

1996

A survey of female high-tech public relations practitioners in Silicon Valley

Sheila Buntrock
San Jose State University

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarworks.sjsu.edu/etd_theses

Recommended Citation

Buntrock, Sheila, "A survey of female high-tech public relations practitioners in Silicon Valley" (1996). *Master's Theses*. 1298.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.31979/etd.uapg-p67g>
https://scholarworks.sjsu.edu/etd_theses/1298

This Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by the Master's Theses and Graduate Research at SJSU ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Master's Theses by an authorized administrator of SJSU ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact scholarworks@sjsu.edu.

INFORMATION TO USERS

This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. Each original is also photographed in one exposure and is included in reduced form at the back of the book.

Photographs included in the original manuscript have been reproduced xerographically in this copy. Higher quality 6" x 9" black and white photographic prints are available for any photographs or illustrations appearing in this copy for an additional charge. Contact UMI directly to order.

UMI

A Bell & Howell Information Company
300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor MI 48106-1346 USA
313/761-4700 800/521-0600

A SURVEY OF FEMALE HIGH-TECH PUBLIC RELATIONS
PRACTITIONERS IN SILICON VALLEY

A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of the School of
Journalism and Mass Communications
San Jose State University

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science

by

Sheila Buntrock

August 1996

UMI Number: 1381409

UMI Microform 1381409
Copyright 1996, by UMI Company. All rights reserved.

**This microform edition is protected against unauthorized
copying under Title 17, United States Code.**

UMI
300 North Zeeb Road
Ann Arbor, MI 48103

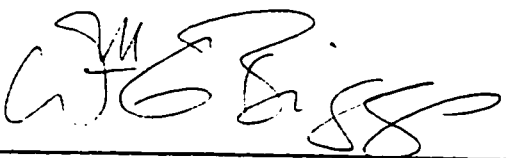
Copyright 1996

Sheila Marie Buntrock

ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

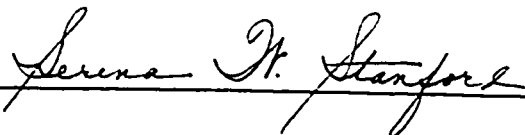
APPROVED FOR THE SCHOOL OF
JOURNALISM AND MASS COMMUNICATIONS


Dr. Kathleen Martinelli


Dr. William Briggs


Dr. Ken Plowman

APPROVED FOR THE UNIVERSITY



ABSTRACT

A SURVEY OF FEMALE HIGH-TECH PUBLIC RELATIONS PRACTITIONERS IN SILICON VALLEY

by Sheila M. Buntrock

Sociologist Barbara Reskin contends that two patterns typically emerge in industries that were dominated by men but are now dominated by women.

First, that the men who remain in the field tend to concentrate in the highest status, highest paying positions, and second, that women tend to experience declines in work content, autonomy, and rewards.

This research introduces an exploratory, descriptive survey of 154 women working in the Silicon Valley as public relations and marketing communication specialists and or managers. Respondent's perceptions are measured to determine if Reskin's theories are present in the public relations arena.

Findings indicate that subjects experienced an increase on all dimensions measuring work content, autonomy and rewards. The women perceived that the men who remain in public relations tend to reside in higher status, higher paying positions. Although respondents believed gender can affect earnings, 33% of the survey reported earning salaries greater than \$67K annually.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter I		
Introduction.....	p.	1
Chapter II		
Literature Review.....	p.	5
Differentiation.....	p.	6
Women in the Workforce.....	p.	9
Level of Education Earned.....	p.	16
Women in Public Relations and the Glass Ceiling.....	p.	18
Importance of Practitioner's Roles.....	p.	21
The Silicon Valley and High Technology.....	p.	26
The Research Questions.....	p.	31
Chapter III		
Methodology.....	p.	32
The Survey.....	p.	32
Sample Selection.....	p.	32
The Questionnaire.....	p.	33
Determining Practitioner Role.....	p.	37
Autonomy.....	p.	39
Rewards.....	p.	39
Chapter IV		
Findings.....	p.	41
Demographic Data.....	p.	41
Salary Findings.....	p.	42
Female Perceptions of Male Concentration in Dominant Positions.....	p.	45
Work Content, Autonomy and Rewards.....	p.	47
Chapter V		
Conclusions.....	p.	51
Directions for Future Research.....	p.	55
References.....	p.	58
Appendix (Survey Materials).....	p.	63

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Annual Gross Salary	p. 43
Table 2	Agency Versus Corporate Perceptions of Male Salaries	p. 44
Table 3	Gender of Manager in an Agency versus a Corporation	p. 45
Table 4	Gender of Manager Most Frequently Worked With	p. 46
Table 5	Level of Agreement on Statements Measuring Work Content	p. 47
Table 6	Level of Disagreement on Statements Measuring Work Content	p. 48
Table 7	Statements Measuring Autonomy and its Increase	p. 48
Table 8	Statements Measuring Rewards and Degree of Increase	p. 49
Table 9	Statements Measuring Agreement or Increase in Rewards	p. 50

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

The increasing percentage of women in the work force is quite notable. Over 70% of all women in their 20s to 40s are now in the work force, and approximately 60% of women in their 50s are now in the labor force (Fischer, 1995).

More specifically, women have gained entrance to a variety of fields that were at one time dominated by men. Within the past decade or two, most such occupations have become dominated by women (Reskin, 1989). The public relations field has experienced this gender-switch phenomenon that also can be observed in the work place, professional organizations, and in academic institutions. The Velvet Ghetto study conducted in 1984 by the International Association of Business Communicators concluded that women accounted for approximately 70% of all public relations practitioners.

The recent expansion taking place within the high technology industry also has opened the door for women in the work force. In 1989, the electronics industry reached \$266 billion in factory shipments. The high technology industry is now the largest manufacturing industry in the country, and is growing twice as fast as all other manufacturing businesses (Elits, 1990). Many public relations agencies and corporations currently operate within and support the high technology field.

The contribution that the high technology industry has made to society and the public relations profession cannot be overlooked. Despite its ups and downs, the rapid growth of this industry has created opportunities. According to Elits (1990), "The rapid expansion, along with the far-reaching implications of new technology for all businesses and for our individual lifestyles, have made high-tech one of the most fertile and challenging specialties for public relations practitioners" (p. 23).

As women continue to enter into the work force and make their way into professions that were once dominated by men, changes are likely to occur. According to sociologist Barbara Reskin (1988), as women gain access to traditionally male-dominated fields, two patterns typically emerge.

The first pattern is that males concentrate in the highest status, highest paying jobs. Second, as women gain access to formerly male-dominated occupations, changes occur in work content, autonomy, and rewards.

For example, working conditions or job content may deteriorate; wages may fail to keep pace with those in other occupations requiring the same qualifications; advancement opportunities may disappear; and more desirable jobs that demand similar qualifications may become available.

Within the public relations profession, great concern has emerged regarding the salary differences between men and women as well as the importance of the practitioner's role in

the organization (Broom, 1982; Broom & Dozier, 1986; Cline, 1986). Typically, women tend to cluster in the lower ranking roles, while those men who remain in the field are usually found in the higher levels of management. According to Dozier (1988), the fate of women in public relations (particularly their participation in management decision making) is linked to the survival and growth of public relations as a profession (p. 6).

There are many factors that have been found to be significant causes of the barriers that women face in the work place. According to a recent study by Hon (1995), major obstacles for women include the marginalization of public relations, problems stemming from male dominance at work, women's balancing act between career and family, and gender stereotypes.

To what extent are women breaking down these barriers? Are significant strides being made with respect to the salaries that women are earning as the public relations profession becomes increasingly dominated by women?

This thesis introduces an exploratory, descriptive survey of women working in Silicon Valley as public relations and marketing communication specialists and or managers. The purpose of this study is to test Reskin's theories to determine if they are applicable among female Silicon Valley high technology public relations practitioners. As a by-product of this study, the researcher expects to determine if

a glass ceiling exists within the public relations profession and within this particular geographical region. If a glass ceiling does exist, this research aims to provide insight as to what degree women are breaking through it.

It should be noted that the researcher is interested in the opinions of females to determine whether they perceive Reskin's theories have occurred as well as the extent to which the women perceive that a glass ceiling exists. The opinions of male practitioners are not relevant to this study. Therefore, this research will not attempt to obtain the perceptions of men and seeks only to determine the perceptions of women in the field.

This study is valuable to all Silicon Valley practitioners because this particular geographic region has not been examined as a sole entity nor has the discrete topic of high technology female practitioners of public relations been addressed. In addition, this study departs from previous studies as it focuses on one specific industry, gender, and geographic region.

The contribution this study makes to the body of knowledge about high-tech organizations and their female public relations practitioners should be beneficial to the growth and credibility of the field as well as to public relations students, scholars, teachers and practitioners.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

According to a Bureau of Labor Statistics survey that identified five growth areas for women (Simurda, 1993) in terms of employment, the fourth largest growing industry in the country is information management and public relations. As research reveals, it is no surprise that the field of public relations has experienced an influx of women, and women are now the majority in the field (Hon, Grunig, & Dozier, 1992).

For example, Lukovitz (1989) determined that it is safe to conclude that women represent half of the public relations field, and very probably somewhat more than half. Theus (1985) revealed that females studying journalism outnumbered males and that those females expressed anxiety over successful entry into formerly male-dominated careers.

The Velvet Ghetto study is another concept that played a role in the surge of women to the public relations profession. The study contended that women in public relations were being treated so well -- in many cases given preferential treatment over men -- in order to meet affirmative action goals. As a result, women were flocking to a field that appeared to offer opportunities for women (Cline, et al., 1986).

Shaeffer and Lynton (1979) determined that predominantly female work settings appeared to provide more opportunities

for women. According to the U.S. Department of Labor, the public relations labor force shifted from fewer than 44% women in 1979 (U.S. Department of Labor, 1980, p. 174) to over 56% women in 1991 (U.S. Department of Labor, 1992, p. 186). According to Dozier and Broom (1993), public relations remains a female-majority occupation (about 59 percent) today.

But what happens to the public relations field when it experiences an influx of females into a traditionally male-dominated sector? According to Treiman and Hartmann (1981), the more proportionately female an occupation, the lower its average wages. Practitioners and researchers alike have expressed concerns about the potential for a decline in status and salaries in public relations due to the increasing number of women entering the practice (Cline, et al., 1986).

According to Reskin (1988), the increasing emphasis on communicating and interpersonal or nurturing work in our society has contributed to women's gains in various fields such as public relations. However, public relations presently operates in a business environment that at one time had been dominated by males.

Differentiation

Reskin contended that "The primary method through which all dominant groups maintain their hegemony is by differentiating the subordinate group and defining it as inferior and hence meriting inferior treatment" (p. 58).

This process includes changing the rules (if necessary) to assist the dominant group in remaining dominant. Dominant groups remain privileged because they write the rules, and the rules they write enable them to continue to write the rules. Reskin argued that "neither sex-integrating jobs nor implementing comparable worth will improve women's employment status because men can subvert these mechanisms or even change the rules by which rewards are allocated" (p. 58).

This occurrence has been demonstrated in what Dozier (1988) has termed the *encroachment* process. This process is defined as "the practice of assigning the top management role in the public relations department to someone from outside public relations" (p. 9), which could very well be a male from a male-dominated area, such as investor relations or international relations. This phenomenon could be a contributing factor to the existence or strengthening of a glass ceiling.

Differentiation, or the practice of distinguishing categories based on some attribute (such as gender specific stereotypes), inherits a pivotal role in the domination of another group (Reskin, 1988). Unfortunately for women and for the field of public relations, feminine stereotypes are inconsistent with attributes of good managers (Dozier, 1988).

As a result of the differentiation process, Reskin explained that several patterns typically occur when occupations switch from a predominantly male to a

predominantly female work force. The first pattern is that within many occupations nominally being integrated, men and women remain highly segregated, with men concentrated in the highest-status and best-paying jobs. The second pattern shows that women often gained access to these occupations after changes in work content and declines in autonomy or rewards made the work less attractive to men.

For example, Reskin (1988) discussed the decline of the content, autonomy, and rewards in the pharmacy field as women began to predominate in pharmacy schools. As women entered the field, women pharmacists became largely confined to the retail sector, while male pharmacists worked in research and management. Retail pharmacists lost professional status and entrepreneurial opportunities as a result of drug manufacturers taking over the compounding of drugs. This forced retail pharmacists' work content to be reduced to simply dispensing prepared drugs and keeping records. Franchise and discount drug stores eliminated the opportunity to own one's own business, which reduced another traditional attraction for men. As a result, shortages of male graduates in the pharmacy field opened the doors for women to enter a previously male-dominated field.

This process is also evidenced within the insurance industry. After insurance companies computerized claims processing in the 1970s, adjusters' real wages dropped sharply. In addition, adjusters lost much of the discretion

they had previously in settling claims, and women became the dominant gender employed by the field (Phipps, 1986). Reskin also offered examples of this phenomenon in a variety of industries, including bank telling, baking, book editing, and real estate.

Women in the Work Force

As the composition of the available labor force has changed, more women have entered the workplace. Women began entering the labor force in increasing numbers between 1950 and 1980. In 1950, women represented less than 30% of the work force; by 1980, they had increased their share to more than 42% (Kutscher, 1993).

Labor force participation rates for women, which had increased so rapidly in the earlier decades, have continued to increase well into the 1990s. In 1992, women represented 41.5% of managers as reported by the U.S. Department of Labor (1993).

With the feminist movement of the late 1960s and early 1970s, *fast track* women eagerly sought advancement within the male-dominated corporate America. As a result, women are becoming an increasing segment of the labor force as a whole and of the management level in particular. It is predicted that by the year 2000, the majority of new entrants into the labor force will be women, and even more women will pursue management careers (Fagenson, 1993).

Women will play a prominent role in the labor force of

the 21st Century. Between 1990 and 2005 women's labor force growth will continue to surpass that of men, according to the U.S. Department of Labor Women's Bureau (1993). Today, almost half of the American work force is female, and Bureau of Labor Statistics projections indicate that between 1996 and 2005, women will comprise 62% of labor force growth (Fullerton, 1995).

Although women are beginning to be the dominant gender in the American work force, the challenges that lie ahead are significant. For example, some women experienced road blocks on their highways to corporate success, road blocks otherwise known as the glass ceiling. The glass ceiling is a term identified as the level in corporations beyond which women and minorities have not risen, despite their representation in the first-level supervisory and middle-management ranks.

According to a benchmark study by Toth and Cline (1991), results indicated evidence of salary disparity in public relations between men and women. This study surveyed 443 randomly selected public relations practitioners who were members of professional associations. The study revealed that one of the largest gaps between men and women appeared on the question of managerial ability to command top salary. Over 80% of the women reported that men and women are different in this ability.

In addition, female practitioners reported having faced a variety of problems when they attempted to achieve

management positions. Specifically, they reported that they were perceived differently on such attributes as managerial motivation, willingness to sacrifice work over family demands, and the ability to command top salary.

Further contributing to the omission of women in the boardroom is the concept that white males at the top hire white males (Hill, 1993). Since most U.S. corporations are dominated by white men at the top, the integration of women into upper management has not been easy. While women's numbers in the management profession are on the rise, women are still largely clustered in lower and, to a lesser extent, middle-level management positions (U.S. Department of Labor, 1990a). Women have yet to make their mark in significant numbers in upper management levels.

A report by the U.S. Department of Labor indicated that several traditional policies and procedures may have built or perpetuated artificial barriers to the advancement of women and minorities in the work force. These barriers included, first, the use of informal recruitment practices, including word of mouth. The second barrier was the failure by companies to make executive recruitment firms aware of affirmative action goals and equal employment opportunity obligations, and the third, the failure to sensitize and instruct managers about equal employment opportunity requirements and concerns (Kalish, 1992).

It has been suggested that women's advancement into

upper levels of management has been hampered due to their lack of education when compared with men. However, according to Naff (1993), a study by the U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board (MSPB) found that women were often underrated by traditional criteria used by managers to evaluate employees. The MSPB contended that as long as women remain in the minority in mid- and senior-level jobs, many of the stereotypes they confronted will continue to exist.

However, this culture of conformity that has traditionally excluded women from prestigious assignments, informal networking opportunities, and the ability to seek out mentors may be dissolving. For example, (Gage, 1996) reports the accounting industry is undergoing intense self examination, with a newfound focus on gender issues encompassing work and family. Women in the industry are asking for the accommodations they need, including flex time and mentor programs.

Although the speed of change appears slow but sure, high-profile efforts such as Deloitte & Touche's 1993 Initiative for the Retention and Advancement of Women reports a 4.8% reduction in the gender gap between male and female senior managers who leave the firm (Gage, 1996).

A recent study was published by Catalyst (1996), a not-for-profit organization founded in 1962 to encourage women's advancement. The study reports that a breakthrough generation of American women in business has begun to attain

senior management positions in the nation's largest corporations. The study surveyed 461 executives from Fortune 1,000 companies. In addition, 20 female executives and 20 male executives were interviewed.

According to Catalyst President Sheila Wellington:

The study results point to some differing perceptions by CEOs and executive women of the barriers faced by women in corporate leadership, but both manifest a commitment to undertake the work necessary to advance women. It is Catalyst's goal to foster this undertaking, and we believe this pathbreaking study points the way. (Catalyst, p. 4)

In Catalyst's survey, women attributed their success primarily to a combination of consistently delivering superior business results and developing a professional style regarded as comfortable to male colleagues and managers. The study also confirms that majorities of today's female executives have succeeded in combining career achievement with family responsibilities.

The study also reports that women have made inroads in the top corporate echelons while having to work extra hard to overcome low expectations of their abilities. Although women still account for just 5% of senior management, more than 85% of the women executives who responded to the survey said women are making progress in corporate America.

However, Catalyst found that male and female executives still hold differing views of what keeps women from getting ahead. For example, male executives at Fortune 1000 companies found women twice as likely as men to consider male

stereotyping as a barrier to women. Male executives also said the most serious deterrent to women advancing was a lack of appropriate experience.

Contrary to the viewpoints of men surveyed, the women in the study report that it was their lack of significant general management or line experience that accounted for one of the most serious deterrents to women's advancement in corporate leadership. According to the women in the survey, two other critical obstacles to their advancement include male attitudes about women and exclusion from informal networks that build trust and visibility.

Catalyst also concluded that female executives tended to cluster in staff support functions such as public affairs, human resources, or certain finance positions. If they are corporate officers, women are most likely to be secretary, with a growing number serving as treasurer and general counsel. The representation of women in Catalyst's sample itself attests to this phenomenon; more than 60% hold positions in staff functions.

The fact that this study reveals that for the first time, women have attained the most senior positions in corporate legal, communications, or human resources departments is meaningful. This accomplishment is a major milestone and deserves to be celebrated as concrete evidence of women's progress toward corporate leadership.

Large majorities of both female executives and CEOs in

the Catalyst study also believe that companies, as well as women, have a responsibility to change to address women's needs. This finding is encouraging; it signals widespread recognition among senior managers that it is not simply a matter of time until women catch up with men in corporate America. Instead, it suggests a shared commitment to deliberate and strategic change.

If this is indeed the case, it may explain female executives' optimism about continued progress for women in corporate leadership in the years ahead. For example, Catalyst also reports that women executives in the nation's top companies anticipate that, while the early 1990s have seen modest gains, the critical mass and organizational momentum may now exist to allow for much more rapid progress toward gender diversity in corporate leadership in the last half-decade of this century.

The study goes on to suggest that as corporate management becomes increasingly diverse, initiatives to bridge gaps in understanding among groups of different backgrounds will become an essential ingredient to building successful teams and effective communication in the future.

Also contributing to the recent strides made by women are the changing demographics of the workplace. According to Kutscher (1993), the men's labor force participation rate in 1950 was 70.4%. In 1992, that figure fell to 54.5%. In terms of women's labor force participation rates, a

substantial increase was reflected, with 29.6% of the work force represented by the female gender in 1950 and 45.5% in 1992.

These dramatic differences in the American work force population are not restricted to gender alone. Ethnic and racial minority populations in the U.S. will grow at a rate seven times faster than the population as a whole. By the year 2000, almost one in every three Americans will be Black, Hispanic, Asian, or American Indian (Williams, 1990). This trend will contribute to furthering potential career opportunities for growing numbers of minority women.

Level of Education Earned

In 1993, the U.S. Department of Education determined that approximately 628,000 women earned bachelor's degrees compared to the 537,000 earned by men. The trend toward advanced degrees also reflected an influx of females, indicating that approximately 194,000 women earned master's degrees, while men earned 176,000.

The percentage of women earning MBA degrees, law degrees, and overall higher salaries during the last ten years also indicates dramatic progress. For example, in a 1991 survey, Kaye (1992) found that women made up 50% of law students and were 37% of employed law associates. This trend was supported by the U.S. Bureau of the Census' finding that in 1990 women earned 558,000 bachelor's degrees in law while men earned 491,000. Women also earned 170,000 master's

degrees and men earned 154,000 (p.183).

The National Center for Education Statistics reported that during the 1990 to 1991 time frame, 1,322 women earned bachelor's degrees in public relations, while approximately 575 men earned their bachelor's degree in public relations. During this same period of time, women also exceeded men by earning 101 master's degrees in public relations as opposed to the 26 degrees earned by men (p. 249).

The increasing numbers of women completing college and capable of entering the professional work force has contributed to the growing concern regarding equal pay for equal work. In fact, under the Bush administration, the "Glass Ceiling Initiative" was formed.

The initiative was a project sponsored by Lynn Martin, former Secretary of Labor under George Bush, to analyze the invisible barriers to career advancement for women and minorities and initiate programs for their removal. Martin reported some progress, stressing the need for corporations to work harder to remove those obstacles (Hill, 1993).

Similarly, the Labor Department published a report in 1987 titled "Work force 2000, Work and Workers for the 21st Century." The report focused national attention on the dramatic changes taking place in the economy and in the composition of the work force. In addition, Title II of the Civil Rights Act of 1991 created the Glass Ceiling Commission, with a mandate to focus greater public attention

on the importance of eliminating barriers that prevented qualified minorities and women from advancing in the workplace, particularly into mid- and senior-level management positions. This commission also worked to promote work force diversity (Zachariasiewicz, 1993).

As women continue to enter the work force with educational and training levels that are equivalent to those of men, changes are likely to occur. These factors, coupled with changing demographics such as cultural and ethnic diversity, will continue to open upper level corporate doors to women as white males become the new minority entrant to the work force. According to Perry (1992), most women executives feel that the women's movement made great strides during the 1980s, and most are confident things will continue to improve.

Women in Public Relations and the Glass Ceiling

As mentioned, some studies have suggested there is evidence that the so-called glass ceiling may be cracking. This occurrence has also been experienced in the field of public relations. For example, in a PRSA research study, Wright and Springstein (1991) found that raises reported by female practitioners indicated that the salary gap was narrowing. Female respondents reported raises of more than 7%, while the male respondents reported raises of 6%. These differences were found to be statistically significant at the .01 level.

In addition, geographic location was found to be an important factor with regard to both men's and women's salaries. Median salaries were generally higher in the Northeastern, Midwestern, and Northwestern states, and in California.

PRSA's eighth annual salary survey conducted by Tortorello and Wilhelm (1993) suggested that while the gender gap still exists, there may be a trend toward male-female parity at lower executive levels. In addition, women appeared to be making inroads into several specialty areas once dominated by men. For example, the proportion of women at the account executive level (73%) was considerably higher than that of men (27%). The proportion of women in supervisory levels rose from 51% to 57% in 1993. Senior management levels reflected that women rose from 37% to 44% in 1993, while the proportion of men dropped from 63% to 56%.

Hutton (1993) contended that many of the gender-related salary discrimination studies in the public relations field were largely flawed and had no merit. Hutton explained that the notion of a glass ceiling was not a relevant concept for a large majority of public relations practitioners and argued that if there was a glass ceiling for women, it would apply to men as well. After all, hundreds of women occupy the top public relations positions in a variety of organizations all across the country.

Lukovitz (1989) informally interviewed high-level

executives and educators who stated views on the outlook for women in public relations and the profession itself. Overall perceptions tended to be optimistic. According to Lynn Phares, vice president of public relations for an Omaha-based company, "The ceiling is slowly disappearing. The problems aren't imaginary, but things are definitely changing" (p. 19).

Breaking the glass ceiling has also been supported by the concept that a whole generation of older, more traditional male leaders will retire soon and younger men will be more supportive of female executives. In addition, the next generation of women now have role models to emulate in the pioneers who fought their way to the general management level, easing the way for those who will follow (Morrison, 1987).

Factors that have kept women out of higher-level managerial positions have been debated. Buhler (1991) discussed three myths that have kept women out of the boardroom. "First, that women cannot occupy high-powered positions because they are 'too soft'. Second, that men cannot work for women. Third, that women are short-term employees who will leave their jobs for motherhood" (p. 22).

All these contentions can be argued against by the many women who have risen above these obstacles on their road to success. Other factors such as on-site child care (Perry, 1992) and flexible work schedules (Northcraft & Gutek, 1993)

are providing options to mothers who are also career women.

Dozier (1988) found that environmental monitoring or scanning was vital to the progression of women in public relations. So vital that it could contribute to assisting women break through the glass ceiling. Scanning is a useful tool to allow the practitioner to find out *what is going on* among internal and external publics. Dozier contended that, "Women practitioners who control scarce resources, who are the organization's experts on 'what's going on out there', are more successful in management decision making participation than women practitioners who do not scan" (p. 12).

Dozier (1988) also discussed three factors that specifically affect the public relations glass ceiling. First, gender stereotypes work against the inclusion of public relations practitioners in management decision making. Second, public relations has become hierarchically segregated by sex as it continues to become a female-majority occupation. Third, the segregation of women in the technician role serves as a powerful predictor of income differences between men and women practitioners. These factors will be elaborated on with respect to the roles practitioners play within their profession.

Importance of Practitioner's Roles

Women in public relations are not newcomers to the field, having gained enough valuable experience and education

to position themselves for the managerial ranks. However, Broom and Dozier (1986) found that advancement in public relations was "clearly a function of the practitioner's gender and role in the profession" (p. 54).

Broom and Smith (1978, 1979) introduced the concept of roles to public relations. Roles define the everyday activities of public relations practitioners. Research on roles plays an important part in understanding public relations as an emerging profession. According to Steele's basic role models (1982), four roles are prominent in public relations. The *expert prescriber*, *communication facilitator*, *problem-solving process facilitator*, and the *communication technician*. The first three roles tend to be categorized as *manager* roles, while the latter is clearly a *technician* role.

Dozier (1990) determined that practitioners generally play either the manager or the technician role predominantly. Dozier explained that "Public relations managers make communication policy decisions and are held accountable for the success or failure of public relations programs. They regard themselves, and are regarded by others, as public relations experts" (p. 9). On the other hand, public relations technicians, "implement communication programs planned by others" and practitioners who predominantly play the technician role are not associated with the use of scientific or informal research (p. 9).

Broom (1982) provided evidence that proportionally more

women than men played the technician role. Similarly, Dozier, Chapo, and Sullivan (1983) found that this type of role segregation contributed to lowering the salaries of women in public relations.

Toth and Grunig (1993) conducted a study to advance the research on roles in public relations by considering the breadth of roles that women perform under the managerial label. They found that the women in their study tended to devote more of their time to performing managerial activities in addition to carrying out technical activities. The women's technical dimension was more clearly confined to technical activities. A mixture of activities was not found in the women's managerial dimension.

However, the managerial activities of men were more managerial in nature, involving the counseling and policy-making role and then evaluating and supervising the work of others. The men's technical dimension had a broader scope, indicating that the men were doing more activities and a variety of activities, perhaps to prepare them for the more advanced managerial role.

Dozier (1988) suggested that the "segregation of women in the technician role does more to predict income differences than did years of professional experience, span of employment with present employer, education and age" (p. 7). According to Cline (1989), over the course of one year, this role segregation in public relations can result in a

\$300,000 to a \$1.5 million penalty for being female.

Broom and Dozier (1986) found that roles contributed to the salaries of public relations practitioners and how much satisfaction practitioners derived from public relations work. Their research examined the extent to which changes in public relations practitioners' roles were associated with changes in their salaries, participation in management, and job satisfaction. The study also questioned the extent to which role changes and professional growth occurred according to the practitioners' gender.

Results indicated that women earned less than men in public relations, even when they were of equal education, professional experience, and tenure in their position. In addition, role was yet another predictor of income which (the researchers determined) was reflective of the fact that managers earned significantly higher salaries than technicians.

According to focus group interviews conducted as part of a joint project of PRSA's Research Committee and its Women in Public Relations Task Force (Toth & Grunig, 1991), men and women in public relations agreed that experience was the main factor in career advancement.

However, in a panel study of PRSA members conducted by Broom and Dozier (1986), the researchers found that being male was shown to be a powerful predictor of participation in management decision making. Interestingly, being male was

not as important as which role the practitioner played predominantly and how much scientific scanning the practitioner conducted.

Practitioner roles are related to participation in management decision making (Dozier, 1992). Participation in management decision making is important for practitioners because it enhances their status. In addition, Dozier contended that the encroachment process was blocked as a result, finding that it was more likely that managers were drawn from the ranks of communication and public relations technicians, rather than from other areas (as previously mentioned).

Dozier and Broom (1993) posited a model which linked practitioner attributes to professional outcomes using role enactment (p. 4). Ultimately, male gender combined with tenure with employer, professional experience, managerial role, and participation in management decision making led to higher salaries and greater job satisfaction.

Dozier and Broom (1995) found that male gender was positively related to professional experience and professional experience was positively related to predominant manager role enactment. Resembling a domino effect, predominant manager role enactment was positively related to participation in management decision making. Decision making participation was positively related to both salary and job satisfaction.

Dozier and Broom's 1995 study compared manager role enactment between two groups, one during the 1979 time frame, the other from 1991. Key changes over time involved a reduction in indicators of gender role segregation and salary discrimination. The 1979 study showed that male gender was positively related to predominant manager role enactment after controlling for professional experience. In 1991, this residual variance was reduced to an insignificant level.

In addition, the 1979 study revealed that significant salary differences between men and women remain after controlling for professional experience, manager role enactment, and decision making participation. However, the 1991 study showed that the residual difference in salary was also reduced to an insignificant level.

The Silicon Valley and High Technology

The Silicon Valley is distinct from the nation in that it is the home to high technological innovations and state-of-the-art developments. The high technology field, in general, has typically been dominated by males.

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, by 1992 women made up just 36% of the work force in computer and data-processing services and only 37% in hardware manufacturing. Fryer (1994) explained that while 6% of directors of the Fortune 1000 are women, "Only 2.9% of the directors at 162 publicly owned companies in Silicon Valley (including some banks, but predominantly high technology and

biotech firms) are women" (p. 52). Fryer (1994) also contended that the majority of women employed by computer companies tended to cluster in less powerful staff jobs or "low-risk 'girl jobs'" (p. 54). This contention is similar to Broom's (1982) description of women who cluster in the technician role in public relations.

Furthermore, Wolf (1993) reported that "Women are 10 times more likely to be represented on the Supreme Court of the United States than on the average board of directors for a company in Silicon Valley" (p. 1F). Wolf explained that Silicon Valley companies frequently seek directors with specific technical skills in fields historically dominated by men. They often look for candidates with a background in electrical engineering or computer science, specialties in which women are under-represented.

According to Flynn (1993), the vast majority of high-technology employees are male, but the industry is beginning to focus on attracting more women for both managerial and technical positions. As organizations continue to trim down due to intense competition in the high-tech industry, fewer levels will separate women from the top.

Fisher (1992) revealed that sex discrimination is already less of an obstacle in some industries than in others. For example, "High-tech and service companies are generally more inclined to promote women than old-line manufacturers in businesses like steel and autos" (p. 46).

According to industry analyst Denise Caruso, "The high-tech industry will eventually begin to look more like the less male-dominated cable-programming, newspaper and magazine industries, where women hold some powerful positions" (Fryer, 1994, p. 60). Could the old, male-dominated system soon appear to be characteristic of the past?

Gianatasio (1995) found that high-tech public relations executives experienced growth of between 20% and 30% in 1994. Similar growth was expected in 1995.

As the public relations role expands, high-tech firms are struggling for the right mix of strategy and implementation and technical versus communications knowledge. Kador (1991) found that general writing and public relations proficiency counted more than specific computer or technology-related background when high technology firms recruit new talent, according to a sampling of top-level U.S. executives.

When high-tech companies create or react to technological changes, the public relations professional must anticipate, define, and communicate the implications of these changes. According to Eilts (1990), most companies in the Silicon Valley tend to make developing good media relations a top priority for their public relations departments (p. 25). However, the tremendously wide-ranging impact of the high-tech industry has mandated that public relations practitioners also begin to look beyond product publicity, to

handle areas as varied as crisis management/communications, employee communications and community and government relations.

In his book titled *Silicon Valley Fever*, Rogers (1984) contended that "Meritocracy reigns supreme in Silicon Valley and that means knowing what you are doing. It's not who you know, or who your parents were, or where you went to school. It's what you know; intelligence is mandatory" (p. 139).

Generally speaking, any discussion of high technology industries and occupations presumes a series of commonalties that Kleingartner and Anderson (1987) and Gomez-Mejia and Balkin (1985) highlight. These commonalties presume that:

The proportion of engineers and scientists are higher than in other industries, new products and production methods are based on scientific application, R & D expenditures are higher than in other manufacturing firms, expertise is valued; academicians are useful providers of training and expertise, the products are marketed in domestic and foreign markets, the product life cycle is short, the management tends to be young and relatively inexperienced, numerous innovations are introduced at frequent intervals, there is a high mortality rate for these firms; owing to competitive pressures, there is a dependence on outside capital, and there is less formality and fewer layers of bureaucracy; financial risks are shared more often with employees. (p. 4)

Many of the companies operating in the Silicon Valley are younger with respect to their management styles. Organizations tend to be open and participative rather than closed and authoritative. Gonring (1991) contended that participative management characteristics included shared decision making based on equity and consensus; open, two-way

communication; shared power and trust in employee decision making; individual input was encouraged; and an egalitarian philosophy with leaders and facilitators (not supervisors) was prominent. In addition, teamwork and common goals were valued.

In contrast, authoritative management styles were characterized by decisions handed down; top-down communication was on a need-to-know basis; centralized, strict procedures and tight control of decision making was prominent; individual input was stifled; authority or hierarchy was clearly distinguished and the organization valued individualism and independent units.

In summary, the literature pertinent to this study tells us that women are entering the work force in great numbers. However, as Reskin's theories explain, the domination of females into a specific occupation can lead to changes occurring in work content, autonomy, and rewards within these occupations.

We also know that the female gender dominates the field of public relations, thereby providing the ideal environment to test Reskin's theories. The public relations literature reveals that the role of the practitioner has a significant impact on the practitioner's ability to make decisions in the organization, which results in greater pay and ultimately greater satisfaction on the job.

The high-tech environment also is significant in this

study because it represents a field typically dominated by the male gender; however, public relations (an occupation dominated by females) is operating within this domain.

The Research Questions

Are Reskin's theories applicable among female Silicon Valley high technology public relations practitioners? For example, have changes occurred in work content (or role), autonomy and rewards as a result of the influx of women into the field? Do female practitioners perceive that the men who remain in the field are concentrated in the highest status, highest paying positions?

The research presented in this section of the paper documents some evidence of the existence of a glass ceiling. Does a glass ceiling exist among high technology female public relations practitioners of the Silicon Valley, and, if so, to what extent does it exist?

In addition, to what extent does a Silicon Valley high technology public relations practitioner's gender affect his or her earnings, beyond the effects of their background characteristics, work setting, or managerial level? As a result, this research will also determine whether the vast majority of female high technology public relations practitioners in the Silicon Valley tend to be clustered in the specialist and technician arena versus the managerial domain.

CHAPTER 3

Methodology

The Survey

A survey of women working in a high technology corporation or agency in Silicon Valley was conducted during the summer of 1994. Only subjects who worked in the public relations or marketing communications (marcom) professions were selected as the study was limited to examining women in the high technology public relations or marcom profession.

It should be noted that the researcher also was interested in the opinions of females as to whether they perceive Reskin's theories have been borne out. The opinions of male practitioners are not relevant to this study. Therefore, this thesis seeks to determine the perceptions of women only.

Sample Selection

The purposive sample of cases was selected non-randomly from listings provided by the Silicon Valley chapter of the International Association of Business Communicators (IABC), Silicon Valley chapter of the Public Relations Society of America (PRSA) and the Business Marketing Association (BMA).

Purposive, non-random selection was necessary due to the fact that this research required a particular population within the professional organizations chosen. In this study the researcher explored a small subset of a larger population in which many members of the subset were easily

identified, but the enumeration of all members would not have been useful.

For example, not all members of IABC were female, nor were all members employed in the high technology industry. In order to obtain a sufficient sampling frame, only respondents who specifically met the criteria (female public relations practitioners working for a high-tech company or agency in the Silicon Valley) were selected.

The size of the population included 297 prospective respondents. In 1994, the Silicon Valley chapter of IABC had approximately 200 members. Of those, approximately 106 were female, working for a high-tech company in the Silicon Valley. The Silicon Valley chapter of PRSA had approximately 100 members, with 32 female, high-tech practitioners. The Bay Area chapter of BMA had approximately 300 members, of which 159 met the criteria for selection to the suggested sampling frame.

The Questionnaire

The survey method for this study was a self-administered questionnaire. A pretest questionnaire was administered to 11 female public relations practitioners who worked in a high technology agency or corporation. The practitioners were acquaintances of the researcher and provided useful feedback regarding the sampling instrument.

Originally, the instrument began with demographic data which the researcher moved to the end of the questionnaire.

This was done because the questionnaire was long; therefore, the less complicated questions came at the end. Also, due to the length of the questionnaire, some questions were numbered alphabetically (24 a,b,c). This gave the impression that there were fewer questions in the survey.

In addition, questions having to do with APR accreditation, mentoring, job satisfaction, and non-profit organizations were eliminated from the original questionnaire. This decision was made to keep the study more narrowly focused and eliminate the need to ask additional questions in a questionnaire that was long and somewhat cumbersome.

Another result from the feedback of the pretest was to expand the groupings of salary ranges. The pretest had only seven salary groupings with increments of 15 thousand dollars, whereas the final instrument had 13 groupings with increments of seven-thousand dollars. The instructions for filling out the questionnaire also were made clearer and were provided in the cover letter.

A total of 198 questionnaires were returned, of which 154 were usable. Forty-four questionnaires were unusable due to subjects no longer working at the company or agency. This factor made it difficult to locate the appropriate individual because no forwarding address was available.

The distribution and percentage of those responding to the survey follow. The organizations are representative

of Silicon Valley chapter associations.

Business Marketing Association (BMA)	53% (N = 83)
International Association of Business Communicators (IABC)	35% (N = 54)
Public Relations Society of America (PRSA)	11% (N = 17)

Address labels were obtained for each member in the study from the chapter presidents of each professional organization. Although address labels were provided, the researcher re-typed each respondents' name and address on an envelope to attain a look of importance and professionalism.

A cover letter with instructions for completing the questionnaire and a self-addressed, stamped envelope for returning the questionnaire were included with the actual survey in the envelope addressed to each respondent. Two follow-up mailings were sent to those respondents who did not return the first questionnaire, in addition to follow-up telephone calls encouraging respondents to send in their questionnaires. This was done to ensure a response rate of 51% or better.

The survey was mailed to respondents via the U.S. postal service. The first set of questionnaires was sent on June 28, 1994, the second on July 31, 1994, and the third was mailed August 24, 1994.

Respondents were asked demographic questions regarding

their age, education, years of experience, title, pay scale etc. This type of demographic information was useful for later comparison with other variables to determine if attitudes or opinions were peculiar to certain segments of an audience.

By comparing demographic variables associated with certain opinion or attitude responses, the researcher could determine the descriptive characteristics of practitioners who held the range of opinions. To determine the intensity of respondents' perceptions, Likert scale statements were used to test Reskin's ideas and theories, which centered around the practitioner's perceived changes in work content, autonomy, and rewards.

The Silicon Valley chapters of IABC, PRSA, and BMA are professional organizations. As a result of the practitioners' affiliation with these organizations, it can be noted that the practitioners who belong to these groups practice public relations with some commitment to public relations as a profession, rather than reflecting the total population of those who hold public relations employment.

However, as noted earlier, the nature of this study is a descriptive exploratory study seeking the perceptions of practitioners. Because the researcher is only surveying female public relations practitioners who practice high technology public relations in the Silicon Valley, the study is not generalizable to the whole population and is specific

only to this geographic area.

Determining Practitioner Role

The Silicon Valley female high technology public relations practitioners' work content (or role) was defined by the type of work that they actually performed on the job. Respondents were asked to respond to a series of statements designed to determine whether the practitioner was a technician or a manager.

Technician and manager roles (specifically, expert prescriber, process facilitator, and communication facilitator) were determined by a set of statements taken from items in Broom and Dozier's 1979 and 1991 PRSA surveys (Dozier & Broom, 1993). Based upon responses to these statements, the researcher was able to determine if the practitioner fell into the manager or technician role.

The following operational definitions of the appropriate role measures were adapted from Broom (1982), Broom and Dozier (1986), and Dozier (1992). The communication technician provides technical communication services to the organization once decisions have been made by management.

Alternatively conceptualized as *journalists in residence*, such practitioners are hired for their writing and media expertise, becoming the wordsmiths and media relations specialists concerned primarily with crafting and placing messages in the media or publishing materials for internal publics.

The three following definitions represent managerial roles. For example, practitioners act as expert prescribers when management treats them as experts with the experience and savvy to prescribe solutions to public relations problems or issues. The expert prescriber dictates and management complies in order to get back to *business as usual*.

The problem-solving process facilitator helps management work through public relations problems to a satisfactory solution. Whereas expert prescription leads to passive management involvement in solving public relations problems, problem-solving process facilitation seeks active management involvement in a collaborative problem-solving process that leads to strong management *ownership* of solutions reached.

The communication facilitator acts as a *go-between*, creating opportunities for senior management to hear from key publics and key publics to hear from management.

Survey question 18 was designed to measure the degree to which practitioners were involved in the management decision making process. Questions 19 (a through u) were designed to determine specific role type. More specifically, questions 20 a,e,i, and l represent the technician role. Questions 20 b,g,m, and o represent the problem-solving process facilitator. Questions 20 c,f,h, and j represent the expert prescriber role and questions 20 d,k,n, and p represent the communication facilitator role.

A series of Likert statements designed to measure

practitioner's perceptions of change within the content of their work are presented in questions 21 a through f.

Autonomy

The importance of autonomy in the workplace has been strongly established. According to Brady, Judd, and Javian (1990), autonomy has been linked to employee involvement in organizational decision making (p. 1219).

For the purposes of this research, autonomy was defined as the condition or quality of being self-governing or having self-determination and independence. Likert scale statements have been adapted from Breugh's (1985) three autonomy subscales utilizing a 5-point scale instead of 7.

In questions 22 a through j, respondents were asked a series of statements designed to measure their current perceptions regarding autonomy. The respondents were then given the same series of statements (questions 23 a through j); however, this time they were asked to determine the amount of increase or decrease they have experienced (since their entrance to the public relations field) with each of the particular statements.

Rewards

The rewards dimension of this study included what Reskin (1989) has defined as wages, benefits, prestige, opportunities, or challenges. Likert scale statements have been designed to examine 1) respondents perceptions of rewards in their occupations at the present time (questions

24 a through h); 2) questions 25 a through h determined whether or not respondents perceive if changes in these rewards have occurred and, if so, to what extent. For example, have wages, benefits, prestige, opportunities, and challenges decreased or increased within the public relations field?

The researcher reviewed and coded the questionnaires which were then entered into San Jose State's mainframe computer. The data were tabulated by computer using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Program. Frequency distributions for all items on the questionnaire were obtained as well as cross tabulations for certain variables.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Demographic Data

Most participants in this study were members of the Business Marketing Association, representing 53.9% (N=83). Thirty-five point one percent (N=54) of the respondents belong to the International Association of Business Communicators and 11% (N=17) were members of Public Relations Society of America.

The majority of respondents participating in the study worked in a corporation (84.1%), while only 15.9% worked at an agency. Nearly half (48.7%) of respondents worked at large corporations employing 1500 to 2000 employees. Respondents tended to work for departments titled *marcom* (28.3%) or *corporate communications* (23.7%).

Nearly two-thirds (64.9%, N=154) of the respondents reported that the highest level of education they earned was a bachelor's degree. While 22.7% indicated that the highest level of education earned was a master's degree. Only 5.8% had an AA degree and 6.5% obtained a high school education. No respondents indicated that they had earned a Ph.D.

Undergraduate degrees in liberal arts or humanities were obtained by 19.9% of respondents. Journalism degrees were awarded to 18.5% of respondents and mass communication degrees were earned by 15.8% of the sample.

The median number of years spent practicing public

relations was 6.4, while 5.5 years was the median number of years specializing in high technology public relations. Interestingly, respondents had spent the most time (6.48 years) working in some field other than public relations or marcom.

About one-third (32.5%) of respondents did not have any males working full time in their organizations, and 77.9% did not have any males working part-time in their departments. Approximately 81.5% of the sample worked in departments that employed 18 or fewer people.

A strong majority, 77.9% of respondents, worked in organizations that did not provide on-site child care, while 22.1% worked in organizations that did. Slightly more than half of the respondents (54.3%) did not have children, while 45.7% did. The median age of the sample was 38.8 years old.

Salary Findings

Annual gross salary tended to cluster in the median range with 17.3% of respondents earning \$46-53K, 13.3% earning \$39-46K, and 12.7% earning \$32-39K.

For those respondents who had earned a bachelor's degree (N= 100), their salary ranged from \$46-53K annually. Those with master's degrees (N=35) earned \$67-74k. Respondents with children (N=69) earned \$60-\$67K, while those without children (N=82) earned \$53-\$60K.

Table 1

Annual Gross Salary

<u>Value Label</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Valid Percent</u>
0-\$25,000	4.0	2.7
\$25-\$32K	6.0	4.0
\$32-\$39K	19	12.7
\$39-\$46K	20	13.3
\$46-\$53K	26	17.3
\$53-\$60K	15	9.7
\$60-\$67K	11	7.3
\$67-\$74K	15	10.0
\$74-\$81K	8.0	5.3
\$81-\$88K	4.0	2.7
\$88-\$96K	13	8.7
\$96-\$103K	3.0	2.0
\$103 and above	6.0	4.0

(N=150)

Respondent's perceptions of salaries received by men in the field were described as *high* when compared to what the respondents earned. Slightly more than half of the sample (56.2%) believed that men in their organizations earned salaries higher than the women did, while 89.1% of respondents believed that men earned anywhere from \$4,000 to \$20,000 more annually than they did.

Table 2

Agency vs. Corporate Perceptions of Male Salaries:

	<u>High</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Same</u>	<u>Total</u>
Agency	28.6% 6	4.8% 1	66.7% 14	16.4% 21
Corporation	61.7% 66	2.8% 3	35.5% 38	83.6% 107
Row Percentage	56.3%	3.1%	40.6%	100%
Respondent Total	72	4	52	128

Cross-tabulations showed that women in agencies described the salaries of men as *the same* as women, while women in corporations described the salaries of men as high. Although the majority of this sample was taken from women working in corporations, it is important to note the difference in perceptions between women employed at agencies and corporations.

Although not all respondents answered the question, of those who did (N=70), 41.4% believed that men earned more as a result of gender. Gender also emerged as the primary attribute for women to earn less than men (N=64), 46.9%.

Interestingly, role was only valued by 12.3% of the sample as the most important attribute contributing to the higher perceived salaries earned by men. On the other hand, role was viewed by 18.6% of the sample as the number-one

reason that women earned salaries that were lower than those of men.

Concerning the salaries earned by women broken down by role, the technicians earned a salary between \$46-53K, while the other managerial positions tended to earn more. Problem-Solving Process Facilitators earned \$53-60K; Communication Facilitators earned \$53-60K, and Expert Prescribers earned \$60-67K.

Female Perceptions of Male Concentration in Dominant Positions

For most respondents, the gender of their immediate supervisor was male. Approximately 53.1% (N=69) of survey respondents had male supervisors. However, a comparable number of women 46.9% (N=61) had female supervisors.

Men tended to be dominant in the managerial ranks. Most (N=78) of the women (60%) worked for male managers. When comparing those who worked for an agency with those who worked for a corporation, men tend to be significantly clustered in managerial roles at a corporation.

Table 3

Gender of Manager in an Agency vs. a Corporation

	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
Agency	42.9%	57.1%
Corporation	60.7%	39.3%

Cross-tabulations were run for respondents who worked at

agencies and corporations. This process sought to determine if the respondents worked most frequently with men or women. Results showed that women who worked in agencies said that the gender of the manager that they worked most frequently with was male, while women in corporations had the same response. This finding tends to support Reskin's theory that the men who stay in the profession typically remain in the highest status, highest paying positions.

Table 4

Gender of Manager Most Frequently Worked With:

	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
Agency	58.8%	41.2%
Corporation	54.1%	45.9%

Interestingly, 55.7% (N=78) responded that their departments did not report directly to senior management. However, when asked the gender of the manager who respondents worked most frequently with, 54.3% (N= 50) responded that they worked with males.

Nearly two-thirds (64.5%) of the women in the sample also perceived that men participated in decision making more frequently than women. However, 48% stated that women performed more detailed and strategic tasks than the men did. About one-third (35.5%) believed that men performed more detailed and strategic tasks than women did, and 16.5% believed that both sexes participated in performing detailed and strategic tasks.

Respondents were asked which gender they perceived was represented in the *dominant coalition* more frequently. A strong majority of respondents (77.6%, N=147) tended to believe that the male gender was represented in this power elite more frequently than women.

Work Content, Autonomy, and Rewards

Respondents tended to agree or strongly agree with the statements that tapped into their perceptions on work content or role. They also tended to disagree with statements alluding to the fact that their work was routine or that their responsibilities at work have decreased. In addition, advancement opportunities were not viewed as *limited beyond the respondent's control*.

Table 5

Level of Agreement on Statements Measuring Work Content

	Agree	Strongly Agree
Since I began working in public relations, there have been changes in the content of my work.	36.4%	34.4%
My responsibilities have increased.	29.9%	46.8%
Public relations is a respected profession.	40.9%	23.4%

N=154

Tables 5,6,7,8, and 9 show the most frequent responses to each of the statements measuring work content, autonomy

and rewards although all statements allowed respondents to choose from a 5-point scale.

Table 6

Level of Disagreement on Statements Measuring Work Content

	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>
My opportunities for advancement are limited beyond my control.	33.1%	13.0%
My work is routine.	41.6%	34.4%
At work, my responsibilities have decreased.	22.1%	59.7%

Regarding autonomy, respondents showed a high level of autonomy and agreed with statements designed to measure this variable. When asked whether they have experienced an increase or a decrease in the same set of items, respondents' perceptions were reflective of an increase on all statements.

Table 7

Statements Measuring Autonomy and its Increase

	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Increase</u>
My work hours are flexible.	56.5%	37.0%
I am allowed to decide what services are to be rendered.	55.2%	41.6%
I am able to choose the way to go about my job (the procedure to utilize).	49.4%	46.1%

Table 7 Continued

	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Increase</u>
I am free to choose the method to use in carrying out my work.	48.1%	47.4%
I have control over the scheduling of my work activities.	47.4%	48.7%
I have some control over the sequencing of my work activities.	55.8%	42.9%
My job is such that I can decide when to do particular work activities.	48.7%	46.1%
My job allows me to emphasize some aspects of my job and play down others.	55.8%	42.9%
I am able to modify what my job objectives are (what I am supposed to accomplish).	49.4%	40.3%
I have some control over what I am supposed to accomplish. (What my supervisor sees as my objectives.)	59.7%	41.6%

Table 8

Statements Measuring Rewards and Degree of Increase

	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Increase</u>	<u>Little Increase</u>
I feel rewarded in my job.	59.1%	36.4%	31.2%
Management acknowledges my efforts.	53.9%	31.2%	31.2%
I know my work is appreciated.	50.6%	31.2%	30.1%

Table 9

Statements Measuring Agreement or Increase in Rewards

	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Increase</u>	<u>Little Increase</u>
I receive pay raises and bonuses as a reflection of my performance on the job.	43.5%	26.6%	22.7%
I believe my job is prestigious.	44.2%	26.6%	26.0%
My work is challenging.	55.8%	40.3%	24.7%
My work provides opportunities for growth.	50.6%	37.0%	22.7%

Respondents also tended to agree or strongly agree with the set of statements designed to measure their perceptions of the rewards they have obtained in their current employment situation. When asked if they have experienced an increase or decrease in each of the statements, most respondents expressed agreement with the statements or had experienced an increase or little increase.

When comparing responses to work content, autonomy, and rewards among technicians, problem-solving process facilitators, expert prescribers and communication facilitators, there were no significant differences other than the technicians tended to disagree with the statement *my work is routine* while the other roles all strongly disagreed with the statement.

CHAPTER 5

Conclusions

This study provides some interesting insights into the following research questions:

1. Are Reskin's theories applicable among female Silicon Valley high-tech public relations practitioners? For example, have changes occurred in work content (or role), autonomy and rewards as a result of the influx of women into the field?

2. Do female practitioners perceive that the men who remain in the field are concentrated in the highest status, highest paying positions?

3. Does a practitioner's gender affect his or her earnings?

4. Do women tend to cluster in the technician or specialist arena versus the managerial domain?

This study finds that Reskin's theories are applicable among female Silicon Valley high technology public relations practitioners in that changes have certainly occurred. However, the changes that have occurred are perceived by the sample as positive changes rather than negative ones.

Reskin discussed the deterioration of working conditions or job content and the decline of advancement opportunities as a formerly male-dominated profession becomes female-dominated.

Regarding the content of their work, female high

technology practitioners working in the Silicon Valley believe that there have been changes in the content of their work, but that their individual responsibilities have increased. Respondents also perceive that public relations is a respected profession and tend to disagree that their work is routine or that any of their responsibilities at work have decreased since they have entered the field. These changes are positive changes, unlike those described by Reskin.

The sample also revealed a high level of autonomy. Respondents reported that their work hours were flexible, that they could decide what procedure to utilize when carrying out their work, that they had control over the scheduling of their work, that they had control over what they needed to accomplish, and that they were able to modify their job objectives. It should be noted that there was not one area that showed a decrease in the level of autonomy since the time that the respondents began work in public relations. Responses to all statements designed to measure autonomy showed an increase.

The third area, rewards, also showed that changes have occurred in a favorable direction. For example, respondents currently feel rewarded in their jobs, know that their work is appreciated, and that management acknowledges their efforts. They also receive pay bonuses and raises as a reflection of their on-the-job performance. The women also

perceive their work as challenging and find that it provides them with opportunities for growth.

Increases were found on all the statements with the exception of the statement that referred to the employer paying the fees to belong to a professional organization. That area remained the same, which does not indicate a decrease, but simply shows that most employers continued to pay their employee's fees.

Overall, the statements designed to measure work content, autonomy and rewards showed that the women in the survey perceive that positive changes are taking place. This finding also was reflected in the 1996 study by Catalyst. Catalyst found that while women are somewhat guarded in their assessment of progress in the recent past, their optimism is much less qualified when looking ahead. This suggests that corporate America may well be at a critical juncture for women in management.

The perceptions of the female practitioners showed that they believed that the men who were also in the field tended to reside in the higher status, higher paying positions.

The gender of most upper-level managerial positions was reported as male. Most women had supervisors and managers who were predominantly male and perceived the dominant coalition to be male oriented.

The study also revealed the same results found in Broom and Dozier's (1986) research which indicated that being male

was shown to be a powerful predictor of participation in management decision making. The women in this study also contended that men participated in decision making roles more frequently than did the women.

In addition, the 1996 study by Catalyst also found that gender was a strong component in the role that an employee plays. The study concluded, "Gender powerfully conditions professional relationships and career experiences" (p. 80).

Regarding salary, the respondents in this study perceived that men tended to earn more than women. Of those respondents who answered the question, they believed that the men earned as much as \$4,000 to \$20,000 more a year than they did. However, the women who provided these responses were not a substantial number of the survey respondents.

Overall, the respondents tended to cluster in the median salary ranges, earning from \$32,000 to \$53,000 annually. This figure is closely aligned with the 1993 salary survey conducted by Tortorello and Wilhelm who found that the median salary for women in public relations was \$46,204. Women with higher levels of education tended to earn higher incomes which also supports previous research.

Although the women perceived that gender can affect earnings, it appears that progress is being made. For example, survey results showed that the mean salary was between \$46,000 to \$53,000 annually. When comparing the findings of Tortorello and Wilhelm's study for median

salaries, it revealed that women earned \$39,542. In addition, approximately 33% (N=49) of the sample earned salaries greater than \$67,000 annually.

An additional factor that may provide some explanation for the progress being made with respect to salary would be role. A large portion of the sample did not tend to cluster in the technician role. The majority of the sample (N=95) were in positions of management and only a smaller segment (N=41) were technicians. (Eighteen respondents did not answer the questions pertaining to title or role.)

It should be noted that the respondents could have tended to cluster in the managerial ranks simply because the sampling frame was drawn from a population of individuals who are members of a professional organization representative of the profession in which they work. Therefore, they may have a stronger commitment to the field than those who are non-members.

Directions for Future Research

Although this study reports that some progress has been made among female high technology public relations practitioners, substantial advancement opportunities for women in general are just beginning.

As reported in Catalyst's large-scale national study, most barriers faced by women climbing the corporate ladder are not intentional. Rather, they are the consequence of unexamined assumptions about women's career interests and

capabilities and unquestioned policies and practices that pervade the corporate culture.

The researcher hopes that further research emerges from this particular study that could provide more information on the future of women in the public relations field especially as women continue to dominate the field.

In particular, it would be valuable to see studies conducted within the geographic location of the Silicon Valley compared to studies in other geographical regions. The fact that all of the women in this study worked for high technology firms could indicate that the high technology industry provides a playground of opportunity for its workers, regardless of gender. It would be interesting to conduct this study in the Midwestern region of the United States among female high technology practitioners and compare results. This could lead to an indepth look at the high technology public relations industry and the women who represent it. For example, are there increased opportunities for women who work in high technology public relations as opposed to those women who represent other industries?

It would also be beneficial to sample a larger group of female practitioners working in high technology agencies, specifically those agencies that are owned and operated by women. It appears that women are making progress within the field, especially when they work at a smaller female-owned agency. However, that is not necessarily the case for women

in the corporate sector who are directly competing with men for managerial positions.

In addition, it would be interesting to measure the perceptions of men in the field to determine what the men who remain in the profession are thinking. Only then could one compare the perceptions of men and women to determine if one gender's perceptions tend to be inaccurate or accurate with regard to what the true responses would be.

While a replication of this study may provide some interesting results, it should be mentioned that the survey itself is somewhat long, mainly because statements are asked more than once to determine if there has been an increase or decrease in a certain measure. This factor alone could influence the response rate.

References

- Broom, Glen M. (1982). A comparison of sex roles in public relations. Public Relations Review, 8(3), 17-22.
- Broom, Glen M., & Smith, G.D. (1979). Testing the practitioner's impact on clients. Public Relations Review, 5(3), 47-59.
- Broom, Glen M., & Smith, G.D. (1978). Toward an understanding of public relations roles: An empirical test of five role models' impact on clients. Paper presented at the meeting of the Public Relations Division, Association for Education in Journalism, Seattle, WA.
- Broom, Glen M., & Dozier, David M. (1986). Advancement for public relations role models. Public Relations Review, 12(9), 37-56.
- Buhler, Patricia (1991). The impact of women in business in the '90s. Supervision, 11, 21-23.
- Brady, Gene F., Judd, Ben B. & Javian, Setrak (1990). The dimensionality of work autonomy revisited. Human Relations Journal, 43(12), 1219-1228.
- Breaugh, J. A. (1985). The measurement of work autonomy. Human Relations Journal, 38, 551-570.
- Catalyst. (1996, February). Women in corporate leadership: Progress and prospects (Research Rep. No. 1996-D36). New York, NY: Author.
- Cline, Carolyn G. (1989). Public relations: The \$1 million penalty for being a woman. In Pamela J. Creedon, (Ed.), Women in mass communication: Challenging gender values (pp. 263-275). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Cline, Carolyn G., Masel-Walters, L., Toth, E.L., Turk, J.V., Smith, H.T. & Johnson, N. (1986). The velvet ghetto: The impact of the increasing percentage of women in public relations and organizational communication. San Francisco: IABC Foundation.
- Dozier, David M. (1988). Breaking public relations glass ceiling. Public Relations Review, 14(3), 6-14.

- Dozier, David.M. (1990). The innovation of research in public relations practice: Review of a program of studies. In J.E. Grunig & L.A. Grunig (Eds.), Public relations research annual: Vol. 2. (pp.3-28). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Dozier, David M. (1992). The organizational roles of communications and public relations practitioners. In J.E. Grunig (Ed.), Excellence in public relations and communication management. (pp. 327-356). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Dozier, David M., & Broom, Glen M. (1993, August 12). Evolution of the managerial role in public relations practice. Paper presented to the Public Relations Division, Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication Annual Convention, Kansas City, KS.
- Dozier, David M., & Broom, Glen M. (1995). Evolution of the manager role in public relations practice. Journal of Public Relations Research, 7(1), 3-26.
- Dozier, David M., Chappo, Sharon & Sullivan, Brad (1983, August). Sex and the bottom line: Income differences among women and men in public relations. Paper presented to the public relations division, AEJMC, Corvallis, OR.
- Eilts, Catherine M. (1990). High-tech public relations, an upstart matures. Public Relations Journal. 46(2), 23-27.
- Fagenson, Ellen A. (1993). Women in management: Trends, issues and challenges in managerial diversity. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Fisher, Anne B. (1992, September). When will women get to the top? Fortune, 44-48, 52, 60.
- Fisher, Rick (1995). Tomorrow's work force - predictions, projections and implications. Public Relations Quarterly, 11, 12-15.
- Flynn, Mary Kathleen (1993, December). Growing more high-tech women. PC Magazine, 12(4), 31.
- Fryer, Bronwyn (1994, July). Sex and the super-highway. Working Woman, 19(4), 51-54, 56, 58-62.

- Fullerton, Howard (1995). Employment Outlook: 1994-2005; the 2005 Labor Force: Growing, but slowly. Monthly Labor Review, 11, 29-43.
- Gage, Amy (1996, March 17). Cracking accounting's glass ceiling. The San Jose Mercury News, p. 1PC.
- Gianatasio, David (1995, September 11). High-tech public relations revival. Adweek, 32(42), 5.
- Gonring, M. P. (1991). Communication makes employee involvement work. Public Relations Journal, 47, 39-40.
- Hill, Jane R. (1993). Women and work - Is the glass ceiling coming down? Risk Management, 40(7), 26-34.
- Hon, Linda (1995). Toward a feminist theory of public relations. Journal of Public Relations Research, 7(1), 27-88.
- Hon, Linda, Grunig, Larissa & Dozier, David M. (1992). Women in public relations: Problems and Opportunities. In Grunig, J. (Ed.), Excellence in public relations and communication management. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Hutton, J. G. (1993). Pay discrimination vs. women in PR not proven. IARC Communication World, 23(1), 16-19.
- Kador, John (1991). Hi-tech firms seek computer friendly recruits. Public Relations Journal, 47(7), 14-19, 22.
- Kalish, Barbara B. (1992). Women at work: Dismantling the glass ceiling. Management Review, 81(3), 64.
- Kaye, Judith S. (1992). Three decades of progress. Trial, 2(8), 20-21.
- Kutscher, Ronald E. (1993). Historical trends, 1950-92, and current uncertainties. Monthly Labor Review, (11), 3-10.
- Lukovitz, Karlene (1989). Women practitioners: How far, how fast? Public Relations Journal, 45(5), 15-20, 22, 34.
- Morrison, Ann M. (1987). Breaking the glass ceiling. Menlo Park, CA: Addison-Welsley.
- Naff, K. (1993). A glass ceiling found. Public Manager, 22, 39, 42.

- National center for education statistics (1993). Digest of education statistics. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Northcraft, Gregory B. & Gutek, Barbara A., (1993). Discrimination against women in management. In Ellen A. Fagenson (Ed.) , Women in management: Trends, issues and challenges in managerial diversity (pp. 219-245). Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland Press.
- Perry, Nancy J. (1992, June). If you can't join em, beat em. Fortune, 126(6), 58-59.
- Phipps, Polly A. (1986, no date). Occupational resegregation: A case study of insurance adjusters, examiners, and investigators. Paper presented at the annual meetings of the American Sociological Association, New York, NY.
- Reskin, Barbara F. (1988). Bringing the men back in: Sex differentiation and the devaluation of women's work. Gender & Society, 2, 58-81.
- Reskin, Barbara F. (1989). Occupational Resegregation. In S. Rix (Ed.) The American Woman (pp. 258-263). New York, NY: W. W. Norton & Company.
- Rogers, Everett & Larsen, Judith K. (1984). Silicon Valley Fever. New York, NY: Basic Books Inc.
- Shaeffer, Ruth Gilbert & Lynton, Edith F. (1979). Corporate experiences in improving women's job opportunities (Report no. 755). New York, NY: The Conference Board.
- Simurda, Stephen J. (1993). Five best business areas for women. Working Woman, 18(10), 30-36.
- Steele, Fritz (1982). The role of the internal consultant: Effective role-shaping for staff positions. Boston, MA: CBI Publishing Co., Inc.
- Theus, Kathryn T. (1985). Gender shifts in journalism and public relations. Public Relations Review, 11(1), 42-50.
- Tortorello, Nicholas & Wilhelm, Emily (1993). Salary Survey. Public Relations Journal, 49, 10-19.

- Toth, Elizabeth L. & Cline, Carolyn G. (1991). Public relations practitioner attitudes toward gender issues: A benchmark study. Public Relations Review, 17(2), 161-174.
- Toth, Elizabeth L. & Grunig, Larissa A. (1991). Focus group participants disagree on gender issues. Public Relations Journal, (47), 25.
- Toth, Elizabeth L. & Grunig, Larissa A. (1993). The missing story of women in public relations. Journal of Public Relations Research, 5(3), 153-175.
- Treiman, Donald J. & Hartmann, Heidi (1981). Women, work and wages. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
- U.S. Bureau of the Census (1993). Statistical abstract of the United States (113th edition). Washington, DC: Author.
- U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics (1993, January). Employment and earnings, 40(1), pp. 171-173, 195. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.
- U.S. Department of Labor (1990). Tabulations from the current population survey. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.
- U.S. Department of Labor Women's Bureau (1993). 1993 Handbook on women workers: Trends and issues. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.
- Williams, Mary (1990). Managing work-place diversity ... the wave of the '90s. IABC Communication World, 3, 16-20.
- Wolf, Ron (1993, November 22). Who's in charge here? In Silicon Valley, a woman's place is not in the boardroom. The San Jose Mercury News, p. 1F.
- Wright, Donald K. & Springstein, Jeff (1991). Gender gap narrowing. Public Relations Journal, (6), 21-23.
- Zachariasiewicz, Robert (1993). Breaking the glass ceiling. Credit World, 81(5), 21-23.

APPENDIX

June 28, 1994

TO: All survey respondents

FROM: Sheila Buntrock, Graduate Student Researcher

As a member of BMA, IABC or PRSA, you have been selected to complete the attached survey. The survey is part of a Master's thesis which is designed to survey public relations and marcom practitioners who are representing high technology agencies or corporations. If you do not currently work in the aforementioned sectors, please return the survey in the self-addressed stamped envelope provided and indicate that you are no longer in the field.

This is the third mailing of this survey that you have received. Your time and effort for participating in this survey are particularly important to this piece of research. To successfully complete this analysis, the researcher must attain a response rate of 51 percent or better therefore, your participation is necessary and of course, greatly appreciated.

Please note, the responses are strictly confidential. When analyzing data, respondents' names **will not** be associated with their responses. **Names are only utilized as a verification of those members that have or have not responded to the survey.**

For questions 1 thru 18 and 26 thru 34, all appropriate answers should be check-marked while questions 19 thru 25 should be circled. Please return your survey in the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelope no later than September 5, 1994. Dr. Kathleen Martinelli is the primary advisor for this project and can be reached at (408) 924-3285 or you can contact me directly at (408) 251-4547 should there be any questions or concerns. Once again, thank you for participating in this survey.

Sincerely,

Sheila Buntrock
Master's Candidate

Dr. Kathleen Martinelli
Associate Professor

1. Do you work for an agency or corporation?

_____ agency _____ corporation

2. How many employees does the corporation or agency in which you work employ?

___20-35 ___35-50 ___50-100 ___100-500 ___501-1000

___1001-1500 ___1500-2000 Other (please specify) _____

3. Does your employer provide on-site child care or any other benefits to assist with the child rearing process?

_____ yes _____ no

4. What is the title of your department?

_____ PR _____ Corporate Communications _____ Marketing
 _____ Marcom _____ Other (Please specify) _____

5. How many people are in your department?

a. How many are full time? Female _____ Male _____
 b. How many are part time? Female _____ Male _____

6. Into what category does your annual gross salary fall?

___0-\$25,000 _____\$25,001-\$32,000 _____\$32,001-\$39,000
 ___\$39,001-\$46,000 _____\$46,001-\$53,000 _____\$53,001-\$60,000
 ___\$60,001-\$67,000 _____\$67,001-\$74,000 _____\$74,001-\$81,000
 ___\$81,001-\$88,000 _____\$88,001-\$96,000 _____\$96,001-\$103,000
 ___\$103,001 and above

If you work for a corporation, please answer questions #7 & #8. If you work for an agency, please skip questions #7 & #8 and answer question #9.

7. What is the gender of your immediate supervisor?

_____ male _____ female

8. What is the gender of your manager?

_____ male _____ female

9. What is the gender of the manager you work most frequently with?

_____ male _____ female

10. How would you describe the salaries of the men in your organization?

_____ high _____ low _____ same

11. If less, how much less annually?

\$ _____

12. If more, how much more annually?

\$ _____

13. How would you describe the salaries of the women in your organization?

_____ high _____ low _____ same

14. If less, how much less annually?

\$ _____

15. If more, how much more annually?

\$ _____

16. If you perceive a difference (in question #10), please rank-order the following categories that you believe are contributing factors to the difference (with 1 = most important and so on.)

age _____ experience _____ education _____ role _____ gender _____

16a. If you perceive a difference (in question #13), please rank-order the following categories that you believe are contributing factors to the difference (with 1 = most important and so on.)

age _____ experience _____ education _____ role _____ gender _____

17. In your organization, what gender performs detailed and strategic tasks more frequently?

_____ male _____ female

18. In your organization, what gender partakes in decision making more frequently?

_____ male _____ female

19. Does your PR department report directly to the most senior manager in your company, corporation or agency?

_____ yes _____ no

20. If yes to question 19, is the senior manager in your company, corporation or agency

_____ male _____ female

21. Today's organizations are so complex that many of them require more than a single leader to operate effectively. Instead of a single powerful person, then, many organizations are controlled by a group of powerful people - often called the "dominant coalition". In your organization, what gender is represented in this power elite more frequently?

_____ male _____ female _____ same

22. Based on a 5 point scale (with 5 = always, 4 = most likely, 3 = sometimes, 2 = not likely, 1 = never) how often do you participate in meetings with management about:

	<u>never</u>	<u>not likely</u>	<u>some- times</u>	<u>most likely</u>	<u>always</u>
a. Adopting new policies	1	2	3	4	5
b. Discussing major problems	1	2	3	4	5
c. Adopting new procedures	1	2	3	4	5
d. Implementing new programs	1	2	3	4	5
e. Evaluating the results of programs	1	2	3	4	5

23. The following is a list of public relations functions. Please indicate (with 5 = always, 4 = most likely, 3 = sometimes, 2 = not likely and 1 = never), how often do you participate in the following activities:

	<u>never</u>	<u>not likely</u>	<u>some- times</u>	<u>most likely</u>	<u>always</u>
a. I handle the technical aspects of producing public relations materials.	1	2	3	4	5

not some- most
never likely times likely always

b. I plan and recommend courses of action for solving public relations problems.	1	2	3	4	5
c. Because of my experience and training, others consider me the organization's expert in solving public relations problems.	1	2	3	4	5
d. I keep management informed of public reactions to organizational policies, procedures and/or actions.	1	2	3	4	5
e. I produce brochures, pamphlets and other publications.	1	2	3	4	5
f. I take responsibility for the success or failure of my organization's public relations program.	1	2	3	4	5
g. I diagnose public relations problems and explain them to others in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
h. I make the communication policy decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
i. I maintain media contacts and place press releases.	1	2	3	4	5
j. I observe that others in the organization hold me accountable for the success or failure of public relations programs.	1	2	3	4	5
k. I create opportunities for management to hear the views of various internal and external publics.	1	2	3	4	5
l. I am the person who writes public relations materials presenting information on issues important to the organization.	1	2	3	4	5

not some- most
never likely times likely always

m. When working with managers on public relations, I outline alternative approaches for solving problems.

1 2 3 4 5

n. I conduct communication audits to identify communication problems between the organization and various publics.

1 2 3 4 5

o. I encourage management participation when making the important public relations decisions.

1 2 3 4 5

p. I report public opinion survey results to keep management informed of the opinions of various publics.

1 2 3 4 5

24. Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following set of statements (With 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = don't know, 2 = disagree, 1 = strongly disagree).

strongly dis- don't strongly
disagree agree know agree agree

a. Since I began working in public relations, there have been changes in the content of my work.

1 2 3 4 5

b. My responsibilities have increased.

1 2 3 4 5

c. Public relations is a respected profession.

1 2 3 4 5

d. My opportunities for advancement are limited beyond my control.

1 2 3 4 5

e. My work is routine.

1 2 3 4 5

f. At work, my responsibilities have decreased.

1 2 3 4 5

25. For the following set of statements, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree (with 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = don't know, 2 = disagree and 1 = strongly disagree).

	<u>strongly</u> <u>disagree</u>	dis- <u>agree</u>	don't <u>know</u>	<u>agree</u>	<u>strongly</u> <u>agree</u>
a. My work hours are flexible.	1	2	3	4	5
b. I am allowed to decide what services are to be rendered.	1	2	3	4	5
c. I am able to choose the way to go about my job (the procedure to utilize).	1	2	3	4	5
d. I am free to choose the method to use in carrying out my work.	1	2	3	4	5
e. I have control over the scheduling of my work.	1	2	3	4	5
f. I have some control over the sequencing of my work activities.	1	2	3	4	5
g. My job is such that I can decide when to do particular work activities.	1	2	3	4	5
h. My job allows me to emphasize some aspects of my job and play down others.	1	2	3	4	5
i. I am able to modify what my job objectives are (what I am supposed to accomplish).	1	2	3	4	5
j. I have some control over what I am supposed to accomplish. (What my supervisor sees as my objectives).	1	2	3	4	5

26. For the following set of statements, please indicate to what extent you have experienced an increase or decrease since the time you entered the public relations profession (5 = decrease, 4 = little decrease, 3 = same, 2 = little increase, 1 = increase.)

	<u>increase</u>	<u>little increase</u>	<u>same</u>	<u>little decrease</u>	<u>decrease</u>
a. My work hours are flexible.	1	2	3	4	5
b. I am allowed to decide what services are to be rendered.	1	2	3	4	5
c. I am able to choose the way to go about my job (the procedure to utilize).	1	2	3	4	5
d. I am free to choose the method to use in carrying out my work.	1	2	3	4	5
e. I have control over the scheduling of my work.	1	2	3	4	5
f. I have some control over the sequencing of my work activities.	1	2	3	4	5
g. My job is such that I can decide when to do particular work activities.	1	2	3	4	5
h. My job allows me to emphasize some aspects of my job and play down others.	1	2	3	4	5
i. I am able to modify what my job objectives are (what I am supposed to accomplish).	1	2	3	4	5
j. I have some control over what I am supposed to accomplish. (What my supervisor sees as my objectives).	1	2	3	4	5

27. Please indicate (with 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = don't know, 2 = disagree and 1 = strongly disagree) the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following set of statements.

	<u>strongly disagree</u>	<u>dis- agree</u>	<u>don't know</u>	<u>agree</u>	<u>strongly agree</u>
a. I feel rewarded in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
b. Management acknowledges my efforts.	1	2	3	4	5
c. I know my work is appreciated.	1	2	3	4	5
d. My employer pays my annual fees for my IABC, PRSA, or BMA membership.	1	2	3	4	5
e. I receive pay raises and bonuses as a reflection of my performance on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
f. I believe my job is prestigious.	1	2	3	4	5
g. My work is challenging.	1	2	3	4	5
h. My work provides opportunities for growth.	1	2	3	4	5

28. For the following set of statements, please indicate to what extent you have experienced an increase or decrease since you entered public relations (5 = decrease, 4 = little decrease, 3 = same, 2 = little increase, 1 = increase.)

	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
		<u>little increase</u>	<u>same</u>	<u>little decrease</u>	<u>decrease</u>
a. I feel rewarded in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
b. Management acknowledges my efforts.	1	2	3	4	5
c. I know my work is appreciated.	1	2	3	4	5
d. My employer pays my annual fees for my IABC, PRSA, or BMA membership.	1	2	3	4	5
e. I receive pay raises and bonuses as a reflection of my performance on the job.	1	2	3	4	5

- | | <u>increase</u> | <u>little increase</u> | <u>same</u> | <u>little decrease</u> | <u>decrease</u> |
|---|-----------------|------------------------|-------------|------------------------|-----------------|
| f. I believe my job is prestigious. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| g. My work is challenging. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| h. My work provides opportunities for growth. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
29. Name _____
30. Age _____
31. Title _____
32. What is the highest level of education you have completed?
- PhD
 Masters
 BA
 AA
 High School
33. What best describes your undergraduate major?
- Journalism
 Mass Communications
 Public Relations
 Liberal Arts/Humanities
 English
 Business
 Other (Please specify) _____
34. Which professional organization are you a member of?
- IABC
 PRSA
 BMA
35. Number of years of professional experience?
- a. In PR? _____
b. In high tech PR? _____
c. In any other field?
(Please specify) _____
36. Do you have children? If so, how many?
- yes _____ no _____ If yes, how many _____
37. Would you like to receive a one-page summary highlighting the results of this survey?
- yes _____ no _____