today than there was five years ago	168	3.16	.70
Women are more likely than men to be hired for agricultural communications staff positions involving mainly communication skills	167	3.14	.94
It is more difficult for women than it is for men to reach the top in agricultural communications	168	3.11	1.08
Men are promoted more quickly than women in most agricultural communications employment situations	168	3.11	.91
If an equally capable woman and man applied for the same agricultural communications job, the woman would be hired	168	2.69	.85
Women often are hired as a result of affirmative action policies	168	2.68	.98
Members of my audience prefer to work with male agricultural communicators	168	2.66	.84
Women are more likely than men to be hired for agricultural communications management positions involving problem-solving and decision-making	167	2.57	.82
Men are more apt than women to back down or seek compromises in agricultural communications office conflict situations	168	2.51	.81

Note: Likert scale where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=uncertain/don't know, 4=agree, and 5=strongly agree.

Due to the nature of the double scale, the researcher calculated the difference between the means of each answer for respondents' perceptions of the gender-related items within their own organization and their perceptions of the gender-related items for agricultural communications as an industry. Differences were calculated by subtracting mean responses for each item throughout agricultural communications from the mean responses for each item in their organization. The researcher then ranked the absolute mean differences from largest to smallest.

The greatest mean difference between respondents' answers for their organization and agricultural communications as an industry was .53 for the statement "generally women receive lower salaries than men for doing comparable agricultural communications work." (See Tale 4-17.) A mean difference of .33 was found for "members of my audience prefer to work with male agricultural communicators" and "women are often hired as a result of affirmative action policies." The lowest mean differences between respondents' answer for their organization and throughout agricultural communications as an industry were .05 for "there are more women than men in agricultural communications" and .07 for "there is less sexual harassment in agricultural communications environments today than there was five years ago."

Table 4-17. Mean difference of respondents' perceptions of gender roles in their organization and throughout agricultural communications

	Mean Difference
Generally women receive lower salaries than men for doing comparable agricultural communications work	.53
Members of my audience prefer to work with male agricultural communicators	.33
Women often are hired as a result of affirmative action policies	.33
Men are promoted more quickly than women in most agricultural communications employment situations	.30
Women in agricultural communications management positions are paid less than men in comparable jobs	.27
Men are more apt than women to back down or seek compromises in agricultural communications office conflict situations	.18
Women are more likely than men to be hired for agricultural communications management positions involving problem-solving and decision-making	.17
If an equally capable woman and man applied for the same agricultural communications job, the woman would be hired	.15
Women are more likely than men to be hired for agricultural communications staff positions involving mainly communication skills	.10
It is more difficult for women than it is for men to reach the top in agricultural communications	.10
There is less sexual harassment in agricultural communications environments today than there was five years ago	.07
There are more women than men in agricultural communications	.05

Gender Roles and Respondents' Gender

Of the gender-related items relating to respondents' perceptions of their own organization, female respondents indicated highest agreement with the statement "there are more women than men in agricultural communications" (M=3.52, n=94). (See Table 4-18.) Female respondents also agreed with the statements "it is more difficult for women than it is for men to reach the top in agricultural communications" (M=3.39, n=95) and "women in agricultural communications management positions are paid less than men doing comparable jobs" (M=3.32, n=95). Of the gender-related items relating to respondents' perceptions of their own organization, female respondents indicated they

disagreed with “men are more apt than women to back down or seek compromises in agricultural communications office conflict situations” (M=2.17, n=95) and “women often are hired as a result of affirmative action policies” (M=2.28, n=95).

Of the gender-related items relating to respondents’ perceptions of their own organization, male respondents indicated highest agreement (M=3.37, n=71) for responses within their organization for the statement “there is less sexual harassment in agricultural communications environments today than there was five years ago.” (See Table 4-18.) They also indicated agreement with the statement “there are more women than men in agricultural communications” (M=3.30, n=71). Of the gender-related items relating to respondents’ perceptions of their own organization, male respondents indicated they disagreed with the statements “generally women receive lower salaries than men for doing comparable agricultural communications work” (M=2.31, n=71) and “men are promoted more quickly than women in most agricultural communications employment situations” (M=2.31, n=71). Male respondents indicated uncertainty for the statements “women are more likely than me to be hired for agricultural communications staff positions involving mainly communications skills” (M=2.87, n=70) and “if an equally capable woman and man applied for the same agricultural communications job, the woman would be hired” (M=2.75, n=71).

Table 4-18. Female and male respondents' perceptions of gender roles in their organizations

	Female			Male		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Generally women receive lower salaries than men for doing comparable agricultural communications work	95	3.05	1.34	71	2.31	1.08
Women are more likely than men to be hired for agricultural communications staff positions involving mainly communication skills	95	3.15	1.23	70	2.87	.98
Women are more likely than men to be hired for agricultural communications management positions involving problem-solving and decision-making	95	2.33	.94	71	2.48	.84
Men are promoted more quickly than women in most agricultural communications employment situations	95	3.19	1.07	71	2.31	.85
Men are more apt than women to back down or seek compromises in agricultural communications office conflict situations	95	2.17	.92	71	2.54	.95
If an equally capable woman and man applied for the same agricultural communications job, the woman would be hired	95	2.40	.94	71	2.75	1.05
Women often are hired as a result of affirmative action policies	95	2.28	1.09	71	2.45	1.05
There is less sexual harassment in agricultural communications environments today than there was five years ago	95	3.12	.78	71	3.37	.72
It is more difficult for women than it is for men to reach the top in agricultural communications	95	3.39	1.23	71	2.51	1.08
Women in agricultural communications management positions are paid less than men in comparable jobs	95	3.32	1.09	71	2.58	1.01
There are more women than men in agricultural communications	94	3.52	1.08	71	3.30	.95
Members of my audience prefer to work with male agricultural communicators	95	2.35	.88	70	2.32	.86

Note: Likert scale where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=uncertain/don't know, 4=agree, and 5=strongly agree.

Of the gender-related items relating to respondents' perceptions of agricultural communications as an industry, female respondents showed highest agreement with the statement "women in agricultural communications management positions are paid less than men in comparable jobs" (M=3.49, n=95). (See Table 4-19.) Female respondents also indicated agreement with the statements "generally women receive lower salaries than men for doing comparable agricultural communications work" (M=3.46, n=95) and "men are promoted more quickly than women in most agricultural communications employment situations" (M=3.43, n=95). Of the gender-related items relating to respondents' perceptions of agricultural communications as an industry, female respondents indicated disagreement with the statements "men are more apt than women to back down or seek compromises in agricultural communications employment situations" (M=2.40, n=95) and "women are more likely than men to be hired for agricultural communications management positions involving problem-solving and decision-making" (M=2.46, 95).

Of the gender-related items relating to respondents' perceptions of agricultural communications as an industry, male respondents indicated they agreed the most with the statements "there are more women than men in agricultural communications" (M=3.37, n=71) and "there is less sexual harassment in agricultural communications environments today than there was five years ago" (M=3.31, n=71). Male respondents indicated uncertainty with the statements that "generally women receive lower salaries than men for doing comparable agricultural communications work" (M=3.01, n=71) and "women in agricultural communications management positions are paid less than men in comparable jobs" (M=3.00, n=71). Of the gender-related items relating to respondents'

perceptions of agricultural communications as an industry, male respondents indicated disagreement with the statement “members of my audience prefer to work with male agricultural communicators” (M=2.54, n=71). Table 4-19 presents this information.

Table 4-19

Female and male respondents' perceptions of gender roles throughout agricultural communications

	Female			Male		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Generally women receive lower salaries than men for doing comparable agricultural communications work	95	3.46	.90	71	3.01	.80
Women are more likely than men to be hired for agricultural communications staff positions involving mainly communication skills	95	3.20	1.04	70	3.07	.80
Women are more likely than men to be hired for agricultural communications management positions involving problem-solving and decision-making	95	2.46	.92	71	2.69	.67
Men are promoted more quickly than women in most agricultural communications employment situations	95	3.43	.91	71	2.69	.75
Men are more apt than women to back down or seek compromises in agricultural communications office conflict situations	95	2.40	.83	71	2.66	.77
If an equally capable woman and man applied for the same agricultural communications job, the woman would be hired	95	2.62	.87	71	2.79	.84
Women often are hired as a result of affirmative action policies	95	2.64	.99	71	2.75	.98
There is less sexual harassment in agricultural communications environments today than there was five years ago	95	3.04	.71	71	3.31	.67
It is more difficult for women than it is for men to reach the top in agricultural communications	95	3.39	1.09	71	2.75	.97
Women in agricultural communications management positions are paid less than men in comparable jobs	95	3.49	.84	71	3.00	.81
There are more women than men in agricultural communications	95	3.37	.80	71	3.37	.70
Members of my audience prefer to work with male agricultural communicators	95	2.77	.88	70	2.54	.77

Note: Likert scale where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=uncertain/don't know, 4=agree, and 5=strongly agree.

Researcher Developed Categorical Response Questions

Respondents were asked to answer three researcher-developed questions relating to gender situations, first by providing a “yes” or “no” response to the question and then by providing a qualitative explanation if the respondent desired.

When asked “have you experienced any situations within your work in agricultural communications in which you felt your gender was an issue in the last five years” the majority of respondents (75.1%, n=130) answered no. (See Table 4-20.) The majority of respondents (79.1%, n=136) also answered no when asked “have you experienced any form of inequality due to gender, or sexual harassment, within your work in agricultural communications in the last five years?” Respondents were then asked “do you feel gender is a factor within agricultural communications,” and the majority (60.0%, n=102) again answered no.

Table 4-20. Responses to researcher-developed gender experience questions

	N	%	
		Yes	No
Have you experienced any situations within your work in agricultural communications in which you felt your gender was an issue in the last five years?	173	24.9	75.1
Have you experienced any form of inequality due to gender, or sexual harassment, within your work in agricultural communications in the last five years?	172	20.9	79.1
Do you feel gender is a factor within agricultural communications?	170	40.0	60.0

The majority of female respondents (68.4%, n=67) answered no when asked “have you experienced any situations within your work in agricultural communications in which you felt your gender was an issue in the last five years?” (See Table 4-21.) In

addition, 72.2% (n=70) of female respondents answered no when asked “have you experienced any form of inequality due to gender, or sexual harassment, within your work in agricultural communications in the last five years?” However, the responses of female respondents were split almost evenly between yes (45.8%, n=44) and no (54.2%, n=52) when asked “do you feel gender is a factor within agricultural communications?”

Table 4-21. Female respondents’ answers to researcher-developed gender experience questions

	N	%	
		Yes	No
Have you experienced any situations within your work in agricultural communications in which you felt your gender was an issue in the last five years?	98	31.6	68.4
Have you experienced any form of inequality due to gender, or sexual harassment, within your work in agricultural communications in the last five years?	97	27.8	72.2
Do you feel gender is a factor within agricultural communications?	96	45.8	54.2

When male respondents were asked “have you experienced any situations within your work in agricultural communications in which you felt your gender was an issue in the last five years,” the majority said no (83.6%, n=61). (See Table 4-22.) The majority of male respondents (87.7%, n=64) also answered no when asked “have you experienced and form of inequality due to gender, or sexual harassment, within your work in agricultural communications in the last five years?” The majority of male respondents (66.7%, n=48) also answered no when asked “do you feel gender is a factor within agricultural communications?”

Table 4-22. Male respondents' answers to researcher-developed gender experience questions

	N	%	
		Yes	No
Have you experienced any situations within your work in agricultural communications in which you felt your gender was an issue in the last five years?	73	16.4	83.6
Have you experienced any form of inequality due to gender, or sexual harassment, within your work in agricultural communications in the last five years?	73	12.3	87.7
Do you feel gender is a factor within agricultural communications?	73	33.3	66.7

Researcher Developed Open-Ended Response Questions

The researcher analyzed respondents' qualitative responses to the three gender-related situation questions using a modified inductive analysis technique based on Hatch's (2002) inductive analysis method. "Inductive thinking proceeds from the specific to the general . . . Inductive data analysis is a search for patterns of meaning in data so that general statements about phenomena under investigation can be made" (Hatch, 2002, p. 161). The responses were transcribed by the researcher from the returned surveys. The researcher was careful to ensure the integrity of these responses by including spelling and punctuation errors, italic and underlined emphases, and shorthand notations, as is the current qualitative paradigm. Although the researcher made every effort to include all qualitative responses, three were dropped from the study due to difficulty deciphering the respondent's handwriting. In addition, one response was edited to protect the identifying information of a respondent who described a federal discrimination court case.

The researcher read through the data multiple times to identify frames or analyzable units. A second analysis was then conducted by the researcher to identify domains, which Hatch (2002) describes as “a set of categories of meaning...that reflects relationships represented in the data” (p. 164). The researcher then re-read the responses to identify the most significant domains and to identify broader themes across the domains. Because similar domains were found within responses to all three questions, the researcher chose to combine these and treat them as larger themes as suggested by Hatch (2002) rather than analyzing the responses on an individual question basis. After these had been identified, the researcher selected those responses which best highlighted the domains and themes.

Theme 1, “Agriculture=Male”

The first theme found by the researcher was that of “agriculture=male.” Respondents referred to agriculture, or subsets of agriculture such as production agriculture, as being male-dominated or male environments and described problematic behaviors related to this. One female respondent wrote, “Agriculture is still a very male environment and sometimes I find it is hard to get older men to respect and trust me. This is not a problem with my coworkers in communications, but with faculty, researchers, farmers, etc.” Another female respondent wrote, “Sometimes specialists in the traditional ag disciplines (crops, animal science) act differently (macho) than in other disciplines such as horticulture, wildlife.” A male respondent wrote, “In dealing with some very traditional farmers and ranchers, being male was an advantage.” Because agricultural communications is unique in its focus on agriculture, it is necessary to look at perceptions of how those involved in agriculture behave. One female respondent wrote, “I sense that farmers, in general, are male and prefer to work w/ men. You generally

have to prove yourself if you're a female," while another female respondent stated, "It's almost been inevitable because agriculture is still only gradually evolving from being a 'man's field'--in part due to strength requirements, inheritance traditions, living in the Midwest/Bible Belt..." Another female respondent wrote, "I think gender is a factor in any job situation but perhaps more so in jobs relating to agriculture."

Theme 2, "Gender or Sex Roles"

The second theme found by the researcher was that of "gender or sex roles," which closely related to the first theme. Responses in this theme focused on women's roles both in the workplace, agricultural communication, and in the field of agriculture both past and present. As discussed in the previous theme, agriculture tends to be a male-dominated field and also tends to more traditional sex/gender roles. A female respondent wrote,

Ag producers are strongly male oriented. A small example: he's a farmer, she's a farmer's wife (though she puts in many hour on tractor, etc) This has changed a bit for the better in the past 30 years but still has quite a way to go. Witness: I work mainly with two Extension program areas: forestry and family and community development. All the faculty in the former are male, all in the later, female. To me, that signals that gender-neutrality still will be a long time coming.

Another female respondent stated, "I find that older men working in agriculture talk more directly to the males on my staff than to me and I believe it's because I'm a young female." A male respondent wrote, "Some commentators and audience groups see traditional sex roles--who works most in the fields and does most of the bookkeeping--as 'givens', and are more receptive to information and ideas that confirm these roles." Many respondents indicated that they felt these roles spilled over into agricultural communications, perhaps because of the ties to traditional agriculture. One female respondent wrote, "My experience is that 'ag' equates to 'male.' Women are viewed as

accessories that provide needed support and services,” while another female respondent stated, “A client I had was extremely difficult to deal with. He loved my work but only when he thought my male co-worker did the job.”

This theme also included respondents’ descriptions of agricultural communications or communications positions being “women’s jobs.” One female respondent wrote, “The management/board of directors of this organization see communications work as a ‘woman’s role,’ based on attention to details, creativity, and transmitting decisions.” Another female respondent stated, “I think agricultural communications jobs are seen strongly as women’s jobs—kind of like the ‘beauty queen’ of an organization.” A female respondent described a situation, “when traveling with male administrator, along with female administrative assistant, I felt the administrator was expressing shock when I did my job of talking with news reporters. The administrator thought I was to do registration, with the administrative assistants, not give reporters information.” One female respondent wrote that her, “Director tends to dismiss women’s concerns as ‘personal issues’ instead of taking them seriously as ‘professional concerns’,” while another female respondent stated, “Our administrators are all men—very ‘old school.’ They tend to view my disagreement with them as being because I’m a woman. They are clearly more comfortable with my male colleagues.” One female respondent indicated that she felt she had been denied a promotion based on ideas of traditional gender roles within her organization.

I applied for a management position that included responsibility for a publications distribution center (a traditionally male environment), often referred to as ‘the warehouse.’ I was qualified for the position, and was one of two final candidates. The job went to the other candidate, a man. I feel like I was not offered the job because upper management could not ‘picture’ a woman in charge of that operation, which had been run by a very traditional, old-school man for many

years. One year later, I applied for a management position in the same organization, but within an office setting, and I got the job. In some ways I think my skills and experience were more suited to the first position, but the organization was more comfortable with me (as a female) in the office-oriented environment. It has worked out well—I have been successful in this role, and I enjoy it, but I still feel like I missed the first promotion due to stereotypical ideas about women’s roles in the workplace.

Theme 3, “Good Old Boys”

The third theme found in the responses by the researcher related to both the “agriculture=male” and “gender and sex roles” themes. This theme was the “good old boys” theme, wherein respondents stated they felt gender shut people out of the power structure of agricultural communications. One of the domains within this theme was specifically that of respondents referring to agricultural communications in this way. One female respondent wrote, “Good ol ‘boy network,” while another stated, “Ag comm. historically is a “good old boy” profession.” Another female respondent wrote, “Farmers agriculturalists are mainly old white guys who like to deal with old white guys.” Other respondents described specific situations in which they felt this way. One female respondent wrote,

This sounds whiney, but here goes: I’ve served under two department heads in < 6 yrs, both male, both longtime employees in the dept. Nearly every day, they go to coffee for 35-45 min with their buddies in the department—all male. That’s where the bonds are—the old boy’s network at work—and while they are all very polite to the women in the department it seems to me that we constitute a separate, and lesser, situation.

Another female respondent stated, “Supervisor did not support my role in a regional publishing consortium. Decisions were based instead on ‘good old boy’ agreements.” Two female respondents wrote how this made them feel not only slighted, but invisible in situations. One wrote, “No sexual harassment, but definite gender bias, good ole boys talk to each other as if you are not even in the room,” while the second

wrote, “Even though I stood in line and waited my turn to meet the top candidate to lead an agricultural program, the candidate and other men in line stepped in front of me repeatedly to shake hands. It was as if I was invisible.”

The second domain the researcher found for this “good old boys” theme was that respondents stated the leaders, senior level staff, and management in agricultural communications tend to be male. A female respondent stated, “You are perceived as providing a service only—‘I tell you what to do and how to do as opposed to collaborating and identifying creative solutions. Ag Comm units have been dominated by white males and a culture of exclusion has permeated their organization.” Another female respondent stated that she experienced, “Bullying or intimidation by senior faculty that I’m not sure would have occurred for a man in the same position.” Similar to this statement, a female respondent wrote, “I had a department head who thought intelligent women needed to be brought down a peg or two—not only found fault with, but ‘controlled’.” One female respondent stated, “The top decisions are still mostly made by males and spoon fed to females for dissemination, public communications,” while another female respondent wrote, “Women do not seem to have an equal voice in the administrative and policy-making decisions of this organization.”

Other responses for this domain included a female respondent who stated, “There are still far more males at the top of the profession, which is ironic given the large # of women in the profession.” Another female respondent wrote, “Ag comm. is part of the college, extension, and the university. In each arena, gender bias still operates. In each arena, there are still more men in positions of authority than there are women in those positions.” And, another female respondent stated “I think we still work in a male

dominated arena and until more women reach the top and begin helping other women, which is uncommon, an equality will not be reached in ag comm.” Two female respondents addressed the issue of including women in leadership positions within agricultural communication. The first wrote, “When women were being submitted for consideration to serve on a large board (which traditionally has been white male), I suggested that we be sensitive to creating a balance by including women and minorities. Several men laughed out loud and one rolled his eyes.” The second female respondent stated, “I work in a university and organization where all the top administrators are male. It affects the culture. While we often hear calls for appointing minorities, no one suggests we need more women in leadership.”

Theme 4, “Discrimination”

The fourth theme found by the researcher was the “discrimination” theme, wherein respondents wrote about their perceptions of gender discrimination or sexual harassment. The first domain found for this theme were the responses describing perceived gender discrimination for salary, leave time, and raises. A female respondent wrote, “When I noted years back that I was the lowest paid faculty in Extension, the explanation was that I wasn’t the breadwinner (although at the time I was). All women Extension faculty got a raise a few years back as part of a court settlement, but I still make less than my male peers—salary and rank.” Another female respondent stated, “Despite some efforts to equalize pay, there are men in this office making significantly more than women in similar work and experience situations. I’ve seen travel discrepancies— where men would have single rooms but women would be told to double.” While one female respondent simply wrote, “Salary inequalities,” another female respondent stated, “I think pay equity is the area where gender comes into play in agricultural communications. I

think women are generally paid less for the same work.” Another female respondent wrote, “Lower pay for females, and fewer management positions and promotion opportunities.”

Other female respondents described differences within specific situations they had witnessed. One female respondent wrote, “As pay is a matter of public record, it’s fairly obvious that women are paid less for what (in my view) is work of comparable worth.” Another female respondent stated, “I make less money than a male associate with a similar job description—we’ve been at this institution for roughly the same amount of time, have similar duties, and I have a master’s degree while he just has a bachelor’s.” A female respondent wrote, “One of my male coworkers got a raise when his wife had their first child. I’m a single woman who would have adopted a child if I could afford it.” Another female respondent stated, “The current female director is doing a much better job than the former male director. However, she is getting paid much less than he was getting to do the very same job.” While one female respondent wrote, “A younger male with less experience was paid more than two older females, each with more experience,” another female respondent stated, “Annual pay increase has generally favored the men in this department.” In addition, a female respondent stated, “Ignoring accomplishments, NO raises, No recognition.” Another female respondent wrote, “Some men were unfairly “given” leave time that had not been earned.”

The second domain within the “discrimination” theme was the respondents’ descriptions of specific situations in which they witnessed sexist or discriminatory behavior within their work environment. One female respondent described a situation in which, “Coworker made sexist statements, ogled females, including students. I reported

it and a supervisor discussed with him why it made for an uncomfortable work environment. It seems to have improved the situation.” A second female respondent wrote, “On a university campus, there are always male professors with larger-than necessary egos who will take advantage of perceived power differentials.” A female respondent stated, “...am dealing with a sexual harassment case as an administrator,” while two male respondents wrote, “Deal with sexual harassment issue sometimes,” and “Discrimination complaints, harassment accusations.” Another female respondent stated that, “Our department has become much more ‘politically correct’ and does not discriminate outwardly as it once did. Discrimination is therefore much more subtle now.” One female respondent wrote, “Male supervisor’s attitude relating to unexpected pregnancy of a female manager—lessened responsibilities and access to upper management.” Another female respondent stated, “As a female supervisor, I have experienced difficult situations that probably would not have occurred with a male supervisor.” In addition, one female respondent chose to describe in full the discrimination case she had experienced within her workplace.

A woman suffered a work injury and subsequent disability. A male unit leader and male department head failed to manage the injury adequately, and, once the disability was diagnosed, failed to provide disability accommodations ordered by the state. A federal complaint was filed, investigated and served. It took more than three years to resolve these issues. The injured female has returned to work and continues to contribute at a high level. She has, however, continued to experience occasional retaliation and discrimination, and has required assistance from a University ombudsperson. The woman sought counseling during the ordeal. The counselor, whose office is near the University, said she has seen “a pattern” among her clients: ‘In the College of Agriculture, if a woman complains about a man, it’s the woman who usually is made to leave’.

Theme 5, “Societal Problem”

The fifth theme found by the researcher involved respondents attributing gender-related differences or problems to “society.” One female respondent wrote that, “Gender is a factor in every segment of human endeavor involving 2+ people.” A male respondent stated, “It is a factor everywhere in society, not just ag comm.” Another male respondent wrote, “It’s a constant factor regardless of the field or profession. Whether someone is male or female, others make assumptions about that person. If one is sensitized to gender issues, these things are not difficult to discern.” One male respondent stated, “There will always be biases and differences,” while another male respondent wrote, “To the extent that it is a factor in the surrounding society.” Another male respondent stated, “The same issues seen dividing men and women in society, in general, apply to this job sector as well.”

Theme 6, “Rationalizations”

The final theme, “rationalizations,” found by the researcher included male responses describing women and advancement. A male respondent wrote, “Women hiring women because ‘men aren’t good at multitasking.’ However, the woman hired was the best candidate, anyway.” One male respondent stated, “Underqualified female supervisor, difficult to work for,” while a second male respondent stated, “Female administrator who is uneasy, and somewhat distrustful, of males.” Another male respondent described a situation in which a, “Colleague used sexuality to receive promotion into management position.” One male respondent stated, “In our unit—yes. Affirmative action—.” In addition, a male respondent wrote, “As a white, male, the dept. is quick to ‘please’ women than to deny them of advancement, afraid of someone yelling ‘sexual harassment.’ Creates an unfair advancement structure.”

Counterevidence

According to Hatch's (2002) inductive analysis method, it was also necessary for the researcher to find and report responses which are "counterevidence" to the salient domains. The domain found by the researcher in identifying and analyzing the counterevidence was simply "no." These respondents stated they did not perceive gender to be a factor within agricultural communications. One female respondent stated, "I have experienced it, nor have I observed it. The field seems to operate on a professional level." Another female respondent wrote, "No, I don't think it is. Where I work men and women are treated pretty equal and I've never seen otherwise." One male respondent stated, "Probably not so much today as in past," while another male respondent answered similarly, "No any longer. The most successful communicators I personally know are female." A female respondent wrote, "It has been my experience that we always hire the most qualified individual—regardless of gender." Another female respondent stated, "No, I don't think it is. where I work men and women are treated pretty equal and I've never seen otherwise." A male respondent stated, "As I look around at my peers, I see a pretty good gender balance, including leadership positions." Other responses for this domain included three male respondents who wrote, "Never witnessed gender being a factor," "Haven't noticed it to be...," and "I do not see this as an issue in ag communications, at all—." Another male respondent stated, "No, because everyone (male or female) has an opportunity to complete each task to their abilities, not gender."

CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSION/DISCUSSION

Summary

This study was a descriptive census survey of current, active U.S. ACE members' perceptions of job satisfaction, as well as their perceptions of gender roles within their organizations, and throughout the agricultural communications industry. A mailed questionnaire was utilized to collect data from respondents about their overall job satisfaction, their faceted job satisfaction ("work," "supervision," "coworkers," "pay," and "opportunities for promotion"), and their perceptions of gender-related situations. Data analysis and results were presented in Chapter 4. Of the 510-member accessible population of current, active U.S. ACE members, 35.1% responded. This chapter will describe the key findings and implications of this study, organized by research objective, followed by discussion, limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research.

Key Findings and Implications

Objective One of this study was to describe the demographics of the population of current, active, U.S.-based agricultural communications practitioner respondents in ACE in terms of age, income level, education, marital status, and position. Based upon analysis of this objective, conducted by calculating frequency distributions of respondents' demographics, results indicated that a majority of respondents (85.8%, n=151) work for an agricultural institution of higher education. The gender breakdown of respondents was 58.8% female (n=104) and 41.2% male (n=73), and almost all of the

respondents were Caucasian (94.9%, n=168). Because this was a census study of the ACE membership, this finding suggests that employment trends within ACE are similar to other communications fields in which numbers of women are increasing (Scherler, 2001).

Another key finding was that the majority of respondents listed their age as between 40 and 49 years old (29.0%, n=51) or between 50-59 years old (29.5%, n=52). Salary data gathered in this study showed that 29.1% of respondents said their salary fell between \$20,000-40,000, while 41.7 % of respondents said their salary fell between \$41,000-60,000. Although no specific question on respondents' job description was included, respondents were asked to choose from a list of ACE Special Interest Groups (SIGs) which closest described their current job; 30.6% (n=53) selected "writing/media relations/marketing," and 26.0% (n=45) selected "publishing/graphic design/photography." A review of the salary data of media workers across communications fields presented in Chapter One showed that public relations practitioners had an average salary of \$46,000-65,000 (US Census Bureau, 2000). Technical writers had an average salary of \$47,000-55,000 and news reporters had an average salary of \$44,000-55,000 (US Census Bureau, 2000). Editors had an average salary of \$42,000-53,000 and photographers had an average salary of \$29,000-43,000 (US Census Bureau, 2000).

Objective Two was to describe the perceived job satisfaction level of agricultural communications practitioner respondents in ACE in terms of overall job satisfaction (JIG) and faceted job satisfaction (JDI). Respondents' job satisfaction was also described in terms of individual items included in the Public Relations Society of America (PRSA)

job satisfactions scale. Finally, scaled and individual items from the three scales were described in terms of respondents' gender. A key finding with respect to perceptions of job satisfaction was that respondents indicated that they were satisfied with their agricultural communications jobs overall, based on the Job in General (JIG) scale. This is similar to evidence presented in Chapter One suggesting that both men and women tend to be satisfied with their jobs overall in communications fields (Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001; Selnow & Wilson, 1985; Serini et. al, 1997; Stone, 2004a,b,c,d).

Interestingly, although respondents were satisfied with the job satisfaction facets "work," "supervision," and "coworkers," as measured by the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), they were not satisfied with the facets "pay" and "opportunities for promotion." An implication of this finding may be that, similar to other studies of job satisfaction using the JIG and JDI, individuals may perceive a general level of satisfaction based on perceived satisfaction with some facets but not others (Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001; Scherler, 2001; Selnow & Wilson, 1985; Serini et. al, 1997; Stone, 2004a,b,c,d) It may also be the case that although pay and promotion opportunities in an academic environment may not be proportionate with industry, individuals who choose to work in an academic setting may value other facets, such as supervision, work, or coworkers more.

As with the JIG scale, respondents' responses to items in the PRSA job satisfaction scale indicated general satisfaction with their present job in agricultural communications. Respondents indicated moderate satisfaction with their income as an agricultural communications practitioner and with opportunities for advancement with their present

employer. Similar to the JDI facets of pay and promotion, items corresponding to these two indexes were among the lowest in terms of respondents' perceptions of satisfaction.

To further analyze this objective, respondents were grouped by gender in order to re-analyze their perceptions of job satisfaction based on the JIG, JDI, and PRSA job satisfaction scales. Results indicated that both female and male respondent groups were generally satisfied with their jobs, based on the JIG and PRSA scales. Both female and male respondents indicated dissatisfaction with the JDI facets of "pay" and "opportunities for promotion," and moderate satisfaction on the corresponding individual PRSA items. Many job satisfaction studies within communication fields suggested that women tend to be less satisfied than men with these facets as was the case in this study (Barret, 1984; Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001; Selnow & Wilson, 1985; Serini et. al, 1997). On the JDI scale, female respondents' satisfaction scores were $M=16.33$ for promotion and $M=32.45$ for pay, while male respondents' satisfaction scores were $M=20.97$ for promotion and $M=34.89$ for pay. Although not statistically significant, the low scores for the female group do correspond to the findings of the communication job satisfaction research reviewed for this study.

Objective Three was to describe ACE agricultural communications practitioner respondents' perceptions of gender roles. Perceptions of gender roles were then further described in terms of respondents' gender. Items used to measure gender roles were designed to be answered by respondents first in terms of their own work organization and then in terms of the agricultural communications industry as a whole. Based on the above, respondents in this study indicated they did believe there were more women than

men in agricultural communications, both in their work organizations and throughout agricultural communications as an industry.

In general, however, respondents did not indicate strong agreement or disagreement with most of the gender role items for either scale (in their own work organization and for the agricultural communications industry as a whole). For the PRSA items based on perceptions of gender roles for the agricultural communications industry as a whole, responses with the highest level of agreement were for items stating that men receive higher salaries than women for comparable agricultural communications work, and for agricultural communications management positions. In addition, respondents disagreed the most with the item stating that in the agricultural communications industry, women are more likely than men to be hired in management positions that involve problem-solving and decision-making. An implication of these findings is that respondents seemed to agree, to some extent, at least in some situations, women may earn less and be less likely to be hired for some management positions in agricultural communications.

For the PRSA items based on perceptions of gender roles for the agricultural communications industry as a whole, female respondents indicated their highest level of agreement with the statement “women in agricultural communications management positions are paid less than men in comparable jobs.” Male respondents indicated their highest agreement for the items based on perceptions of gender roles for the agricultural communications industry as a whole with the statement “there are more women than men in agricultural communications.” The female respondents group disagreed the most with the statement “men are more likely than women to back down from an office confrontation situation in agricultural communications.” Male respondents, however,

disagreed the most with the statement “members of my audience prefer male agricultural communicators.”

For the PRSA items based on perceptions of gender roles within their own work organizations, female respondents agreed the most that there are more women than men in agricultural communications, while male respondents agreed the most with the statement there is less sexual harassment in agricultural communications today. As with their responses to the gender role items for the agricultural communications industry as whole, female respondents indicated the most disagreement with men being more likely than women to back down from an office confrontation situation in their own work organization. Male respondents, however, disagreed the most with the item indicating that women received lower salaries than men for comparable work.

In addition to the quantitative portions of this study, the researcher included a set of nominal “yes/no” questions, followed by an opportunity for open-ended qualitative responses. A key finding for this section of the study was that the majority of respondents (75.1%) stated they had not experienced any situations in agricultural communications in the last five years in which they felt their gender was a factor. In addition, the majority of respondents (79.1%) stated they have not experienced any form of inequality in their field due to gender in the last five years. Finally, 60% of respondents stated they did not feel gender was a factor within agricultural communications.

Qualitative analysis of the open-ended responses yielded several common themes. The first was “agriculture=male,” in which respondents described agriculture workplaces as being male-dominated environments, and described problematic behaviors related to

this. The second theme was “sex or gender roles” and included responses on women’s roles both in the workplace, agricultural communication, and in the field of agriculture. The third theme in this section was the “good old boys” theme, wherein respondents stated they felt gender shut people out of the power structure of agricultural communications. Finally, the fourth theme was “discrimination,” in which respondents described both perceptions and experiences of gender discrimination or sexual harassment. Key counterevidence themes from this section included descriptions of women’s advancement, attributing any gender-related problems to society as a whole, and finally that gender is not a factor at all in agricultural communications.

As described in Chapter Two, one of the trends found in gender/work research is the denial of gender problems or inequality (Toth & Cline, 1989; Grunig, Toth, & Hon, 2001; Rhode, 1997). According to Rhode (1997), both women and men fail to recognize and even reject the idea of gender inequality. This is important to understand because the quantitative results in this section show that the majority of the respondents do not feel gender is an issue within agricultural communications, but once the qualitative responses were analyzed, a somewhat different picture emerged. Although not a majority, many female respondents provided examples of the “good old boys” network, how they felt agriculture is male-dominated, how women cannot reach higher positions in agricultural communications, that women are paid less than men for similar work, and that men receive promotions/raises where women do not. In addition, the responses under the counterevidence domain suggested any gender problem belongs to “society” rather than agricultural communication. A few male respondents even stated that this study was not something that should be researched because there were other things that were needed

instead (although they did not list ideas). This difference in quantitative and qualitative evidence can be possibly attributed in part to some respondents' cognitive dissonance, especially the idea of forced compliance through which individuals will change their behaviors or opinions in order to fit the social norm (Festinger, 1957). Similar to spiral of silence theory, the threat of punishment for not complying with the social group's ideas or the promise of a reward for complying with them can motivate a change in public behavior (Festinger, 1957).

Limitations

Although this study presents several key findings with respect to perceptions of gender and gender roles within agricultural communications, there are some limitations which must be addressed. One limitation of this study was the adaptation of the PRSA job satisfaction and gender roles scales. These instruments were originally developed for the public relations field, and were somewhat generic in nature. As a result, given the uniqueness of agricultural communications, some items might have been less specifically applicable to agricultural communications practitioners. To address this, the researcher did clarify and revise any areas of confusion that were noted during the pilot study with the instrument (McGovney, Irani, & Telg, 2005).

The overall response rate for this study of was 35.1%, which, while considered acceptable for a first-time gender study within agricultural communications, does not represent a majority of active, U.S. ACE members. Every attempt was made to increase the response rate, but limitations were found. Surveying media practitioners, including writers, editors, graphic designers, who tend to have hectic schedules and deadlines is notoriously difficult. Second, due to the 2004 hurricane season, the time frame during

which the research was conducted spread unavoidably over the holiday season, specifically Thanksgiving, perhaps affecting the response rate as well.

A final limitation to this study was its nature as a census survey of active, U.S. ACE members in 2004. The results found in this study, therefore, cannot be generalized to all of ACE, including retired or international members, or even to agricultural communications as a whole. They do, however, allow for insight into the influence of gender in the agricultural communications domain, and to what could be occurring for agricultural communicators with similar demographics and employment situations.

Discussion

Based on the data collected in this study, members of ACE are predominantly white females working for land-grant universities. In addition, ACE members realize that there is a shifting demographic within agricultural communications, moving to a greater number of women being employed in agricultural communications positions.

This study indicates that ACE member respondents, on the whole, are satisfied with their current jobs, but are dissatisfied with their pay and opportunities for promotion. This is not surprising, given that the majority work for higher education institutions. It can be assumed that most people do not work in higher education for the money, but rather for the fulfillment they receive from their work. In addition, comparable agricultural communications jobs in private industry tend to pay more. Added to that, communications workers in general tend to be satisfied with their jobs as a whole. Although female ACE members indicated greater dissatisfaction with the facets of pay and promotion, male respondents also indicated dissatisfaction with these items which was somewhat surprising. It could be the case that both women and men working in agricultural communications perceive their promotion opportunities and pay as lower

than the norm, based on their understanding of the pay and promotional differential within the industry, but still find their positions satisfying in other ways that compensate for these dissatisfaction areas. That this may be true for both male and female agricultural communicators may be a sign of progress in the field.

Despite conflicting data, there does seem to still be a glass ceiling of sorts, at least to some extent for some women, in agricultural communications employment as experienced by ACE member respondents that affects positions, salary, raises, and promotion opportunities. Most of the female respondents who provided qualitative responses discussed aspects of the glass ceiling they have experienced. However, it is important to note that fewer respondents gave qualitative responses than answered the similar quantitative researcher-developed items. Education is one of the original fields in which a greater number of female workers entering the profession resulted in lowered pay, opportunities for promotion, and loss of prestige for the job. Because the majority of ACE members studied work in a higher education environment, it is possible that they are affected by this on two fronts—that of communications and education.

The discussion by female ACE member respondents with respect to the qualitative themes of “agriculture=male” and a “good old boys” network is an important one to acknowledge for agriculture as a whole. Since many subsets of agriculture are now also becoming female-dominated, as seen in agricultural universities across the U.S., (Telg, personal communication, April 2005), many of the concerns listed throughout this study by both the literature in the field and the ACE member respondents need to be considered. How will this growing demographic of women in the traditional male world

of agriculture work together? Will there be changes, so that those women who do feel excluded in this world will come to feel more accepted in the workplace?

What is interesting is the level of dissonance seen in the differences between the responses of the quantitative and qualitative portions of the study. This is important to discuss, because this could suggest that gender inequality or gender issues are not as overt as they once were. Instead, they may be below the surface, where they could be perceived as normal, which is problematic for any social or work environment. No longer is gendered behavior and interactions in the professional world a black-and-white discussion. Instead, the varying shades of gray serve to confuse the discourse. Added to this, a few of the male ACE members demonstrated in their qualitative responses that they are resentful of women being promoted, citing affirmative action and political correctness. Based on these findings, the idea that gender is a factor which needs to be addressed is unquestionable.

Recommendations

Recommendations For Practitioners And Managers

The first recommendation from this study's findings is that agricultural communications practitioners need to understand that gender can still be a factor within the work environment. Based on the results of this study, agricultural communications practitioners should look to their own behavior first to ensure they are working in a professional manner. Also, practitioners should never hesitate to call attention to any situation within the agricultural communications work environment in which they feel something is inappropriate. Although most respondents did not feel gender was an issue, qualitative responses indicated some questionable behavior and bias does still exist, at

least for some practitioners. In a modern profession like agricultural communications, a policy of zero tolerance for this type of behavior is always the wisest course of action.

Managers and leaders within agricultural communications should be open to first understanding what inappropriate gender-related behavior consists of and second to supporting employees who may feel they have experienced an unfair gender-related work situation. In addition, as working communicators, ACE members and other agricultural communicators should understand that they can inadvertently replicate unequal gender roles within their communications work and therefore should make a special effort to ensure they do not do so.

Another recommendation is that gender within the work environment should be at least addressed in the curriculum of agricultural communications departments across the U.S. Preferably, as part of the structured curriculum, there should be required coursework that would allow agricultural communications instructors and students to enter into a discussion to highlight the aspects of a growing female employment demographic and gendered work roles. This discussion should also include addressing gender-related work situations within an employment situation so that students, if they come to experience them, do not feel bound by subversive gender perceptions and actions. Although many agricultural communications departments have a larger number of female students than male students, it is important to address these issues with both for a more full understanding (Scherler, 2001; Sprecker & Rudd, 1998). This discussion should take place within pre or post internship courses and/or capstone courses if a department has these courses available to students. Because not all departments have these types of courses available, a workshop should be developed by the student

professional group Agricultural Communicators of Tomorrow with which most departments are associated. This workshop should be available for member and nonmember institutions alike, so faculty can address still discuss this important topic with agricultural communications students.

A similar workshop should also be developed on the professional level by ACE and then provided to its members at the annual meeting as an individual session. This professional workshop should also be available to ACE members year-round so they can conduct it on their own. Because some agricultural communications departments are combined (ex Agricultural Education and Communications) the faculty and staff participating in this workshop could then share the information with other faculty within their department.

Recommendations For Future Research

One recommendation for future study that arises out of this study is to conduct more qualitative research with the census population, both in focus groups and in phone interviews, to allow ACE members to more fully express their ideas and perceptions of gender. Qualitative research may limit potential response bias seen in survey research, where respondents may try to answer in ways they perceive to be more socially acceptable. In addition, qualitative research allows for the introduction of related or new topics that respondents may wish to bring into the discussion.

Another recommendation for future research is to expand the scope of this study to include a larger population of agricultural communicators. This could start with members of other agricultural communications professional organizations such as the Ag Relations Council, American Agricultural Editors Association, National Association of Farm Broadcasters, Livestock Publications Council, and National Agri-Marketing

Association. Because not all agricultural communicators choose to join professional organizations, it is also recommended that future researchers use the graduation lists of agricultural communications academic departments to expand the study population.

As agricultural communications becomes more and more feminized, it is important to look at the experiences from this employment trend in other communications fields. If we want a different outcome for agricultural communications, the job satisfaction, or dissatisfaction, findings of this study must be recognized and then addressed. That both male and female agricultural communicators indicated dissatisfaction with their pay and promotion opportunities is significant. Opportunities must be available to address these issues at all levels (students, faculty, practitioners) if we want to continue to build agricultural communications as a field.

APPENDIX A
IRB APPROVAL STATEMENT



UNIVERSITY OF
FLORIDA

Institutional Review Board

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PO Box 112250
Gainesville, FL 32611-2250
Phone: (352) 392-0433
Fax: (352) 392-9234
E-mail: irb2@ufl.edu
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DATE: August 9, 2004

TO: Rebecca L. McGovney
PO Box 110540
Campus

FROM: Ira S. Fischler, Ph.D., Chair *ISF*
University of Florida
Institutional Review Board 02

SUBJECT: **Approval of Protocol #2004-U-602**

TITLE: *Perceptions of Job Satisfaction and Gender Bias Among Agricultural Communications Practitioners*

SPONSOR: None

I am pleased to advise you that the University of Florida Institutional Review Board has recommended approval of this protocol. Based on its review, the UFIRB determined that this research presents no more than minimal risk to participants. Given your protocol, it is essential that you obtain signed documentation of informed consent from each participant. Enclosed is the dated, IRB-approved informed consent to be used when recruiting participants for the research.

It is essential that each of your participants sign a copy of your approved informed consent that bears the IRB stamp and expiration date.

If you wish to make any changes to this protocol, including **the need to increase the number of participants authorized**, you must disclose your plans before you implement them so that the Board can assess their impact on your protocol. In addition, you must report to the Board any unexpected complications that affect your participants.

If you have not completed this protocol by August 6, 2005, please telephone our office (392-0433), and we will discuss the renewal process with you. It is important that you keep your Department Chair informed about the status of this research protocol.

IF:dI

APPENDIX B SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Instructions—Thank you for your participation in this survey. Your identity will not be disclosed and will be protected to the extent of the law and your answers will be confidential. Please take your time in answering questions on this survey and select the answer that is most accurate for you and your own experiences.

The beginning of this survey should be answered on the scantron provided. Do not fill out any of the personal information on the scantron. Please bubble the corresponding response on the scantron as instructed with each set of questions. Answers for the last two sections should be given on this form.

I. Please indicate the one category that best describes your organization by bubbling the corresponding answer on the scantron by question number one.

- 1 For profit company
- 2 Trade or professional organization
- 3 Agricultural Institution of Higher Education
- 4 Government Agency
- 6 Other

II. Please answer the next set of questions by bubbling a number 1 through 5 on the scantron, where:

1=extremely dissatisfied 2=dissatisfied 3=uncertain/don't know 4=satisfied 5=extremely satisfied

How satisfied are you with...

2 your present job in agricultural communications?	1	2	3	4	5
3 agricultural communications as an occupation?	1	2	3	4	5
4 your income as an agricultural communication practitioner?	1	2	3	4	5
5 the prestige of working in agricultural communications?	1	2	3	4	5
6 your knowledge of agricultural communications skills?	1	2	3	4	5
7 your overall knowledge of agricultural communications?	1	2	3	4	5
8 prospects for your future with your present employer?	1	2	3	4	5
9 the value of your job to society?	1	2	3	4	5
10 the freedom and autonomy you have in your present job?	1	2	3	4	5
11 prospects for your future in agricultural communication?	1	2	3	4	5
12 opportunities for advancement with your present employer?	1	2	3	4	5
13 job security in your present position?	1	2	3	4	5
14 recognition you get from superiors?	1	2	3	4	5
15 how your family and/or friends feel about your working in agricultural communication?	1	2	3	4	5

III. Please answer the next set of questions by bubbling a 1, 2 or 3 for each word or phrase on the scantron, where:

1=yes 2=no 3=you cannot decide

Think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time? On the scantron next to each corresponding number, bubble a **1** if the word or phrase describes your job, **2** if it does not describe your job, or **3** if you cannot decide.

- 16 ___ Pleasant
- 17 ___ Bad
- 18 ___ Ideal
- 19 ___ Waste of Time
- 20 ___ Good
- 21 ___ Undesirable
- 22 ___ Worthwhile
- 23 ___ Worse than most
- 24 ___ Acceptable
- 25 ___ Superior
- 26 ___ Better than Most
- 27 ___ Disagreeable
- 28 ___ Makes me content
- 29 ___ Inadequate
- 30 ___ Excellent
- 31 ___ Rotten
- 32 ___ Enjoyable
- 33 ___ Poor

Think of the work you do at present. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your work? On the scantron next to each corresponding number, bubble a **1** if the word or phrase describes your work, **2** if it does not describe it, or **3** if you cannot decide.

- 34 ___ Fascinating
- 35 ___ Routine
- 36 ___ Satisfying
- 37 ___ Boring
- 38 ___ Good
- 39 ___ Gives sense of accomplishment
- 40 ___ Respected
- 41 ___ Uncomfortable
- 42 ___ Pleasant
- 43 ___ Useful
- 44 ___ Challenging
- 45 ___ Simple
- 46 ___ Repetitive
- 47 ___ Creative
- 48 ___ Dull
- 49 ___ Uninteresting
- 50 ___ Can see results
- 51 ___ Uses my abilities

Think of the pay you get now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your present pay? On the scantron next to each corresponding number, bubble a **1** if the word or phrase describes your present pay, **2** if it does not, or **3** if you cannot decide.

- 52 ___ Income adequate for normal expenses
- 53 ___ Fair
- 54 ___ Barely live on income
- 55 ___ Bad
- 56 ___ Income provides luxuries
- 57 ___ Less than I deserve
- 58 ___ Well paid
- 59 ___ Insecure
- 60 ___ Underpaid

Think of the opportunities for promotion that you have now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these? On the scantron beside each corresponding number, bubble a **1** if the word or phrase describes your opportunities for promotion, **2** if it does not, or **3** if you cannot decide.

- 61 ___ Good opportunities for promotion
- 62 ___ Opportunities somewhat limited
- 63 ___ Promotion on ability
- 64 ___ Dead-end job
- 65 ___ Good chance for promotion
- 66 ___ Unfair promotion policy
- 67 ___ Infrequent promotions
- 68 ___ Regular promotions
- 69 ___ Fairly good chance for promotion

Think of the kind of supervision that you get on your job. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe this? On the scantron beside each corresponding number, bubble a **1** if the word or phrase describes the supervision you get on the job, **2** if it does not describe it, or **3** if you cannot decide.

- 70 ___ Asks my advice
- 71 ___ Hard to please
- 72 ___ Impolite
- 73 ___ Praises good work
- 74 ___ Tactful
- 75 ___ Influential
- 76 ___ Up-to-date
- 77 ___ Doesn't supervise enough
- 78 ___ Has favorites
- 79 ___ Tells me where I stand
- 80 ___ Annoying
- 81 ___ Stubborn
- 82 ___ Knows job well
- 83 ___ Bad
- 84 ___ Intelligent
- 85 ___ Poor planner
- 86 ___ Around when needed
- 87 ___ Lazy

Think of the majority of people with whom you work or meet in connection with your work. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these people? On the scantron beside each corresponding number, bubble a **1** if the word or phrase describes these people, **2** if it does not describe it, or **3** if you cannot describe.

- 88 ___ Stimulating
- 89 ___ Boring
- 90 ___ Slow
- 91 ___ Helpful
- 92 ___ Stupid
- 93 ___ Responsible
- 94 ___ Fast
- 95 ___ Intelligent
- 96 ___ Easy to make enemies
- 97 ___ Talk too much
- 98 ___ Smart
- 99 ___ Lazy
- 100 ___ Unpleasant
- 101 ___ Gossipy
- 102 ___ Active
- 103 ___ Narrow interests
- 104 ___ Loyal
- 105 ___ Stubborn

IV. We would like you to answer a series of questions to help us understand the demographics of ACE members. Please bubble the most appropriate answer for each question.

106 Are you currently a manager in your organization or institution (ie supervising one or more employees)?

- 1 yes 2 no (if no, skip to question 109)

107 If you answered yes, how many years have you been in this position?

- 1 Less than a year
- 2 1-5 years
- 3 6-10 years
- 4 11-20 years
- 5 30-40 years

108 If so, how many people do you supervise?

- 1 1 person
- 2 2-5 people
- 3 6-10 people
- 4 11-15 people
- 5 16+ people

109 What is your gender?

- 1 male 2 female

110 What is your age?

- 1 20-29
- 2 30-39
- 3 40-49
- 4 50-59
- 5 60+

111 What is your ethnicity?

- 1 Caucasian
- 2 African American
- 3 Hispanic/Latin American
- 4 Asian
- 5 Other _____

112 Please bubble your marital/partner status:

- 1 Single 2 Married/live-in partner 3 Divorced 4 Widowed 5 Separated

113 Do you have any children (below 18 years) living at home?

- 1 Yes 2 No (if no, skip to question 115)

114 If yes, how many?

- 1 1 child
- 2 2 children
- 3 3 children
- 4 4 children
- 5 5+ children

115 What is the highest level of formal education you have achieved?

- 1 High school diploma
- 2 Bachelor's degree
- 3 Master's degree
- 4 Doctoral degree

116 How long have you worked in agricultural communication?

- 1 Less than 2 years
- 2 2-5 years
- 3 6-10 years
- 4 11-20 years
- 5 21-30 years

117 With which ACE SIG do you most closely relate your job function?

- 1 Writing/ Media Relations/ Marketing
- 2 Academic Programs/ Research
- 3 Electronic Media/ Distance Education and Instructional Design/ Information Technology
- 4 Communications Management
- 5 Publishing/Graphic Design/ Photography

118 How many agricultural communications practitioners are there in your department (excluding yourself)?

- 1 0
- 2 1
- 3 2-5
- 4 6-10
- 5 11+

119 In what range does your current salary fall?

- 1 \$20,000-40,000
- 2 \$41,000-60,000
- 3 \$61,000-80,000
- 4 \$81,000-100,000
- 5 \$101,000+

120 If you have held full-time agricultural communications employment since your graduation from college or your 21st birthday (whichever came later), has this employment ever been interrupted?

- 1 yes
- 2 no (if no, skip to question 125)

121 If yes, why was your agricultural communications career interrupted? (please bubble all that apply)

- 1 illness/injury
- 2 layoff
- 3 child bearing/child rearing
- 4 work in another field
- 5 additional education

122 What is the longest period you have been without gainful agricultural communications employment since your 21st birthday or college graduation? If you have had no interruptions in agricultural communications employment, please bubble in the number "5" on the scantron.

- 1 less than 6 months
- 2 7 months-2 years
- 3 3-5 years
- 4 6-10 years
- 5 10+ years

123 If your career was interrupted and you resumed working sometime later, did you re-enter with the same agricultural communications organization?

- 1 yes
- 2 no

124 If you had an agricultural communications career interruption and resumed working, did you return to a position at a higher level, the same level or a lower level?

- 1 higher level
- 2 same level
- 3 lower level

The remaining questions are NOT on the scantron. Please provide your responses on the survey as directed, by circling a number or word, or providing a response.

VII. With this next set of questions we are seeking responses in terms of your perceptions of the way things are, both at your current place of employment and throughout the field of agricultural communications. Please respond by circling the appropriate number. Your answers in Column A should reflect your perceptions of how things are at your current place of employment. Your answers in Column B should reflect your perceptions of how things are throughout agricultural communication. Please circle a number in both columns.

1=strongly disagree(SD) 2=disagree 3=uncertain/don't know 4=agree 5=strongly agree(SA)

	<u>COLUMN A</u> <i>In Your Organization</i>					<u>COLUMN B</u> <i>Throughout Agricultural Communication</i>				
	SD				SA	SD				SA
125 Generally women receive lower salaries than men for doing comparable agricultural communication work.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
126 Women are more likely than men to be hired for agricultural communications staff positions involving mainly communication skills (writing, editing, graphics, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
127 Women are more likely than men to be hired for agricultural communications management positions involving problem-solving and decision-making.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
128 Men are promoted more quickly than women in most agricultural communications employment situations.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
129 Men are more apt than women to back down or seek compromises in agricultural communications office conflict situations.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
130 If an equally capable woman and man applied for the same agricultural communications job, the woman would be hired.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
131 Women often are hired as a result of affirmative action policies.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
132 There is less sexual harassment in agricultural communications environments today than there was five years ago.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
133 It is more difficult for women than it is for men to reach the top in agricultural communications.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
134 Women in agricultural communications management positions are paid less than men in comparable jobs.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

135 There are more women than men in agricultural communications. 1 2 3 4 5 1 2 3 4 5

136 Members of my audience prefer to work with male agricultural communicators. 1 2 3 4 5 1 2 3 4 5

VIII. For the following questions, mark either yes or no, and then please provide a detailed response when asked.

137 Have you experienced any situations within your work in agricultural communication in which you felt your gender was a factor in the last five years?

Yes No

If yes, please describe the situation _____

138 Have you experienced any form of inequality due to gender or sexual harassment within your work in agricultural communication in the last five years?

Yes No

If yes, please describe the situation _____

139 Do you feel gender is a factor within agricultural communication?

Yes No

Please elaborate _____

APPENDIX C
INITIAL CONTACT LETTER (1ST WAVE)

Dear ACE Members:

You will soon be receiving a mail survey from one of our members, Rebecca McGovney. Rebecca is a master's student at the University of Florida in agricultural communications and this survey is for her thesis, which is a study of the Perceptions of Job Satisfaction and Gender Bias Among Agricultural Communications Practitioners.

The survey, which will only take 20 minutes of your time, contains questions on your role as an agricultural communicator, your perceptions of job satisfaction both in your organization and the industry, as well as some questions on your perceptions on gender roles within agricultural communications.

Your answers on this survey are completely confidential and will be written in her thesis with no identifying information whatsoever. Please be assured that your identity will be will not be disclosed and will be protected to the extent of the law. Your participation in Rebecca's survey is completely voluntary, and truly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Judy Winn
ACE President

APPENDIX D
SURVEY COVER LETTER (2ND WAVE)

October 8, 2004

Dear ACE Member,

My name is Rebecca McGovney and I am a fellow ACE member and a graduate student pursuing a master's degree in agricultural communications at the University of Florida. For my thesis, I am studying ACE members and their perceptions of many aspects of our industry, including job satisfaction, workplace behavior and gender roles. My committee members include Dr. Tracy Irani and Dr. Ricky Telg.

As an ACE member, your input and participation in this survey is highly valued, whether you are currently working in agricultural communications or not. Your participation in this survey is voluntary, though greatly appreciated.

The enclosed survey includes questions to be answered by bubbling in your answer on the enclosed scantron, as well as some toward the end that are to be answered directly on the questionnaire booklet. Please return the completed survey and scantron form to me in the provided envelope by October 20. Your identity will not be disclosed during any portion of this study, but we have provided a second business size envelope if you wish to return your signed informed consent statement separately from your completed survey.

If you have any questions, please contact me at (352) 392-0502 Ext. 244 or by email at RLMcGovney@ifas.ufl.edu.

Thank you for helping us to learn about ACE members.

Sincerely,

Rebecca L. McGovney
Graduate Assistant
Department of Agricultural Education and Communication
University of Florida

APPENDIX E
INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT

Please read this consent document carefully before deciding to participate in this study. Once you have read the following, sign and return with your completed survey.

My name is Rebecca McGovney and I am a graduate student in the Department of Agricultural Education and Communication at the University of Florida. I am studying the perceptions of job satisfaction and the roles of agricultural communications practitioners.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary, and truly appreciated. If you choose to participate, your identity will not be disclosed and will be protected to the extent of the law and your answers will be confidential. However, if this data was to be subpoenaed by a court your identity will be revealed.

This survey will take around 30 minutes to complete. You can stop at any time without penalty and you do not have to answer any questions you do not want to answer. There are no known risks for participating in this study and there is no compensation or benefits. Due to the nature of some of the questions on gender discrimination and/or sexual harassment situations, you may experience some discomfort while answering them.

If you have any questions or concern, please contact myself or my committee chair, Dr. Tracy Irani, at 352-392-0502. Mailing address is PO Box 110540, Gainesville, FL 32611-0540. Any questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant can be answered by the UF Institutional Review Board (IRB) office, Box 112250, Gainesville, FL 32611-2250 or by phone at 352-392-0433.

By returning this signed form I agree that I have read and received a copy of the procedure described above. In signing I voluntarily agree to participate.

Participant Signature

Date

APPENDIX F
THANK YOU/REMINDER POSTCARD (3RD WAVE)



Department of Agricultural
Education and Communication
PO Box 110540
Gainesville, FL 32611-0450

Hello ACE Member!

Last week we sent you a questionnaire asking for your opinion on certain aspects of working within agricultural communications. If you have already completed and returned the survey, then please accept our thanks for your participation.

If you have not had the chance to complete the survey, we would encourage you to do so now. As an ACE member, your opinion on the industry is valued for our study.

Thank you so much for your help in this matter.

Rebecca L. McGovney
Project Director

APPENDIX G
SURVEY REMINDER EMAIL (4TH WAVE)

Hello ACE Members!

I know as things get busy towards the end of the year things can pile up on our desks. Each of you received a copy of my master's survey a few weeks ago that may have gotten lost among the piles. If you have completed my survey...thank you very much. If you have not had the chance yet, I would appreciate it if you could take a few minutes to help me with my research. If you would like a new copy of the survey, feel free to contact me at RLMcGovney@ifas.ufl.edu or 352-392-1773.

Thanks again for your help and I look forward to hearing from you.

Rebecca L. McGovney
Graduate Assistant
Department of Agricultural Education and Communication
University of Florida

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Rebecca Lynn McGovney was born in Houston, Texas, on December 27, 1979. She grew up in Spring, Texas, where she graduated from Klein Oak High School in 1998.

Rebecca attended Stephens College in Columbia, Missouri, where she received a Bachelor of Science in Mass Communication: Journalism in December of 2002. She also attended the University of Missouri-Columbia part-time to take courses relating to agricultural journalism. During this time, Rebecca was a member of Agricultural Communicators of Tomorrow at the University of Missouri, serving one semester as club treasurer. She also worked her way through the newsroom staff of Stephens Life, starting as a staff writer and ending as the paper's news editor. Rebecca worked as a communications intern for Texas Cooperative Extension, Texas A&M University, in Harris County writing press releases and working on publications.

After completing her bachelor's degree, Rebecca spent time working as a beat reporter for the *Conroe Courier*, before moving to Gainesville, Florida, to attend the University of Florida. While completing her Master of Science in agricultural communications, Rebecca served as a teaching assistant for a technical writing class and a Web and print design course. She also served as a research assistant for Dr. Tracy Irani, and completed several media research projects on her own including two media framing pieces--one on same-sex marriage and a second on medicinal marijuana. In addition to her master's, Rebecca earned a Graduate Certificate in Women's Studies from the University of Florida. She also worked part-time as a news writer for the Institute of

Food and Agricultural Sciences Communication Services throughout her last year in the program.

Rebecca is a member of Agricultural Communicators of Tomorrow (ACT), Alpha Tau Alpha and Gamma Sigma Delta honor societies, National Association of Science Writers, and the Association for Communication Excellence in Agriculture, Natural Resources, and Life and Human Sciences (ACE) in which she holds the position of Vice-Chair Elect of the Diversity Special Interest Group.