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FACTORS THAT AFFECT THE LEVEL OF COORIENTATION THAT EXISTS BETWEEN PUBLIC RELATIONS AND JOURNALISM EDUCATORS

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
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Thomasena Shaw
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DEDICATION

To my parents Eddie and Frances Shaw, who have always encouraged, supported and loved me no matter what I have done in life - I love you both.

And

To my best friend Brian, for believing in me when even I thought it just wasn't possible - v'dodi li.

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ABSTRACT

A complex relationship exists between journalists and public relations practitioners. Indeed, the literature indicates that despite differences in perceptions, both professions are mutually dependent and share co-operative, albeit conditional relationships. Despite practitioners' efforts to improve their industry and the quality of material they release, some journalists continue to harbor suspicions about them. A number of researchers claim that this supports the view that prejudice against public relations is not simply due to negative personal experiences with practitioners themselves, but rather it is rooted in journalism culture. In light of this claim and given that public relations curricula often operate in conjunction with journalism schools in higher education, this study explores public relations and journalism educators' attitudes towards public relations in more detail. A web-based, self-administered survey was circulated to both journalism and public relations educators, with a view to gleaning valuable responses from respondents. The research explored respondents' attitudes toward public relations in both a professional and educational setting, and whether a significant difference in the levels of coorientation (congruency, agreement and accuracy) exists between the two groups. Attribution and coorientation theories were combined to explore whether coorientational discrepancies exist between these two groups, and if so, why. It was hypothesized that the three causal dimensions of attribution (locus, stability and external controllability) would affect respondents' levels of coorientation (especially accuracy) and their subsequent attitude towards one another in predictable ways.

Ultimately, this study found that journalism educators provided stronger evidence of coorientational accuracy than their public relations counterparts. When asked to project themselves as the opposite group, journalism educators were more successful at predicting public relations educators' responses. Conversely, public relations educators were unexpectedly poor at estimating their counterparts' responses to a variety of statements that explored attitudes toward public relations in both a professional and educational context.

In relation to the two research hypotheses, it appears that if the action/event is stable, external control is low, and the locus is strongly internal, attribution can affect the level of coorientation that exists between these two groups. However, if the action/event is perceived as unstable, with strong external control and weak internal locus, attribution is not as effective at predicting the level of coorientation that exists between public relations and journalism educators.

This study's findings suggest that it is imperative that public relations educators identify and address the issues that are hindering the prospect of a relationship with their journalism counterparts based on mutual understanding, respect and trust. Expanding knowledge of the relationship that exists between public relations and journalism educators as well as how each group reacts to similar stimuli/events (i.e. improving the level of coorientation) may lead to improved effectiveness of public relations in both an educational and professional context. While "perfect communication" may not necessarily improve agreement, if both are motivated to coorient, possibilities for mutual understanding will increase. For the public relations educator the goal of *all* communication, particularly with their journalism counterparts, should be to improve accuracy, even if they essentially agree to disagree or even choose not to coorient to the same things in the same degree.

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1.0 INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

A considerable amount of professional and academic literature indicates that a complex relationship exists between journalists and public relations practitioners (Steward, 1987; Moloney, 1997; Stauber and Rampton, 1995; Ryan and Martinson, 1984, 1985; Ewen, 1997; Conn, 1997; Pomerantz, 1989; Aronoff, 1975; Jeffers, 1977; Kopenhaver, Martinson and Ryan, 1984; Beltz, Talbott and Stark, 1984; Stegall and Saunders, 1986). Indeed, the literature indicates that despite differences in perceptions of each other's roles and journalists' frustration with public relations-originated "puff," both professions are mutually dependent and share co-operative, albeit conditional relationships (Jeffers, 1977; Gieber and Johnson, 1961; Morton, 1990; Morton and Warren, 1992; Minnis and Pratt, 1995; Pomerantz, 1989). In other words, these two groups of professionals, whether either side wants to admit it or not, have a symbiotic relationship. In other words, public relations practitioners, among other things, use the media to spread powerful of word of mouth messages, which establish credibility and can help to 'engineer' favorable perceptions. On the other hand, the pre-processed news and information provided by public relations practitioners is considered by many journalists as a virtual lifeline, especially in today's competitive marketplace.

Another interesting factor that emerges in this literature is that despite practitioners' efforts to improve their industry and the quality of material they release, many journalists continue to harbor suspicions about them. A number of researchers claim that this supports the view that prejudice against public relations is not simply due to negative personal experiences with practitioners themselves, rather it is rooted in journalism culture (Cline, 1982; Dickson, 2000 Walker, 1992; Krukeberg, 1998). In light of this claim and given that public relations schools often operate in conjunction with journalism schools (Falb, 1991/2:42), the purpose of this study is to explore public relations and journalism educators' attitudes towards public relations in more detail.

1.2 Theoretical framework

1.2.1 Coorientation theory

Coorientation was chosen as one of the underlying theoretical rationales for this study because the theory rests on the assumption that a person's behavior is based on a combination of their personal construction of the world and the perception of orientations of those around them. Coorientation theory suggests methods for measuring the degree of mutual orientation of individuals, groups or organizations towards an object, or the consensus among them about an object (Pearson, 1989) - for example, whether perceptions regarding public relations are accurate, or not, as the case may be. This study will require educators to focus on answers to questions regarding how similar their beliefs and observations of public relations are, and what degree of similarity or congruence each communicator perceives the other to have with his or her own beliefs and evaluations. The utilization of the theory in this study will help the researcher to identify some underlying dilemmas and their implications for both the public relations educator and practitioner.

More specifically, the coorientation measures of agreement, congruency and accuracy will be used in conjunction with attribution theory to identify the nature of the relationship that exists between journalism and public relations educators, particularly in relation to problems and issues of mutual concern. The measures will provide the researcher and the broader public relations community with insights, which should prove useful in planning communication messages/programs/strategies aimed at correcting or improving misunderstandings or misconceptions that exist between these two groups. Indeed, since mutual understanding and accuracy are necessary conditions for more effective journalism and public relations educator interactions on a number of issues, a dramatic increase in these two variables should be every public relations professional's objective. However, given the difficulties of changing deeply held attitudes that often accompany adversarial relationships, small changes in mutual understanding and accuracy may be more realistic. But perhaps the true value of a coorientation based analysis of journalism and public relations educators' attitudes is the inclusion of data from both sides of the relationship, which the public relations practitioner/educator can then use to facilitate two-way communication and perhaps mutual adjustment of attitudes in the future.

1.2.2 Attribution theory

Attribution theory, the other theoretical perspective used in this study, is ultimately concerned with people's judgments about the causes of other people's behavior. How do we integrate conflicting evidence in forming impressions of others? How do we allocate responsibility for an action between and actor and our environment? These are just some of the questions that may arise when an observer causally interprets a given situation to arrive at an "attribution." Essentially, Jones and Nisbett (1972: ix) argue that

> The information concerns behaviour, behavioural consequences, and the circumstances under which the behaviour occurs. The attribution has the effect or result of placing this information in a cause-effect context. It provides an answer to the question: what caused the observed behaviour and its consequences?

The focus of many attributions is on situations that usually involve at least two people: one who is making a judgment about someone else's behavior (observer), and this someone else whose behaviour is being judged (actor). The observer attributes the actor's behaviour to a particular cause, and sometimes draws conclusions about the actor's attributes (his or her personal characteristics) as a consequence. To make an attribution, then, is to ascribe causal power to some characteristic of a person or object. Indeed, because many attributions go beyond the information provided to the observer, the attributor's causal interpretations may be erroneous or accurate, functional or dysfunctional.

In short, attribution theory deals with the explanations used by observers in accounting for actors' behaviour. Unlike most psychological theories that attempt to explain why actors actually behave in particular ways, attribution theory addresses the separate issue of why observers think that actors behave in the way they do. Attribution theory is therefore a theory about common-sense theories about behaviour - sometimes referred to as naïve psychology - and not a theory that is directly about behaviour itself. According to Harvey and Weary (1985), some of the basic tenets of attributional processes include the fact that attribution can occur spontaneously or may be more deliberate, inferential or deductive, and attributions may not be completely accurate.

In this study, attribution theory was employed to reveal how journalism and public relations educators view and interpret the actions and problems associated with public relations practitioners, educators, and the profession, and the extent to which their respective attributions affect the levels of coorientation that exist between these two groups. Indeed, by using a combination of attribution and coorientation theories, the goal of this study is to explore whether coorientational discrepancies exist between these two groups, and if so, why this is the case. Moreover, on the basis of results, strategies can be developed to overcome or reduce any gulf that may exist, and potentially increase the levels of accuracy and/or understanding between the groups in the future.

1.3 Structure of the dissertation

To achieve these goals, and to set the scene, the author first explored differences in the two professions' attitudes toward one another by reviewing relevant public relations and journalism literature. More specifically the review examines: i) the historical development of public relations, ii) both groups' attitudes toward the role of journalism; iii) how public relations is portrayed in journalism literature; iv) and sources of antagonism if and when it exists. This is intended to provide the reader with a snapshot of public relations as a profession, and how journalists perceive the occupation and its practitioners in general.

The views that are expressed in the academic and professional literature were assumed to reflect the views of both journalism professionals and educators alike as research indicates that approximately 83 per cent of journalism educators have had some professional experience – 36 per cent with more than ten years experience and 47 per cent with less than ten years (Medsger, 1996). Therefore, the views of journalists expressed in this literature are assumed to reflect, at least to some degree, those of journalism educators also.

In the next section of the literature review, the focus turns to journalism and public relations education literature to explore whether journalism and public relations educators share the same experiences as their professional counterparts. In particular, the development of public relations and journalism education, and the nature of their relationship in an educational context, is explored. In order to comprehend the extent to which ideological differences cause misunderstandings and/or antagonism between the two, the topic of ethics and professionalism is also examined in more detail. Finally, an overview of both coorientation and attribution theory is provided to highlight their appropriateness for this study.

1.4 Methodological considerations

This study was a web-based, self-administered survey, circulated to two groups of respondents – journalism and public relations educators. As there were considerably more journalism educators available for investigation, the study surveyed a random sample of journalism educators, selected from the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication's (AEJMC) NEWSPAPER DIVISION and RADIO/TELEVISION DIVISION and the Society of Professional Journalists' (SPJ) STUDENT CHAPTER. In addition, a census of public relations educators, selected from the PUBLIC RELATIONS DIVISION of AEJMC and the Public Relations Society of America's (PRSA) EDUCATORS ACADEMY was also surveyed to investigate both professions' attitudes toward public relations and public relations education. Statistical analyses for this study were conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). In particular, descriptive statistics, factor analysis, paired samples *t*-tests, and multivariate and repeated measures analysis of variances were used.

1.5 Implications

There can be no doubt that both journalism and public relations professionals are operating in more competitive and dynamic environments than ever before, and this is why it is imperative that public relations educators identify the issues that are hindering the prospect of an improved relationship with their journalism counterparts in the future – one that is based on mutual understanding, respect and trust. Expanding knowledge of the relationship that exists between public relations and journalism educators as well as how each group reacts to similar stimuli/events (i.e. improving the level of coorientation) will undoubtedly lead to improved effectiveness of public relations in both an educational and professional context.

Indeed, as Chaffee and McLeod (1967) argued, "perfect communication" may not necessarily improve agreement between them, but if the two groups are motivated to coorient, it can facilitate understanding. Therefore, for the public relations educator, the goal of all communication, especially with journalists, should be to improve accuracy, even if they essentially agree to disagree or even choose not to coorient to the same things to the same degree.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW: THE NATURE OF THE JOURNALIST-PUBLIC RELATIONS PRACTITIONER RELATIONSHIP

2.1 Introduction

In the first section of this chapter, the author provides a brief overview of the development of public relations in America before examining some of the differences between public relations practitioner and journalists' attitudes toward one another in both a professional and educational context that emerge in the literature. In particular, the profession's search for a universal definition is explored in order to put the role and function of the occupation into context. Next, i) attitudes toward the role of journalism; ii) how public relations as a profession is portrayed in journalism literature; and iii) sources of antagonism if and when it exists are explored. This is intended to capture how journalists perceive public relations in general. Next, literature pertaining to journalism and public relations education is reviewed in order to explore attitudes in an educational setting. Here, ideological differences, and opinions on whether journalism educators possess positive or negative attitudes toward public relations are explored, as well as the nature of their relationship in this context. To conclude, an investigation of the impact that additional factors – specifically ethics and professionalism - have on their relationship is examined in more detail.

2.2 Historical development of public relations

According to Nessman (1995), public relations developed more or less simultaneously in Europe and America during the nineteenth century. In Germany, Carl Hundhausen was the first to use the term 'PR' with its present-day meaning in 1937, but the phenomenon had been discussed much earlier than that in terms of social criticism within the European tradition. At this time the main topic of scientific analysis was the relationship between the press and public relations, especially the influence of press officers on the media and newspaper reporting. After WWII, German scholars continued to encourage discussion on public relations as it is known today, developing the concept further in theoretical and practical terms.

In America, the formal development of public relations is believed to have begun in the late nineteenth century when, according to Grunig and Hunt (1992), the first “specialists” created popular American heroes like Daniel Boone, Calamity Jane, and Wild Bill Hickock. However, in symbolic terms at least, Bernays is considered the father of modern American public relations. He not only taught generations of persuaders how to sway public opinion, whether in the service of selling a product or electing a candidate, but he was the person "who orchestrated the commercialization of a culture" (Douglas, 1995). It was also around this time that a more theoretical approach to public relations was emerging and literature was beginning to focus on press agentry and publicity (Adams, 1902; Smith, 1915), before Wright and Christian (1940) linked public relations and management. Indeed, it seems that in the early days commentators were preoccupied with publicity, and public relations was solely viewed as manipulative and one-way. However, Botan (1993) argues that in more recent decades a more interactive, reciprocal approach has emerged.

This more reciprocal, dialogic approach to public relations is largely due to the work of James E. Grunig whose contribution to public relations and the management of communication in both in America and Europe is considered immense. His first contribution towards a conceptual framework for the academic study of public relations was the definition of four models, or four typical ways of conceptualizing and practicing communications management (Grunig and Hunt, 1984). The communication models are known as press agentry, public information, two-way asymmetrical and two-way symmetrical.

In summary, press-agentry model is one-way and asymmetrical, and neither based on research nor strategic planning. Here, an organization's communication program is striving for favorable publicity, particularly in relation to the mass media. The public information model (also one-way and asymmetrical) is where "journalists in residence" are employed to disseminate relatively objective information through the mass media and controlled media (i.e. newsletters, brochures and direct mail). Grunig suggests that the two-way asymmetrical model is a more sophisticated approach to communication, using research to develop messages, which are most likely to persuade strategic publics to behave as the organization wants. Finally, the two-way symmetrical model is based on research, where communication was used to manage conflict and improve understanding with strategic publics.

But perhaps Grunig's ultimate purpose was to define, in quantifiable terms, what constitutes excellent communication and how it could be related to the public relations function. In *Excellence in Public Relations and Communications Management,* Grunig and a number of other authors (1992) defined excellent communication and public relations practice as communication that is managed strategically, meets its objectives, and balances the needs of the organization and the needs of key publics with two-way symmetrical communication.

However, despite the strategic management potential of public relations, Kitchen (1997) maintains that practitioners often fail to influence organizations' decision-making processes, and are often perceived as being unethical and unprofessional. He argues this is in part due to the lack of a universal definition of public relations, and a lack of understanding of practitioners' role and function in the organization.

2.3 In search of a definition

In terms of establishing a definition of public relations, academics, practitioners and many others have attempted to capture the essence of the discipline for many years. Both Kitchen (1997) and Carty (1995) cite Harlow's (1976) search for a definition for public relations, which yielded 472 different interpretations. More recently, Ewen (1996) documented a range of interpretations of the profession, and found they ranged from perceptions of public relations practitioners as educators and/or manipulators of symbols, to news engineers, publicity doctors, perception managers, or "the middleperson." Indeed, Hutton (1999) argues that definitions of public relations appear to have evolved in the last century from "the public be fooled" to "the public be damned" to "the public be manipulated" to "the public be informed" to "the public be accommodated or involved." Despite the lack of one universal definition of public relations, most practitioners agree that it is "planned communication." One definition of the practice that has been widely accepted (Guth and Marsh, 2000) is proposed by Cutlip, Center and Broom (1994):

> Public relations is the management function that establishes and maintains mutually beneficial relationships between an organization and the publics on whom its success or failure depends.

However, public relations is still considered by many as just another name for publicity and practitioners are viewed purely as communications technicians. Cutlip, Center and Broom (1994:10) and Kitchen (1997) argue that this is because the profession evolved from publicity, where publicists' task was to build name recognition and attract large audiences. Indeed, creating publicity and the use of news releases remain popular tactics used to achieve public relations objectives, perhaps this is why publicity and public relations are perceived as being synonymous.

Of all of the tactics available to the practitioner the news release remains the bedrock of public relations efforts (Minnis and Pratt, 1995; Sachsman 1976), and media relations continues to form a significant proportion of most public relations programs (Sheldon Greene, 1994; Wragg, 1992; and Grabowski, 1992). Schleuse estimated that in 1988, American practitioners distributed up to 2.4 million releases every week. Cutlip, Center and Broom (1994) argue that more than 40 per cent of newspaper content can be traced to material provided by public relations practitioners. Ironically, less than 20 per cent of releases received by media outlets are used in any form and most of what is selected for broadcast/publication appears in much reduced format (Sheldon Greene, 1994).

However, despite the apparent need the two professions have for one another the tension that exists between them is well documented. It appears that regardless of practitioners' efforts to improve their industry and the quality of material they release, some journalists continue to harbor suspicions about them. Many authors have attempted to explore this antagonistic / co-operative relationship, and some of the issues raised in the literature will now be discussed. First, differences in public relations practitioner and journalists' perceptions regarding their respective roles are explored, before highlighting the effect these attitudes have on their working relationship. Next, the nature of their relationship in an educational context is examined before the potential impact that ethics and professionalism have on perceptions and attitudes is addressed.

2.4 How journalists perceive their role and function

According to Hohenberg (1978:3), many journalists perceive the role of journalism as "a barometer of public attitudes and a consideration of importance in assessing social change," while McNair (1998) describes it as an index of the balance of social forces in a society. For Willard G. Bleyer, who set in motion the first program of graduate study in journalism at the University of Wisconsin in 1905, the press was a "quasi-public institution," which is "indispensable to the well-being of government and society." He also argued that members of the press are obligated to the public in three key ways: i) to provide accurate and comprehensive news; ii) to "explain and interpret" current events in order to enable the public to "form intelligent opinions;" iii) and to "guide public opinion," but only after the public had been presented with issues in an impartial manner (Bronstein and Vaughn, 1998:5).

According to Applegate (1996:37) the key functions of the media are to inform, influence, advertise and entertain. The prevalence of each varies according to the channel or media. In terms of what constitutes news or what is considered newsworthy, authors claim that various judgment and time variables of journalists, and their readers, come in to play. McNair (1998) and Mindich (1998) claim that most editors look for one or more of the following variables: accuracy and truth, interest, timeliness and newness, proximity, conflict and prominence.

2.5 Public relations practitioners' attitude toward the news media

Many commentators agree that media relations is central to the practice of effective public relations and a key part of many public relations programs (Grunig and Hunt, 1987). Good media coverage can for example, improve stakeholders' confidence, which in turn can have a positive influence on employee attitudes, and generate "free publicity."

Indeed, the benefits of unpaid-for editorial coverage for practitioners are huge. Here, effectiveness is based on the power of objective third party endorsement. Indeed, 'word-of-mouth' is a powerful means of promotion, and strategic use of media relations is like having thousands of word of mouth messages all at once. The perceived impartiality of the journalist plays a critical role in influencing readers. Here, the objective third party endorser is the editor, the reporter, the publication / broadcast and those quoted favorably in the piece.

Many authors, including Moore (1996), indicate that positive relationships with journalists can improve publication chances, and that not being open with this key audience only serves to court hostility and suspicion and is ultimately futile because the press will get the story anyway. Blohowiak (1987) argues that journalism is a tough job, and given the scarcity of economic and other resources available, practitioners should be willing to provide efficient and practical assistance to the media whenever possible.

A more extreme perspective is offered by Evans (1997) who argues that public relations practitioners should manipulate the media, and that it would be naïve to pursue a strategy of openness and honesty. Rather, a policy of partial openness and incomplete disclosure of facts is preferable.

Clearly, both professions perceive the role of journalism in very different ways. While journalists claim to provide a valuable public service untainted by commercial considerations, some of their counterparts see the press as a vehicle to target key audiences and view relationships with journalists as central to their commercial success. It is hardly surprising, therefore, that tension exists between the two. Next, research findings highlight additional reasons why journalists, and others, may have an adversarial relationship with public relations practitioners.

2.6 General criticisms directed at public relations

Dibb, Simkin and Vancini (1996) argue that given the solid performance being delivered by many public relations agencies in recent years it is paradoxical that public relations is still perceived by some as an activity with "an unpleasant odor attached" (Moloney, 1997:138). Indeed, stereotypes such as this one can contribute to the negative impressions that some audiences have towards the profession.

These negative views are also perpetuated in books such as Stauber and Rampton's (1995) *Toxic Sludge is Good for You: Lies, Damn Lies and the Public Relations Industry.* This book presents a number of examples of wrongdoing by public relations practitioners in America and claims to blow "the lid off the propaganda-for-hire industry," which they claim to be "designed to alter perception, reshape reality and manufacture consent." Will Fantle, reviewing the book, argues that it provides a

> Startling portrait of the poisoning of the American democratic process by the nation's professional spin doctor [and] exposes the bare knuckled, invisible hand guiding and shaping of public relations (The Progressive, 12/95).

Indeed, there can be no doubt that for some at least, public relations has a credibility problem. Ryan and Martinson (1985) indicate that practitioners are criticized for their failure to act in the public interest. This view is further reinforced by anecdotal evidence that suggests that practitioners believe that they "must act unethically to represent clients adequately" (Finn, 1959), and should manipulate the media in order to accomplish objectives (Evans, 1987). Interestingly, the author of a book entitled *PR! A Social History* *of Spin*, which "uncovers the history behind one of contemporary America's most influential and cabalistic forces," acknowledges that

> For democracy to work in an age of spin, the public must also be informed and wary of the ways that a priesthood of influence routinely packages "reality" – and affects the way that the media cover that reality – to serve the purposes of vested interests (Ewen, 1997).

Comments such as this, though uncommon in public relations literature, combined with publicity about the deceptive practices of some groups and organizations, serve to raise doubts about practitioners' commitment to serving the public. However, Ryan and Martinson's research was rather more optimistic, indicating that the profession has become increasingly professional and concerned with the best interests of the public. However, failure to control those practitioners, however small in number, who care little for public interest will have long-term negative consequences for the profession.

2.7 Empirical evidence of journalists' antagonism toward public relations practitioners

Ryan and Martinson (1984:131) argue that an antagonistic relationship between journalists and practitioners has existed almost as long as both professions have. Practitioners are perceived as "generally trying to cover up or put spins on the things they don't cover up" (Conn, 1997). Indeed, Pomerantz (1989) argues that some regularly hinder media access to clients, often propose inappropriate story ideas that reflect their ignorance of editorial content, and generally harass journalists with unnecessary phonecalls. This and other behavior can only serve to fuel negative perceptions and cynical attitudes about the profession.

Empirical research supports anecdotal evidence that many journalists do not hold practitioners in high esteem. Aronoff reported in 1975 that while many journalists saw public relations as an important part of the process of getting news to the public, they also associated it with unacceptable practices. He noted that Texas journalists' attitudes towards the profession differed substantially and negatively from the attitudes held by practitioners towards themselves. His systematic survey indicated that journalists viewed public relations practitioners as low in source credibility; attributed news values to practitioners that were directly opposite to those of journalists; and held practitioners in low occupational esteem.

Jeffers (1977) borrowed themes from Aronoff's work and documented similar conclusions. He attempted to determine attitudes and expectations of journalists and public relations practitioners toward one another. He found that journalists did not have great respect for public relations practitioners, viewing them as "obstructionists" who prevent journalists from obtaining the truth, presenting only the good side of the story. Journalists also considered themselves superior to practitioners in status, ethical, and skill terms. However, Jeffers also remarked that their relationship could be considered a "co-operative" one, although practitioners believed this to a greater extent than journalists. Interestingly, many journalists viewed practitioners they had regular contact with as status equals.

Kopenhaver, Martinson and Ryan (1984) concluded that a sample of Florida editors viewed public relations much more negatively than a sample of practitioners did. However, the two groups were in agreement about news values. This finding will seem a virtue to most journalists who would argue that it is wise to be skeptical about news sources whose job is to promote a special interest. But if the two groups do share common opinions about news, they believe some journalists may need to re-think their attitudes towards the role of public relations and view practitioners as important helpers in the news-dissemination process.

Also in 1984, Beltz, Talbott and Stark argued that both groups perceived journalists in fairly traditional terms. However, journalists and practitioners differed sharply over their patterns of perception of the public relations role, and practitioners believed their relationships with journalists to be more positive than those relationships actually were. Journalists also perceived the role of public relations as involving tendencies in the areas of ethical compromise, hidden agendas, aggressiveness, advocacy and withholding information. They also differed on issues of accuracy, honesty, objectivity, fairness and the inviolability of one's own conscience.

In summary, research indicates that some journalists do not have great respect for practitioners and routinely failed to accurately predict their views. However, there is evidence to suggest that these two groups also enjoy a more co-operative relationship at times.

2.8 Evidence of cooperative relationship

Both Jeffers (1977) and Gieber and Johnson (1961) argue that despite the obvious differences between the two, they enjoy a "promotively interdependent (co-operative) relationship."

Several other studies appear to reinforce this view including Morton's (1985) research that found that weekly newspapers published 9 per cent of all releases received while bi-weeklies published 21.6 per cent. Morton and Warren (1992) found that the acceptance rate of hometown releases was 32.2 per cent, much higher than the 28.8 per cent acceptance rate for releases in general. Therefore, Minnis and Pratt (1995) argue, it is valid to infer that:

> Perhaps journalists aren't the autonomous agents who regurgitate facts and the opinions of their sources, analyze events and make decisions based purely on independent objective criteria (1995:14).

Indeed, as Pomerantz (1989) argues, although the news media routinely accept releases and other material from practitioners, these gratuitous offerings can also be the source of resentment among journalists who feel it implies a failing or deficiency on their behalf. Some other reasons and/or sources of tension are now discussed.

2.9 Sources of antagonism and/or misunderstanding

Stegall and Saunders' (1986) study successfully broadened the search for a more complete explanation of journalists' antagonism towards public relations. The authors speculated that practitioners do not communicate their goals and expectations to journalists and concluded that new ways needed to be found to improve understanding between the two professions in order to promote more co-operative relationships.

Another source of resentment and suspicion is, according to Pomerantz (1989), rooted in journalists' awareness that there is a direct connection between a news release, for instance, and financial rewards to the public relations practitioner and his/her client. He argues that practitioners who openly flaunt their successes further exacerbate such feelings, and this reinforces the perception that they are being manipulated and used. Journalists often fail to acknowledge the support they have received from public relations practitioners, and associate such help as "collusion," and damaging to their professionalism and integrity (Pomerantz, 1989). [This issue is discussed in more detail later in the chapter (see sections 2.13 – 2.17).]

These findings have important implications for the profession and its educators. It would appear that new ways need to be found to enhance understanding between the two groups. This is especially true in light of findings revealed in other studies that suggest that despite the antagonism, practitioners and journalists enjoy cooperative relationships.

In the next section the nature of the relationship between journalism and public relations educators in an educational setting is explored to see if evidence of antagonism or cooperation exists in this context. However, before the relevant literature is reviewed a brief history of the development of public relations education, apropos of journalism programs, is addressed.

2.10 The development of public relations education in America

Dickson (2000) claims that the growth of advertising and public relations with journalism education "occurred somewhat by happenstance." Rogers (1999) states that in the 1950s and 1960s the paradigm for communication study led to the establishment of several university-based academic units of study. In some cases a new academic unit called *Communication* was created, but in most cases the new paradigm was grafted onto pre-existing speech or journalism departments. However, this strategy was resisted by some journalism scholars who believed that their professional emphasis would be threatened by incoming faculty members with Ph.D. degrees in Communication (Rogers and Chaffee, 1983). Before long, schools of journalism became schools of journalism and mass communication. Gibson (1987) states that the founding fathers of public relations were themselves graduates of journalism departments and that is why these two fields have traditionally been affiliated with one another. He also notes that the union of journalism and mass communication, and more specifically public relations, has not always been a happy one.

In 1969 the Public Relations Society of America (PRSA) began to charter student chapters at colleges and universities. By 1975 the first Commission on Public Relations Education was formed by PRSA to develop guidelines for public relations education, and the first formal report dedicated to the topic, *A Design for Public Relations Education*, was published (Bateman and Cutlip, 1975). Another noteworthy contribution was the International Public Relations Association's (IPRA) task force Gold Paper on public relations education (Sjoberg, 1982). More recently, participants of the National

Communication Association's (NCA) 1998 summer conference, and reports prepared by The Commission on Public Relations Education (1999), and the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (2001), assert that a reconceptualization and reorganization of journalism and public relations education is underway.

2.10.1 The nature of public relations education today

In 1998, the NCA Summer Conference was dedicated to developing new goals, curriculum, pedagogical techniques and assessment tools to help prepare public relations education for the challenges it would face in the new millennium. Just one of the many interesting issues that emerged was the concern that since the 1980s, public relations professional education had become dysfunctionally fragmented with several disciplines and increasing numbers of institutions providing public relations education. In response to these concerns, Kruckeberg and Paluszek (1999) argued the mission of the Commission on Public Relations Education (CPRE) should be to ensure that all educators agree on one key point, that to achieve the highest quality and most relevant public relations education, all communication must be predicated on sound research and two-way symmetrical dialogue.

The CPRE subsequently issued a report in October 1999, entitled *Public Relations Education for the 21st Century: A Port of Entry,* claiming that "public relations has come of age, and with that has come a critical need for broad-based education that is relevant and connected to the practice." The Report conceded that since the last Commission

Report was published in 1987, changes in public relations practice have been "numerous and profound." Just some of the changes that have occurred include "a broad acceptance of the validity of modern public relations practice," and the fact that membership in established and new professional organizations and trade associations has increased significantly." However, despite advancements, the report indicates that the profession's next "crisis" is ensuring that there are enough trained personnel to meet the expanding demand for public relations services and counsel. Furthermore, Commission members argue that that for a profession to gain its identity it must make the university its port of entry, that graduates of the academy must be well versed in public relations theory and practice. They must "Understand the inherent connection between public relations and management, sociology and the many other pillars of modern society." The main purpose of the report, therefore, is to determine curricular guidelines and recommendations that would prepare public relations students for the professional challenges of the 21st century, addressing the appropriate teaching methods, faculty credentials and resources to deliver these learning outcomes.

According to the AEJMC Report, entitled *Journalism and Mass Communication Education: 2001 and Beyond*, all mass communication programs will have to deal with issues such as convergence, and therefore a re-conceptualization and re-organization of traditional approaches and curricula is needed. In particular, cross-media journalism and mass communication education will replace the traditional "media-specific" approach, which promises to have immense implications for both journalism and public relations education. The report highlights the fact that the globalization of business and the rapid rise of the Internet have effectively shifted the gatekeeper function from the sender to the receiver in the communications model.

Indeed, according to Stacks, Botan and Turk (1999), the 1990s have seen exceptional growth and change in public relations practice and education. Indeed, while public relations programs are increasingly located in other disciplines and schools, many are still located in journalism schools. However, Dickson (2000) argues that despite progress, public relations as a discipline has traditionally felt unwelcome in journalism schools, made to feel like "orphans or outcasts." This, to some extent at least, could be due to some journalism educators' assertions that their discipline has a different focus than public relations and advertising, and should, therefore, have a separate identity. Next, these and some other sources of tension are elaborated in more detail.

2.10.2 The objectives of journalism education

In terms of the objectives of journalism education, in the early 1900s Willard Bleyer argued that reporters require a broader education than members of other professions, require critical thinking skills, and believed that programs should teach "students to evaluate the news... from everywhere" (Bronstein and Vaughn, 1998:6). Bleyer did not make a strong distinction between theory and professional practice; rather, he believed that professional training should be coupled with an informed and critical intellect, and a sense of social responsibility. Reese (1999) argues that the ultimate objective of journalism education should be to improve the practice of journalism by not only training skilled practitioners, but also teaching how journalism "impinges on other areas of public life and illustrates critical social issues." In order to preserve its value, journalism must therefore implement an "intellectually independent integration of theory and practice, supporting not just a media labor-pyramid, but also a press-literate public."

Indeed, "As a hybrid, interdisciplinary mix of the humanities and the social sciences, journalism education lies somewhere between professional and academic in its outlook." According to Reese, this has always been a bone of contention for educators and professionals. He argues that professional journalists believe that the primary focus of journalism programs should be the training role, rather than on academic theory or research perspectives. In recent years this conflict between professionals and educators has become public with a number of high-profile advocacy groups claiming that journalism is in crisis and, among other things, challenges journalism's disciplinary location.

2.11 Evidence of negative attitudes toward public relations in journalism education literature

Obviously, the debate regarding whether journalism and other media-related sub-fields like public relations belong in the same department or school is not recent. Many journalists and public relations practitioners have suggested that public relations should not be affiliated with journalism programs. Indeed, many journalism educators talk about disassociating themselves from other media sub-fields, bothered by any association with programs that prepare students for professions whose goals don't seem to be "as lofty as those of the profession of journalism." Though probably a more extreme perspective, Falb provides an interesting quotation from an article by Howard Ziff, a journalism administrator, who said that he perceived public relations people as

> The natural enemies of journalists, the Lorelei luring them onto the rocks. ...I still believed journalists to be superior beings...that I was offering public relations students an incomparable opportunity to improve themselves by rubbing shoulders with their betters.

Another example of how educators perceive public relations is presented by Cline (1982) who argues that at least some of the negative attitudes toward public relations stem from the educational process and in particular, the undergraduate textbooks they have read. Her analysis of introductory mass communication texts found that most were biased against the public relations profession, and ignorant of its history and major issues. For example, one textbook defined public relations as "dangerous" and claimed that, while publicists don't lie, often

> telling half the truth is an integral part of their business, and stretching the truth is not uncommon. Moreover, they do it in secret; their work does not carry the unspoken *caveat emptor* of paid advertising (Sandman, Rubin and Sachsman, 1976).

Another textbook maintains,

> The very term 'public relations counselor' suggests the status-seeking that led undertakers to call themselves morticians, janitors to call themselves maintenance engineers, and garbage collectors to call themselves sanitary hauliers (Brown, Brown and Rivers, 1978).

Such textbooks, argues Cline, can only serve to perpetuate any antagonism that exists between the two professions. Indeed, if practitioners continue to allow this propaganda to go unchecked "we must resign ourselves to another generation which views public relations as less than ethical, less professional but better paying than journalism."

Walker (1992) claims that many public relations sequences find themselves in a "Mother, may I?" environment where curriculum and other decisions are made by a predominantly news-oriented faculty, who fail to see public relations beyond its media relations function. Dickson also claims that some journalism educators seem to object to their students having the option of taking courses in other media-related sub-fields.

The Freedom Forum's *Winds of Change: Challenges Facing Journalism Education* (Medsger, 1996) is an example of a foundation-funded report, which is critical of the trend toward generic communication programs. The report asserts that programs that offer public relations and advertising courses as well as journalism undercut the true value of the latter. Medsger claims that journalism education should disassociate from advertising and public relations programs as these graduates serve as "representatives of special interests." In another section of the report it is proposed that an integrated curriculum (of journalism, broadcasting, advertising, public relations and speech) could enable educators to think about what all communication practice has in common.

Reece (1999) argues that one cannot understand why professionals and educators are so concerned about the integrity of the discipline without also understanding bigger changes in the corporate media world. He claims that journalism in contemporary society is primarily an amalgamation of concentrated commercial interests, which causes public unease because an overly synergistic media ultimately threatens its credibility. As the lines between entertainment and news are blurred, the increasingly conglomerate face of journalism will threaten the legitimacy of the discipline. The prestige and credibility of the news media will disappear and be replaced by accusations of bias and subjectivity. Indeed, educators are concerned that their association with public relations in universities does little to allay public concerns about the integrity and core values of the discipline.

Some of the antagonism directed toward practitioners might just be part of the natural ferment that occurs within all disciplines. Carey (2000), recounting his experiences of journalism education in the 1950s, asserts that Pulitzer believed that a university education for journalists would "domesticate this unruly class, turn them into disciplined workers and end their flirtation with socialism and trade unions." He states that in the early days, journalism faculty had little background in higher education and "were ill-at-ease in the foreign and generally hostile environment of the academy." The first journalism educators had effectively been ousted from the English Department and "sought in ethics, history, and law a justification for teaching a vernacular craft." Carey also argues that the humanities have traditionally had disdain for journalism, perceiving it as "part of the vernacular, the vulgate… The natural estrangement of journalism from the academy was compounded by the natural snobbism of the humanities."

It would appear that, for public relations, history is repeating itself to some extent at least. Take the University of Maryland as a case in point. In 1998 the university elected to phase out its advertising program (a budget-related decision) and the College of

Journalism also opted to eliminate public relations from its course offerings. In an interview to the *New York Times*, Reese Cleghorn, the dean of the school of journalism at the university argued that it is a journalist's "mission to tell the truth," and "not to sell something…it's to find out and disseminate the truth in a responsible manner" (Andrews, 1998). Subsequently, the public relations program, which accounted for 32 per cent of the college's majors, relocated to the College of Communication at the College of Arts and Humanities. Indeed, Dickson notes, "The movement toward fragmentation of media education by jettisoning advertising and/or public relations has gained momentum."

However, according to Bovet (1992), most journalism schools have not parted company with public relations because its students have become "cash cows" for the programs that house them. Having said that, Becker *et al* (2001) found that the number of public relations students enrolled in America in 2000 was 20,940, about 3 per cent lower than in 1988. In terms of journalism enrollments, in 2000 there were 41,492 students enrolled in the traditional areas of journalism study. Indeed, the percentage of students in journalism continued to be larger than the percentage in public relations or advertising or the two added together.

Meanwhile Fitch-Hauser and Neff (1997) claim that while the idea of an independent department of public relations has not gained momentum, speech communication departments are increasingly becoming the umbrella field for public relations education. On the other hand, many public relations education commentators argue that historic uncertainty about the role and function of public relations has meant that practitioners and educators are unduly timid about staking out their territory. Kruckeberg (1998) claims that public relations education can no longer afford to be relegated as a subset of journalism and mass communication. Furthermore, it should not be categorized as "mass media"; a subset of speech/communication; co-opted by the social and behavioral sciences; or subsumed into business. Rather, the discipline should be examined from its own perspective in a professional school dedicated to public relations.

It appears that that there are at least some journalism educators and professionals who perceive any contact with public relations as negative, and perhaps a threat to the legitimacy and integrity of their department and/or an independent press. As journalism finds itself, to some extent at least, under fire by those critical of i) a blurring of the lines between entertainment and news and ii) the threat of trends toward commercial media ownership and control patterns, it is conceivable that they will search for "scapegoats." According to some, increasingly, blame is being pointed in the direction of the public relations professional, and other media-related disciples, who are perceived as being driven by commercial and profit motives, rather than public good.

2.12 Evidence of positive attitudes toward public relations in education literature

Despite these examples of how journalism educators' perceive public relations in a negative light, many educators are excited by the possibilities that an integrated curriculum present, and embrace journalism's relationship with public relations. Indeed, many commentators acknowledge the challenges that an increasingly dynamic marketplace presents and suggest that journalism could learn a lot from their media-related counterparts. While not embracing the term "generic curriculum," where journalism is integrated with all media-related sub-fields, Dickson argues that partial integration with closely related sub-fields is a more appropriate approach. He disagrees with suggestions that journalism should disassociate itself from the broader academic study of the mass media and communication. Just because journalism education is a distinct sub-field to public relations and advertising should not preclude students from taking classes from the other.

Carter (1995) also favors the notion of an interdisciplinary approach to journalism education as an opportunity to achieve a constructive, scientific foundation to the study of journalism. Griffiths (1996) argues that fretting about the blurring of distinctions between journalism and public relations is a waste of time. He argues that educators should welcome the chance to influence future public relations practitioners, "without whom it would be difficult if not impossible for our up-and-coming reporters to penetrate public and private bureaucracies." Indeed, journalism education literature contains numerous examples of journalism educators' desire to maintain its link with public relations and other media-related sub-fields.

The literature presents evidence that antagonism and cooperation does exist between these two professions in the workplace and in an educational setting. However, the criticisms levelled at both public relations and journalism sheds only partial light on why tension has traditionally existed between these two groups. Indeed, an important theme that emerges in the literature is that much of the tension is, to some degree, rooted in concerns over the ethics and professionalism of public relations practitioners. It would appear that if public relations is to be accepted as a legitimate profession by society - and journalists – further exploration of its ethical and professional obligations and the fundamental ideological differences that exist between these two occupations is needed at this juncture.

2.13 The role of ethics

As discussed briefly earlier in this chapter, the primary function of public relations is ideologically different from journalism. While journalism as a discipline and practice focuses on the concept of objectivity, public relations practitioners are advocates, which may explain why their relationship has tended to be an adversarial one. This does not mean that practitioners are not as ethical as journalists, it is just that their functions are very different. Hunt and Tripok (1993) summarize the ideological gulf that exists between the two.

> While journalists lay out information for the public and let the individual decide what the information means, public relations practitioners must take on an amount of advocacy for the organization that will have an effect, either positive or negative, on that organization's societal image. When this practice confronts the journalistic ethical ideals, a clash of beliefs occurs. Practitioners must, therefore, adopt a different standard for public relations than journalism.

McElreath (1993) suggests that ethics can be defined as "The set of criteria by which decisions are made about what is right or wrong," while Andrews (1990) argues that "we take the ethics of any group to be a set of behaviors that are judged to be acceptable when measured against some prevailing code of conduct." Essentially, ethics are inextricably bound with credibility, and probably one of the most common ways to maintain public credibility is the creation and display of professional codes of ethics (Hunt and Tripok, 1993). However, Leeper (1996) claims that while codes do exist, not all practitioners interpret the application of the codes identically. Winkleman (1987) argues that ethics are crucial for public relations because they ultimately benefit the profession and "are good for business." Empirical evidence would also suggest that practitioners who base their decision-making and recommendations to management on ethical principles and social responsibility are more likely to have a greater role in management decisions and activities, and enjoy more positive relationships with various publics.

2.14 Public relations practitioners' ethics

According to Pratt (1991), however, an examination of the empirical literature on public relations ethics indicates serious doubts about the ethics of public relations practice. According to Pearson (1989b), as early as 1965 the tension regarding the boundary between client interests and public or audience interests was a site of moral tension in public relations. Sullivan (1965) and Culbertson (1973) both wrestled with the apparent conflict between partisan and mutual interests, but empirical academic investigation into the ethics of public relations practitioners did not occur until the mid 1980s. Pratt (1991) claims that it wasn't until Ryan and Martinson explored the subjectivism theory of public relations ethics in 1984 that the topic received credible attention in an academic context.

Ryan and Martinson concluded that practitioners responded differently to similar ethical situations, suggesting the presence of subjectivism as the dominant moral-ethical theory in public relations and an absence of specific guidelines about acceptable or unacceptable behaviors. Later, Judd (1989) found that none of the practitioners he surveyed assigned very high marks to the honesty and ethical standards of their colleagues. Respondents also ranked the honesty and ethical standards of practitioners fifth – after those of clergymen, TV reporters or commentators, journalists, and business executives. Pratt (1991) also conducted a survey to examine the reported ethical beliefs and behaviors of practitioners (members of the Public Relations Society of America) and compared their beliefs to those of their peers and top management. He found that the beliefs of top management were perceived as being more ethical than those of both practitioners and peers, but top management were perceived as less likely to take disciplinary action against unethical behaviors.

Pratt (1991) argues that empirical evidence underscores i) the notion that ethics are an important issue that practitioners confront and ii) suggests that practitioners cannot ignore public evaluation of their professional ethics. Ethics are obviously considered essential to the development of public relations as a 'profession.' Bivins (1993) asserts that if the practice of public relations is to be accepted as a legitimate profession by society (and journalists), clarification of its ethical obligations is vital. The literature also reveals that any discussion of ethics within a public relations context inevitably results in discussions of professional codes and professionalism.

2.15 Public relations practitioner and journalists' professional codes of ethics

According to Bivins (1993), public relations largely emerged as a counterpart to journalism, "a method by which every citizen – corporate, governmental, or otherwise – has access to the same right of expression," and perhaps this is why some perceive that journalism's standards can be applied to public relations. However, despite using similar tactics, their values and standards are more different then may be assumed at first glance.

2.15.1 Journalists' code of ethics

The four largest American journalistic organizations that have written codes of ethics are the Radio-TV News Directors Association, the American Society of Newspaper Editors, the Associated Press Managing Editors, and the Society of Professional Journalists (SPJ). Indeed, while there are a number of professional codes of ethics for the average journalist to choose from, the SPJ's code of ethics was selected for further examination in this study. The SPJ claims to be the nation's most broad-based journalism organization "dedicated to encouraging the free practice of journalism and stimulating high standards of ethical behavior." The organization has more than 9,000 members nationwide and the stated purpose of the ethics committee is to:

> Encourage the use of the Society's Code of Ethics, which promotes the highest professional standards for journalists of all disciplines. Public concerns are often answered by this committee. It also acts as a spotter for reporting trends in the nation, accumulating case studies of jobs well done under trying circumstances (www.spj.com, 2002).

The SPJ's code of ethics (Appendix 1) outlines and explains the mainstream professional view of what are currently considered to be the acceptable norms of behavior for reporters, photographers, editors and other journalists working in America. The code starts with a preamble that provides the reader with a clear sense of whom the professional journalists say they owe their primary allegiance and what they see as their over-riding purpose.

> Members of the Society of Professional Journalists believe that public enlightenment is the forerunner of justice and the foundation of democracy. The duty of the journalist is to further those ends by seeking truth and providing a fair and comprehensive account of events and issues. Conscientious journalists from all media and specialties strive to serve the public with thoroughness and honesty. Professional integrity is the cornerstone of a journalist's credibility. Members of the Society share a dedication to ethical behavior and adopt this code to declare the Society's principles and standards of practice.

Next, the values journalists say they espouse are documented in more detail. To summarize, their key values are i) *Seek truth and report it:* journalists should be honest, fair and courageous in gathering, reporting and interpreting information; ii) *Minimize harm:* ethical journalists should treat sources, subjects and colleagues as human beings deserving of respect; iii) *Act Independently:* journalists should be free of obligation to any interest other than the public's right to know; and iv) *Be accountable:* journalists are accountable to their readers, listeners, viewers and each other. It is very clear to the reader that the needs and interests of the public always come first. They even come before the needs and interests of the journalists' employers.

2.15.2 Public relations practitioners' professional code

Again, more than one code of ethics relates to public relations practitioners in America (some notable codes include those produced by the International Association of Business

Communicators and the International Public Relations Association), but the clearest evidence of the difference between journalism and public relations' standards and values is found by comparing the SPJ Code with the Public Relations Society of America's (PRSA) Code of Professional Ethics. PRSA is a professional association with more than 20,000 members whose vision is "to unify, strengthen and advance the profession of public relations... build[s] value, demand and global understanding for public relations." PRSA is widely credited with taking the lead in establishing a clear standard by creating an ethical code for the occupation, which was designed to meet three key needs: i) its members would have behavioral guidelines, ii) management would have a clear understanding of standards, and iii) professionals in public relations would "be distinguished from shady promoters" (Wilcox, Ault and Agee, 1995). The Code was first adopted in 1950 and has been revised on several occasions since that time – most recently in October 2000.

The preamble to the code states that:

> The Public Relations Society of America (PRSA) is committed to ethical practices. The level of public trust PRSA members seek, as we serve the public good, means we have taken on a special obligation to operate ethically.
>
> The value of member reputation depends upon the ethical conduct of everyone affiliated with the Public Relations Society of America. Each of us sets an example for each other - as well as other professionals - by our pursuit of excellence with powerful standards of performance, professionalism, and ethical conduct.

The PRSA *Member Statement of Professional Values* is also of interest as it "presents the core values of PRSA members and, more broadly, of the public relations profession," presumably in order of importance (Appendix 2). The first value of public relations is advocacy for the client/employer, which is conducted responsibly and in the public interest. Other key values include honesty, expertise, independence, loyalty, and fairness. In particular, this section acknowledges a dual responsibility to the client and the public or democratic process. In addition to the "key values" the code also includes six core provisions. They are i) *Free flow of information*: intended to maintain the integrity of relationships with the media, government officials, and the public, and aid informed decision-making; ii) *Competition*: to promote respect and fair competition among public relations professionals, and serve the public interest by providing the widest choice of practitioner options; iii) *Disclosure of information*: intended to build trust with the public by revealing all information needed for responsible decision making; iv) *Safeguarding confidences*: to protect the privacy rights of clients, organizations, and individuals by safeguarding confidential information; v) *Conflicts of interest*: to earn trust and mutual respect with clients or employers, and build trust with the public by avoiding or ending situations that put one's personal or professional interests in conflict with society's interests; and vi) *Enhancing the profession*: to build respect and credibility with the public for the profession of public relations, and to improve, adapt and expand professional practices.

However, the PRSA Code of Ethics contains no enforcement provision (nor does the SPJ Code) but does include a pledge, which requires members to commit to truth, accuracy, the public and education, but here there is no mention of any obligation to the client.

2.16 Analysis of the professional codes

Prior to the publication of the aforementioned updated Code of Ethics, which was approved in October 2000, critics had challenged how the concept of public interest was dealt with in the previous version, adopted in 1988. Parkinson (2001) argued that although public relations practitioners were often confronted by conflicts between their obligations to free and honest public communication and their clients' interest, the 1988 PRSA code provided no real guidance on how to deal with these conflicts. He argues that this code implied that if such a conflict of interest did occur, the practitioner may ignore their professional obligations and honor a sense of personal ethics or defer to the "public interest," which led him to assert that the Code "is more about image than professionalism or ethics." Bivins (1993) agrees, and asserted that the ambiguity of the wording "public interest" provides members with no concrete guidelines about how to *actually* serve public interest. Ultimately, practitioners were "left to ponder the complexities of an obligation of service in the public interest while carrying out, what many consider to be, the primary obligation of service to the client." However, the latest version of the PRSA Code has attempted to address the issue of public interest. While the 1988 code simply stated that "A member shall conduct his or her professional life in accord with the public interest," the 2000 version provides more elaboration on how a professional can actually serve the public interest – "We serve the public interest by acting as responsible advocates for those we represent. We provide a voice in the marketplace of ideas, facts, and viewpoints to aid informed public debate."

Both organizations appear to be in agreement about the importance and value they attach to concepts such as truth, accuracy, fairness, human rights, freedom of speech, and democratic principles. However, despite the professed similarities, it becomes obvious that fundamental differences exist with regard to whom they represent and whose welfare they serve.

In particular, it is clear that journalism is meant to serve the general public, at least in theory, and journalists are expected to act in the public interest even if such actions would have detrimental effects on their employers. On the other hand, public relations is primarily focused on serving the needs of a specific organization/client by building relationships that help the organization/client achieve its goals. However, public relations practitioners who pursue these objectives are not expected to engage in any actions that would have a detrimental effect on the general public. Indeed, Cutlip, Center and Broom (2000) assert that some of the "social positives" of public relations are that it: i) "improves the conduct of organizations by stressing the need for public approval"; ii) "serves the public interest by making all points of view articulate in the public forum"; and serves a "segmented, scattered society by using communication and mediation to replace misinformation with information."

However, Leeper (1996) argues that while the professional organizations help to define ethical public relations, and help define practitioners' responsibility to act in the public interest, those outside the profession (including the general public and journalists) may not even be aware of what standards for professional conduct actually exist within public relations. Indeed, Andrews argues that "the precise meaning and application of these codes are subject to wide varieties of interpretation and emphasis," which can also change over time. Furthermore, Meyer (1987) is critical of written codes that simply list obvious values and offer little help in making decisions, and Kultgen (1988) suggests that professional codes are simply public relations pieces furthering a professional ideology. Wright (1989) argues that voluntary ethics codes are largely ineffective because there is no enforcement mechanism and the codes are only as good as those who subscribe to them. It is also worth mentioning that not every individual who practices public relations belongs to PRSA and this is an obvious drawback to enforcing the code. In addition, violation of the code does not threaten one's career, as PRSA is a voluntary organization and practitioners do not need a license to practice their vocation. PRSA does have a mechanism for reporting infractions of the ethics code (a hearing that can lead to censure), but an individual can simply resign from the association and continue to practice. Journalism's professional organization also does not have an enforcement mechanism for its code, but like their public relations counterparts aims to encourage adherence to principles through education.

2.17 Improving the credibility of the codes and public relations as a profession

Huang (2001) argues that all of these issues are among the reasons why public relations is not recognized by many as a mature profession, or as Rentner (1988) claims, falls short of its aspiration toward professionalism. He argues that enforcement of business and professional ethical codes is a prerequisite to achieving professionalism and concurs with Wylie's (1994) assertion that public relations needs to take "orderly, established steps to become an acknowledged profession." Indeed, "Striving toward full professionalization seems to be perceived as an important method of improving professional ethics – and social respect" (Pratt, 1991).

One suggestion to achieve this goal is the establishment of a universal code of ethics, and/or that provision should be made for the enforcement of ethical codes. According to Hunt and Tirpok (1993), a universal ethics code could help "promote unity among the community of communications professionals by providing a starting point for communicators to work." While accepting that considerable resistance exists to the idea of an ethics code, they argue "To give up on the idea of a universal ethics code is to concede to the public their view that we *accept* a lack of ethics as the norm for professional communicators." Ultimately, a universal code would need to be generic enough to cover the behaviors that involve all communications professionals, including journalists and public relations practitioners. However, it could be argued that this would further blur the distinction between public relations and journalism to an uninformed public, a prospect that would be "disquieting" to journalists (Hunt and Tripok, 1993).

Critics of enforcing the code also argue that the voluntary nature of the codes and the lack of any mechanisms to ensure compliance are major stumbling blocks. However, Huang argues that these issues could be addressed through, among other things, accreditation and licensure.

2.17.1 Public relations accreditation and licensing

The debate surrounding accreditation and licensing raises important questions such as: Should practitioners be licensed? Does accreditation constitute a sufficient guarantee of talent and integrity? Bernays spent many years trying to have the vocation of public relations licensed, elevating it, in his words, "to the level of a profession." The bill he introduced in 1992 to establish registration and licensing in 1992 did not pass; yet the controversy over licensing continues. Those who are in favor of licensing argue that no legal standard for public relations practitioners currently exists. Anyone can hang up a shingle as a public relations practitioner and many often do.

Essentially, this status quo produces two victims: i) clients or employers of public relations practitioners who usually have no standard by which to measure qualifications and ii) qualified practitioners whose positions are demeaned by those lacking the experience, education, skills and integrity that true professionals have long labored to attain. Equally important, the public interest is poorly served when those who heavily influence the channels of communication and action in a media-dominated society are inept or worse.

However, there are those who argue that licensing public relations would be an infringement of First Amendment rights, that too much emphasis would be placed on education, and that licensing would be a State function, which would cause problems for practitioners who work internationally. This topic is controversial in America where licensing and registration are viewed with universal disdain by those who dislike any form of government oversight. The PRSA argues "morality cannot be legislated for... it is best sustained through peer-imposed discipline based on a common code of ethics and consistently maintained levels of professional excellence in practice." This leads to the topic of accreditation.

Accreditation, another effort to improve standards and professionalism, is ultimately an effort to unify and advance the profession by identifying those who have demonstrated their knowledge, experience and judgment in planning and managing public relations activities. Indeed, it enables public relations practitioners a common credential that increases the visibility, credibility and perceived market value of the profession and signifies a high professional level of experience and competence.

In America, as is the case in many other countries, the APR (Accredited in Public Relations) certification is obtained by participating in a voluntary certification program administered by the PRSA. Established in 1978, the goal of the accreditation program is to unify and advance the profession by identifying those who have demonstrated broad knowledge, experience and professional judgment in the field. However, as mentioned earlier, all public relations practitioners do not have to be accredited to practice, or have any formal academic training for that matter. Moloney (1999) argues that the issue of accreditation, and education and training are central to the legitimacy of the profession. Without this emphasis, he claims that the industry is doomed.

To summarize, the literature clearly establishes that antagonism and cooperation does exist between these two professions in the workplace and in an educational setting. Another important theme that emerges is that any tension that does exist may also, to some degree, be rooted in concerns over the ethics and professionalism of public relations practitioners. It would appear that while significant advances have been made in terms of the perception and status of public relations, if it is to be accepted as a legitimate profession by society, and by journalists, clarification of its ethical and professional obligations clearly needs more attention.

3.0 LITERATURE REVIEW: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

The objective of this section of the dissertation is to provide the reader with an introduction to the theoretical framework of this study. First, the author provides an overview of both theories, including their basic tenets and development. Next, an examination of their application in a mass communication context is presented. The relevant theoretical and methodological problems associated with each and their appropriateness for this particular study is also addressed. Finally, an elaboration of this study's research questions and hypotheses are elaborated.

3.2 Coorientation theory

The study of interpersonal perception stems from traditional social psychology. The assumption of interpersonal research is that a person's behavior is based on a combination of one's personal construction of the world and the perception of orientations of those around them and their orientation to others as well.

3.2.1 The development of coorientation theory

Newcomb's ABX Model

As a phenomenon of social projection, coorientation dates back to Newcomb's (1953) perceived consensus theory as a condition of communicative interactions. According to Newcomb, coorientation is a "very simple system (which) is designed to fit two-person communication." Also referred to as the A-B-X system, Newcomb (1953) argues that:

> The stronger the forces toward A's coorientation in respect to B and X, (a) the greater A's strain toward symmetry with B in respect to X; and (b) the greater the likelihood of increased symmetry as a consequence of one or more communicative acts.

Essentially, the term coorientation refers to "simultaneous orientations" so if person A (journalism educator) feels negatively toward B (public relations educator) and positively about X (an issue), and finds out that B feels positively about X as well, then the system can be said to be imbalanced, or asymmetrical (see figure 3.1). Ultimately this imbalance can impede any moves toward balance or improvement of the relationship between the two parties. Indeed, according to Newcomb,

> Communication among humans performs the essential function of enabling two or more individuals to maintain simultaneous orientation toward one another as communicators and toward objects of communication.

Therefore, coorientation can be seen as a relational term, and it is via communication that it is achieved. According to Johnson (1989), from this perspective it is imperative that consensus is examined as an interaction between people rather than the property of a single individual.

Heider's Balance Theory

Later, Heider (1958) focused on the consistency of relations at an interpersonal level, and his *balance theory* of attitude change was influenced by Gestalt principles. This theory states that when beliefs are unbalanced, stress is created and subsequently there is pressure to change attitudes. The two main factors affecting balance are the sentiment (e.g., liking, approving, admiring) and unity (e.g., similarity, proximity, membership)

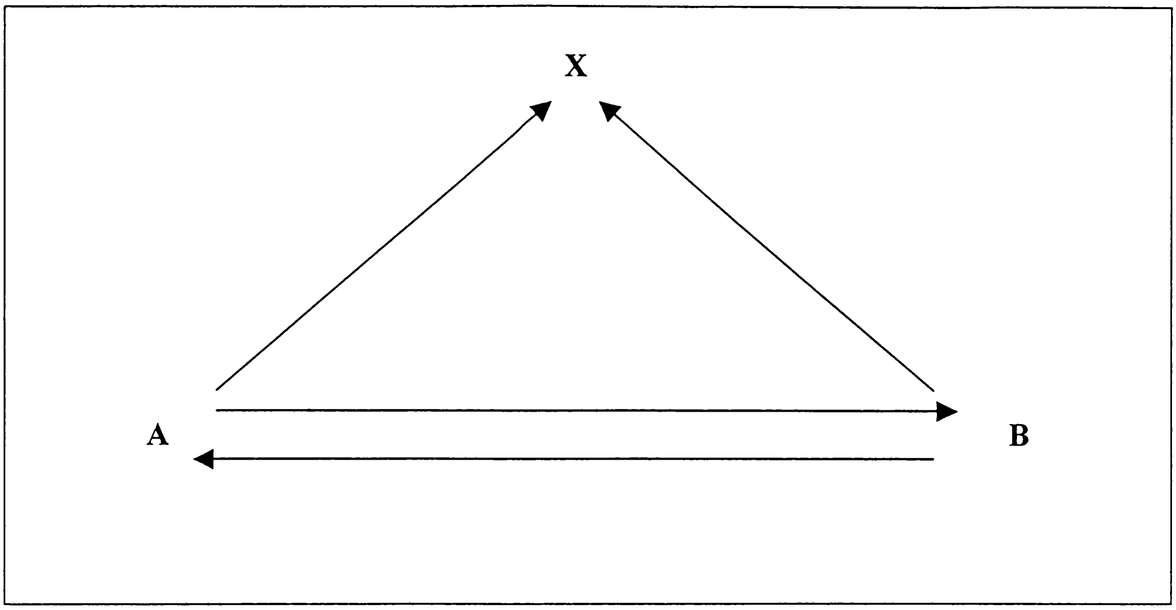

Figure 3.1: Theoretical model of coorientation (Newcomb, 1953)

qualities of beliefs. Balance exists if the sentiment or unity between beliefs about events or people are equally positive or negative; imbalance occurs when they are dissimilar in nature.

Laing: Interpersonal Perception

However, according to Sallot, Cameron, and Weaver-Lariscy (1998), Laing (1967) provided the most appropriate explanation when he argued that we need consensus to share communal meanings. Laing borrowed concepts from the symbolic interactionists Mead and Dewey, and from Durkheim's notion that collective representations come to be experienced as realities. Ultimately he suggested that individuals project their estimations of others' perceptions to determine whether they have consensus or conflict.

Apropos of this point, Kim (1986) argues that the only common bond between individuals may be the other (X), so we better agree on X if we want to have a common bond. This process of considering one's perception of the other's orientation to the topic as well as one's own orientation to the topic is coorientation. As such, coorientation theory is a form of the interpersonal school of thought, one that explores the nature of communication between individuals.

McLeod and Chaffee's Coorientation Measurement Model

Perhaps the most recognizable names in this research stream are McLeod and Chaffee who developed a coorientation model in 1973. It asserts that a person or group is oriented to objects or ideas to varying degrees. This orientation is used to compare thoughts and ideas with the thoughts and ideas of a second group. Essentially, this model explores the relationship between two persons' (A and B's) self-reported attitudes toward an object (X) as well as their perceptions of each other's self-report, as outlined in figure 3.2. Several coorientation variables are produced. Person A's Understanding of B compares the report of B (e.g., a belief, preference, or attitude about X) and person A's perception of the self-report of B. For example, if I report that public relations is an honorable profession and you perceive that I think that public relations is an honorable profession, then you understand my preference on this matter. Agreement refers to the degree of discrepancy between the self-report of persons A and B. Finally, perceived agreement reflects congruence between one's own self-report (e.g., preference) and one's perception of the partner's self-report

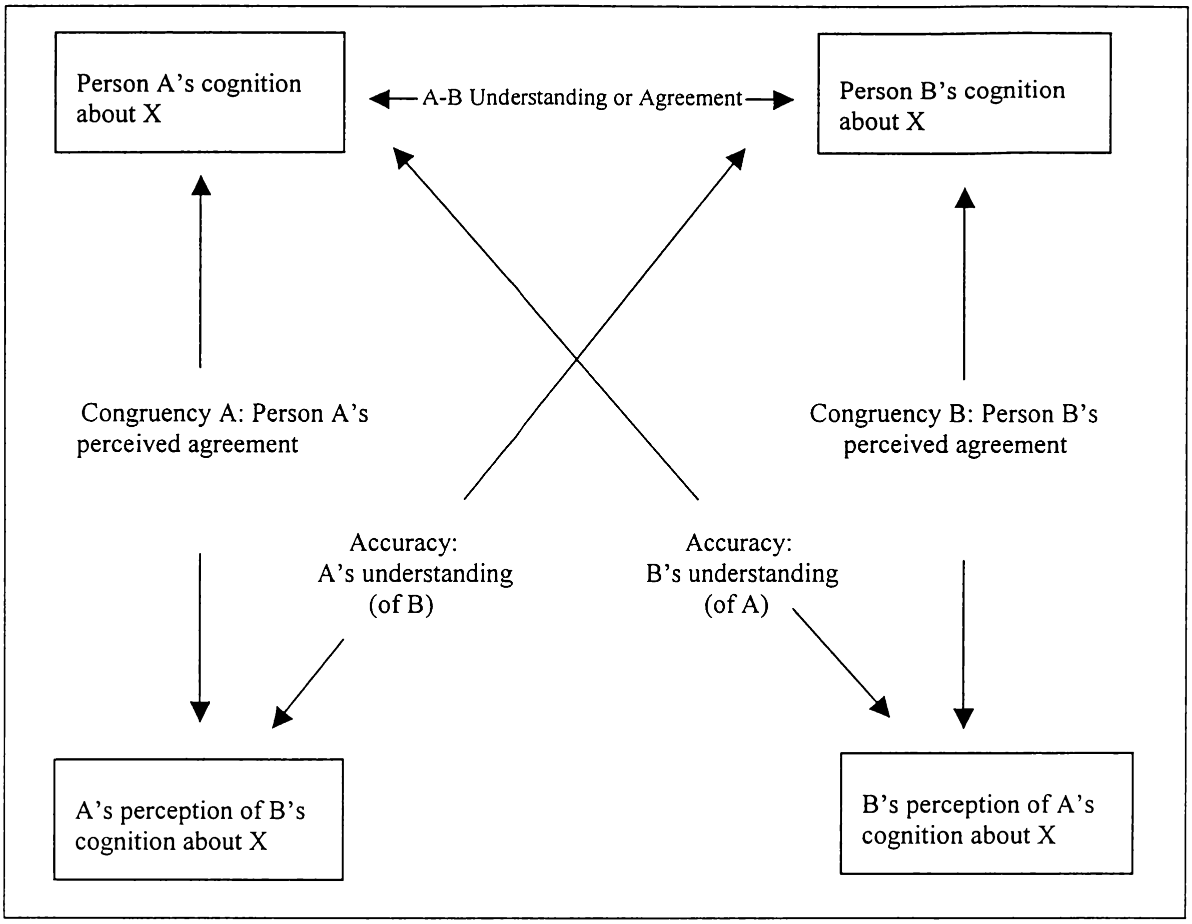

Figure 3.2 The coorientation model of measurement. (From McLeod, J.M. & Chaffee, S.H. (1973). Interpersonal approaches to communication research. American Behavioral Scientist, 16, 484. Sage.)

In this way, Chaffee and McLeod (1968) developed a coorientation measurement model with three variables: accuracy, agreement and congruency. Essentially, agreement indicates the degree to which each of the two groups' beliefs actually agrees with the other (McLeod & Chaffee, 1973). Perceived disagreement/agreement on the issue by the two groups is congruency (Broom, 1977). Accuracy is the extent to which one group's cognition equals what the other group thinks.

For McLeod and Chaffee (1973:487):

> "Perfect communication" between two persons, totally free of constraints, would not necessarily improve agreement, and it might well reduce congruency. If two are motivated to coorient, it can facilitate understanding. But it should always improve accuracy, even to the point where each person knows exactly what the other is thinking; this would be perfect communication in a quite literal sense. And yet they might disagree (and know they disagree), and even choose not to coorient to the same things in the same degree.

According to Kim (1986), of the three measurements, accuracy is considered to be the most important because it can provide a clear picture of the effects of communication. For example, in terms of this study, agreement on the focal point – what public relations is and is not (X) must take place before persuasion or true understanding can occur. Although communication may often produce some increase in accuracy it will not produce total agreement because each person arrives at his/her beliefs through his/her own personal experiences. Communication can produce marked increases in accuracy between two persons because the more two parties coorient by communicating their private values to each other, the more accurate their perceptions of each other's values should become (Chaffee and McLeod, 1968). Understanding can improve at a greater rate than agreement because, after communication, two parties may understand each other's views without necessarily agreeing on them. The term most often associated with this is "agreeing to disagree" (Kim, 1986).

It is important to note at this point that the coorientation variables - understanding, accuracy and congruency – are not functionally independent of one another, since each is based on two measures.

> Thus, if agreement is low and congruency is high, accuracy is necessarily low; if agreement and congruency are both high (or low), accuracy is high. A change in one of these variables will effect change in another, if the third is held constant. (Chaffee and McLeod, 1968).

For example, if a communications program makes journalism educators more accurate in their perceptions of actual public relations theory and practice, then congruency for that public will also change. The direction of the change, higher or lower congruency, depends on the degree to which the initial journalism educator's definition of the issue was similar to public relations educators' views.

Coorientation and Consensus

Sheff (1967) has also explored this topic with an emphasis on the concept of consensus. He argued that perceptions of agreement are just as important as actual agreement. Using measures of both actual and perceived agreement, Sheff defined a number of states of consensus as follows: *monolithic consensus* – agreement that is accurately perceived by the parties involved; *dissensus* exists if disagreement is accurately perceived by the parties involved; *false consensus* is where there is disagreement but the parties think that they agree; and finally, *pluralistic ignorance* describes a state of actual agreement, but the parties involved think they disagree. Broom (1997) adds that when the actual states of disagreement/agreement are inaccurately assessed, those involved act on the basis of their misconceptions or on what they erroneously believe to be the other group's definition of the issue.

According to Kim, six basic types of coorientation states are possible: consensus, dissensus, ignorance, pseudo-consensus, semi-consensus, and semi-dissensus. Glynn, Ostman and McDonald (1995) elaborate on a term called false uniqueness, which occurs when the minority position on issues is incorrectly perceived to be the majority position and vice versa. They also claim that there is no way to determine beforehand "when pluralistic ignorance will occur or when false consensus will occur."

It would appear that the most desirable state would be one in which communicators have high agreement and accuracy about the various aspects of public relations in a positive way (as a profession and in an educational context, and toward practitioners). To the degree that communicators have these perceptions, one could hypothesize that they would describe their relationship and professional interactions in a more favorable way. Similarly, a communicator who is dissatisfied with the various aspects of public relations and perceives no way of solving the problem (that it is structural or internal) is more likely to perceive a non-dialogic and unethical communication environment (Pearson, 1996). Perhaps more interesting for the researcher, however, is the discovery that false consensus or pluralistic ignorance exists. This could have a tremendous effect on the nature of future communication between the two groups.

An Associated Concept: Third Person Effect

From a mass communication point of view, third person effect is an interesting and related concept, which may also help explain coorientation as a phenomenon. W. Phillips Davison first proposed the third-person effect phenomenon in 1983. He argued that the effect was comprised of two components, i) a motivationally and cognitively based "perceptual bias" that people will perceive others to be more influenced by media content, especially negative content, than themselves, and ii) a behavioral response to the perception. Essentially, the third-person effect perceptual hypothesis predicts that individuals perceive the media to wield greater influence on other people than on themselves (Salwen, 1999). Sallot, Cameron, and Weaver-Lariscy (1998) relate this to coorientation when they state:

> The third person may be seen as the "other" person, who is affected by mass mediated messages, or the original person, who, while not affected by the primary media message, may perceive the probability of the media's effect on others and may react to the impact that he or she perceives the message, will have on others.

3.2.2 Coorientation theory in mass communication research

There are many examples in the literature of coorientational analysis being used by mass communication researchers. Grunig (1972) used the measures to explore the level of understanding between government organizations and interest groups and found that those who defined the problem in the same way communicated significantly more with one another than they did with those defining the problem in a different way. Also in 1972, Stamm and Bowes used coorientation measurement to evaluate the effectiveness of an Army Corps of Engineers communication program, and found a discrepancy between the Corps perception and that of respondents on a number of key issues relating to a proposed project. As a result of their findings, the project was delayed to allow for additional meetings and negotiations between the Corps and those affected by the proposed project.

Later, in 1977, Broom, who was skeptical of public relations practitioners' typical use public opinion polls to measure the effectiveness of their programs, argued that the coorientational approach to measurement provided a more effective indicator of public relations effect. Implicit in this desire to identify and reduce/eliminate any discrepancy between the corporate and public definition of an issue, was the assumption that a public's opinions and behavior are determined at least in part by its perceptions of the issue. In addition, if corporate and public definition of an issue, public opinion and behavior related to the issue will be consistent with corporate needs and corporate views of what is in the public interest. Ultimately, for Broom, the coorienation measurement approach provides information useful for identifying public relations problems, and planning or using programs to maintain or build new consensus. Coorientation also enables practitioners with benchmark data to judge progress.

As mentioned in an earlier section, coorientation has been used extensively to explore the nature of the relationship between journalists and public relations practitioners. Due to their applicability to this study, some of the more relevant studies will be elaborated on again.

While Aronoff (1975) didn't employ Chaffee and McLeod's (1973) coorientation measurements, his attitude survey was insightful. He reported that while many journalists saw public relations as an important part of the process of getting news to the public, they also associated it with unacceptable practices. He noted that Texas journalists' attitudes towards the profession differed substantially and negatively from the attitudes held by practitioners toward themselves. His systematic survey indicated that journalists viewed public relations as low in source credibility; attributed to practitioners' news values that were directly opposite to those of journalists; and held practitioners in low occupational esteem. When the 25 items on the attitude questionnaire were scored, journalists' negative attitude orientation toward public relations was more evident. Their average score was 123.74 (higher scores indicate a more negative attitude) compared to public relations practitioners' average score of 60.61. Aronoff argues that this survey provided a clear indication that a discrepancy exists between journalists' and practitioners' attitudes towards public relations. In order to reduce this gap, considerable work remained.

Jeffers (1977) also attempted to determine attitudes and expectations of journalists and practitioners towards one another. He found that journalists did not have great respect for practitioners, viewing them as "obstructionists" who prevent journalists from obtaining the truth, presenting the good side of the story only. Journalists also considered themselves superior to practitioners in status, ethical, and skill terms. However, the study also remarked that their relationship could be considered a "co-operative" one, although practitioners believe this to a greater extent than journalists. Interestingly, many journalists viewed practitioners they had regular cooperative contact with as status equals. On the other hand, practitioners rated journalists they had regular contact with as status equals, but assigned slightly higher status to journalists in general than to persons in their own occupational category. For Jeffers, the conclusion that cooperativeness-competitiveness is linked to status equality-inequality on the functional level for journalists was an important theoretical finding, and worthy of attention by both journalists and practitioners.

Kopenhaver, Martinson and Ryan (1984) concluded that a sample of Florida editors viewed public relations much more negatively than a sample of practitioners did. However, the two groups were in agreement about news values. This finding will seem a virtue to most journalists who would argue it is good to be skeptical about news sources whose job is to promote a special interest. But if the two groups do share common opinions about news, they believe some journalists may need to re-think their attitudes towards the role of public relations and view practitioners as important helpers in the news-dissemination process. The authors also argue that whether or not a gap exists between journalists and practitioners' perceptions of public relations, "the editor's presumption that a gap exists can have an important impact on the communication process." On the basis of their results, they argue that journalists' misunderstanding of the practitioners' role in the communication process may result in i) journalists missing out on a good story or including unclear, incomplete or inaccurate information in articles;

or ii) the practitioner being forced to use unethical means to get their message to the public.

Also in 1984, Beltz, Talbott and Stark found that both groups perceived journalists in fairly traditional terms. However, journalists and practitioners differed sharply over their patterns of perception of the public relations role, and practitioners believed their relationships with journalists to be more positive than those relationships actually were. Journalists also perceived the role of public relations as involving tendencies in the areas of ethical compromise, hidden agendas, aggressiveness, advocacy and withholding information. They also differed on issues of accuracy, honesty, objectivity, fairness and the inviolability of one's own conscience. Although role theory was the central theoretical framework for their study, the results are nonetheless valuable when viewed in terms of coorientation.

Using coorientation as their theoretical framework, Stegall and Sanders (1986) examined how educational public relations officers and reporters in Missouri perceived themselves and each other in their roles. The authors found that public relations practitioners were more successful in assessing their journalist counterparts' views than journalists were in assessing practitioners' views. As such, the practitioners' motivation to coorient was greater than the reporters. They argued that the reporters' stake in coorienting was less than the practitioners' as the former has many other sources he/she can use to get their story. In addition, they argue that their study supported the idea that the person that has the most motivation to coorient will be more successful at it. If journalists are not coorienting effectively with public relations practitioners, the authors claim that new ways needed to be found to enhance understanding between the two groups.

Similar results were found in a survey by Sallot, Steinfatt and Salwen (1998). Here, journalists and public relations practitioners in South Florida and metropolitan New York were surveyed regarding their perceptions and cross-perceptions of their own and each other's news values, and the influence of public relations on the news. The two groups reported similar news values, although journalists reported a greater lack of awareness of the similarity, in other words they were less cooriented than their colleagues. Here, coorientation was employed because the authors believed that a strong theoretical base exists to suggest that projections of estimations of others perceptions are useful determinants to gauge whether states are consensual or conflicting. They also commented on the fact that practitioners are often encouraged to "understand the press and its needs… [and] less common to tell news editorial students they must understand "PR types"." They claim that greater dialogue about the actual agreement regarding news values that both groups share might lead to greater understanding and relationships.

Pratt's (1991) study examined the reported ethical beliefs and behaviors of public relations practitioners and compared these with those of their peers and top management. They concluded that beliefs of top management are perceived as more ethical than those of both practitioners and peers, but top management were perceived as less likely to take disciplinary action against unethical behaviors. For the author, the results of this study and the use of coorientation theory meant that in the future the presence and perception of high ethical standards are more consistent among the three groups.

Sallot, Cameron and Weaver-Larischy (1998) found that public relations professionals randomly surveyed from across the nation tend to underestimate the current state of professional standards in the field. This underestimation was explained by the authors as *pluralistic ignorance* or under- and over-estimation of others' opinions, and suggests that the public relations field may actually hold higher standards and greater confidence in standards than public relations professionals commonly attribute to their peers. This state of *pluralistic ignorance* (Glynn, Ostman and McDonald, 1995) was found to be partly attributable to the third-person effect (Davison, 1983), which occurs when individuals think that the media will have a greater impact others than on themselves. Here, an individual may be affected by their perception of the impact a message has on others. The results of these views "assault and batter the morale of both educators and practitioners while assailing public relations' self-image and reputation." This is significant given that educators' influence future journalists and practitioners.

Finally, in their examination of the lawyer-public relations counselor dynamic, Reber, Cropp and Cameron's (2001) study found that the perception that lawyers and public relations practitioners shared a troublesome association had taken on "mythic proportions" While lawyers were more cooriented toward practitioners than vice-versa, the two seem to enjoy a positive working relationship.

3.2.3 Methodological problems in coorientational research

Despite the fact that the coorientation paradigm has been used productively in the aforementioned studies, it also has a number of shortcomings. Purnine and Carey (1999) identified two factors that may be responsible for the underdevelopment of coorientation as a practical method. First, they claim that coorientation was developed "primarily as a means to study 'person perception,' an area characterized by several methodological difficulties and statistical complexities." In particular they cite Cronbach (1955), who was also critical of the methodology. According to Cronbach, the methods used to measure coorientation variables have conceptual strengths and limitations in relation to *elevation.* Elevation refers to a respondent's bias toward using a particular part of a rating scale; individuals may choose different points on a scale (e.g., agree vs. strongly agree) to mean the same thing. According to the difference-score method, the raw difference between records is calculated for each item, and these differences are summed across the number of items. However, greater discrepancy is reflected by a larger difference score. According to the correlation method, a pattern of correspondence between records is captured by a correlation between the items of each. The difference score method penalizes a pair of respondents whose co-respondents have different levels of elevation. If one respondent's response is exactly one point lower than the other on every item, the difference score will be as large as the number of items, whereas the correlation method would reflect perfect congruence between records ($r = 1.00$). The potential advantage of difference scores is that some or many of these points of difference reflect actual differences between persons A and B. Said differently, what appears as "elevation" may contain valuable information in addition to error variance.

Another criticism leveled at the coorientation methodology has been the "unsystematic and informal use of coorientation principles" (Purnine and Carey, 1999). This has lead to null research findings, obscuring the potential of the method and further dampening interest in its development. For instance, an insufficient number of items in the profiles to be compared, and/or lack of variability among individual items can constrain bivariate analyses. Researchers using measures that have these problems are likely to fail to detect actual relationships due to insufficient statistical power. If the correlational calculation of coorientation variables is the best method, affected studies also may have lost power by using difference scores in calculating them, or by simply tallying the total number of identical responses between records.

Grunig (1978) argues that improperly worded coorientation measures may produce what Chaffee and McLeod (1971) coined "pseudo data." Here, the questions used to measure the concepts ask the respondents to reify a group, which does not exist in the respondent's mind. In addition, Grunig claims that measures of accuracy and agreement are generally only a partially valid measure of actual accuracy or agreement between persons or groups intensifying the amount of variance that a coorientation study can explain.

Finally, the confusion that may occur between accuracy and agreement scores also poses a methodological problem for researchers. Here, a respondent who reports a low level of actual accuracy may guess that the other person or group he or she is predicting will think as he or she does. According to Wackman (1969), if agreement is actually high, the accuracy measure will also be high but only because of the chance guess.

A nonmethodological limitation of the paradigm is that coorientation provides no theoretical relationships and that is why this study also employs attribution theory to provide the researcher with independent variables (locus/personal control, stability, external controllability) to explain the dependent variables (accuracy, congruency, understanding) as detailed below. Indeed, in this study, attribution theory is used to explain the level of coorientation that exists, between journalism and public relations educators.

3.3 Attribution theory

In order to enhance understanding of the views underlying the responses that coorientational measurement will provide, this study will apply attribution theory. Essentially, attribution theory concerns itself with how and why people make causal explanations. More specifically it deals with the information people use in making causal inferences, and with what they do with this information to answer causal questions. The theory was developed within social psychology to tackle questions relating to social perception. Indeed, Harvey and Weary contend "An attribution is an inference about why an event occurred or about a person's dispositions" (1981). For Oskamp (1991), individuals use attribution to judge whether people are in fact responsible for particular events, "and how we assign praise or blame for their actions." Indeed, Coombs (2000) argues, "Understanding how people make attributions about events allows for their anticipation of emotional and behavioral responses to events."

Interestingly, Heradstveit and Bonham (1996) also argue the "naïve scientist" framework is not the only way that attribution theory can be explored. They argue that attributions serve a number of functions other than cognitive mastery. In particular they make reference to authors who have hypothesized that some of the other motives that affect attribution include the need to protect or enhance an individual's self esteem (Miller, 1976; Zuckerman, 1979), to create a favorable impression to others (Bradley, 1978; Orvis, Kelly and Butler, 1976), and to believe in a just world (Lerner and Miller, 1978; Tetlock and Levi, 1982).

3.3.1 The development of attribution theory

Heider's "Common Sense" Psychology

Attribution theory was first explored in 1958 when Heider first wrote about the theory in his book *The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations*. Heider's "naïve" psychology played a central role in the origination and definition of attribution theory, which was later reformulated by Jones and Davis (1965), and Kelley (1967). According to his "naïve" psychology, people act on the basis of their beliefs, which - valid or not - must be taken into account if psychologists were to be able to account for human behavior. Heider was a great believer in commonsense psychology, and stressed the importance of taking the ordinary person's explanations and understanding of events and behaviors seriously. He believed that in order to understand their surroundings, people seek to understand and categorize events by “referring transient and variable behavior and events to relatively unchanging underlying conditions.” Therefore, to explain an event, an individual will attribute the event to some constant condition. He postulated a set of rules of inference by which an ordinary person might attribute responsibility to another person (an “actor”) for an action by making a distinction between internal (abilities, motives, personality) and external (the specific situation or environment) attributions. He argued that both personal and environmental factors operate on the “actor,” and the balance of these determines the attribution of responsibility (Lewis and Daltroy, 1990).

Perhaps Heider’s main contribution to attribution theory was his conception of the processes involved in a person’s attributions of causality. He argued that people observe an event and then, often in a logical, analytical way, attempt to discover the connections between the various effects and possible causes (Harvey and Weary, 1981). However, individuals are not always objective or rational in their attributional behavior. Sometimes they make attributions based on insufficient information, distorted by psychological needs and motivations.

Jones and Davis: Theory of Correspondent Inferences

Jones and Davis (1965) are perhaps best known for their reformulation of Heider’s theory of *correspondent inference theory*, which was the first explicit hypothesis-testing formulation in the area of attribution. The authors describe how an "alert perceiver" might infer another's intentions and personal dispositions (personality traits, attitudes, etc.) from their behavior. It does not describe how individuals understand their *own* intentions and dispositions. They argued that perceivers make correspondent inferences when they infer another's personal dispositions directly from behavior; for example, perceivers may infer a disposition of kindness from a kindly act. Inferences are correspondent when the behavior and the disposition can be assigned similar labels (e.g. kind).

Kelley's Integrative Approach to Attribution

Essentially, Kelley (1967) theorized that individuals often make causal attributions as if they were analyzing data patterns by means of analysis of variance. Thus the principle of covariation between possible causes and effects is his fundamental attributional approach. Indeed, in his formulation the important classes of possible causes are persons, entities (things or environmental stimuli), and times (occasions and situations).

Kelley also advanced Heider's theory by adding hypotheses about the factors that affect the formation of attributions, asking the question: "How do individuals establish the validity of their own or of another person's impression of an object?" Kelley suggested that perceivers examine three different kinds of information in their efforts to verify if they have correctly linked causes and effects: the consistency, distinctiveness, and consensus associated with the possible causes. Consistency asks: "Does this person always respond in the same way to this stimulus?" Distinctiveness explores: "Do they respond in the same way to other stimuli as well?" Finally, consensus asks: "Do all or only a few people respond to the stimulus in the same way as this person?" There is general support from research (McArthur, 1972) that people do use information and make logical inferences based on that information in the way that Kelley claims.

According to Ross and Fletcher (1985) three combinations of this information can occur:

1. *High consensus, high distinctiveness, high consistency*: The target person's judgment of the restaurant (it is a good restaurant) should be perceived as valid if the perceiver knows that 1) other people like the restaurant, 2) the target person seldom likes restaurants, and 3) the target person enjoys the restaurant every time he or she goes there. The restaurant is good.
2. *Low consensus, low distinctiveness, high consistency*: If a perceiver knows that 1) most people do not like the target person's restaurant, 2) the target person likes most restaurants and 3) the target person enjoys the restaurant each time s/he goes there. Target person's enjoyment at restaurant attributable to something about him/her (likes to eat out), not something unique about the restaurant.
3. *Low consensus, high distinctiveness, low consistency*: If a perceiver knows 1) few other people like the restaurant, 2) the target person seldom likes the restaurant, and 3) the target person disliked this restaurant in the past. More than likely the target person's liking this restaurant is attributable to the person liking the company or wine rather than the food.

However, Kelley conceded that while the analysis of variance model is appropriate in certain cases, it is not representative of most attributional work. Due to the pressures of modern life, deliberations that require "full blown" analysis are often impossible. Rather, individuals make decisions on the basis of present thought, feelings and perceptions, the advice of others, and past experience. This store of past knowledge is what Kelley refers to as causal schemata, stored in the memory and then activated by environmental cues.

Bem's Contribution

Originally intended to represent an alternative approach to dissonance theory in attitude change research, Bem's (1972) work was first recognized by Kelley as an appropriate complement to attribution research. Bem claims that people come to know their own attitudes, emotions and other internal states partially by inferring them from their own overt behavior and the context in which this behavior occurs. Essentially, Bem asserts that people infer their internal states such as attributions and attitudes after they behave, and cannot remember internal states that are discrepant with their behavior (Bem and McConnell, 1970).

Weiner: Theoretical Advances in Attribution

Weiner and his associates are well known for their establishment of a literature concerning the inference of causality as well as other perceptions and behavior in achievement situations. In particular, Weiner has applied himself to the role of attribution in achievement situations, particularly how teachers make inferences about students, rewarding and punishing them for performances differing along three dimensions.

For Weiner (1979, 1985, 1986), the reasons for why something has happened may be described in terms of three dimensions or underlying properties including locus of causality, stability, and controllability. Locus assesses whether the cause for the event is in the actor (internal) or in the situation (external). Stability assesses whether the cause for the event is present (stable) or varies over time and context (unstable). External controllability assesses whether the actor can affect causes that determine the outcome of an event (controllable) or whether these causes are beyond the actor's influence (uncontrollable).

While Weiner deals with the implications in an achievement setting, the following illustration applies the concepts to the present study. For example, take the case of a scandal involving several high profile business leaders and the embezzlement of federal funds, covered up for years by the public relations division of the company. Next, consider the case of an observer [journalist] who, through the mechanisms of counterfactual thinking and hindsight bias, arrives at the perception that the cover-up was due to the company's [public relations practitioner's] failure to provide accurate information to the press (and public) for many years. This perception of causation becomes dimensionalized as internal, stable, and controllable. That is, the cause is internal because neglect is categorized as due to factors residing within the company itself as opposed to factors residing in the environment. It is stable because the neglect has a long history and is expected to continue. And the cause is perceived as controllable because it was within the wherewithal of the company to have acted otherwise.

These latent or dimensional properties of causes, rather than their surface content are associated with distinct cognitive, affective and behavioral consequences. For example, because the public relations division's negligence is categorized as stable, the division (company, and perhaps all public relations professionals, including educators) is expected to behave carelessly in the future, and because their carelessness is seen as controllable, there is increased likelihood for observers to feel anger towards the company (and those involved in perpetuating the problem) and sympathy for the victims (if victims are viewed as not also responsible for the scandal).

Interestingly, Weiner, Amirikan, Folkes and Verette (1987) found that people feel angry when they regard an actor as responsible for what they view as a negative action or outcome that was internal and controllable, but feel pity when they perceive the actor is not responsible for a negative action or outcome that was external and uncontrollable.

Apropos of this point, Heradstveit and Bonham (1996) argue that individuals tend to attribute their own anti-social or negative behavior to external situations, and their positive behavior to their own internal characteristics. Blanks-Hindman (1999) states that the concepts of responsibility and blame are inherent in attribution theory because with attribution, a cause - whether internal or external - is attached to some action. Blanks-Hindman cites Ross and DiTecco (1975) who claim that in order for an individual to be "evaluated as morally good or bad on the basis of behavior," the individual must be responsible for that behavior at some level. Ross and DiTecco argue that attribution theory maintains that attributors tend to "blame" actors for actions the attributors perceive as caused by internal forces, and are less likely to blame them for actions perceived to be due to external factors.

Interestingly, Heider also considered the importance of responsibility to attribution and claimed that there were five ways to view the concept:

> At the most primitive level (association), the person is held responsible for any action that is connected with him, however remote...At the next level (commission), the person is viewed as responsible for anything he causes, even though he could not possible have foreseen or intended the consequences of his action...At the third level (forseeability), the person is viewed as responsible for any result of his action that he might have foreseen, even though it was not intended...At the next level (intentionality), the person is seen as only responsible for consequences of his actions that he intended to produce. At this stage the individual is no longer held responsible for the results of actions. At the fifth and final level (justification) the person is not seen as responsible even for consequences that he intentionally produced if the circumstances were such that anyone would have acted as he did.

According to Ross and DiTecco, adults tend to use the "primitive" (lower level) interpretations of responsibility, and claim that identification with the "harm doer" reduces the amount of blame leveled by observers. Indeed, they claim "[T]he degree of responsibility imputed decrease[s] when the attributor perceived himself as resembling the harm doer." For Blanks-Hindman (1999: 502), people try to avoid guilt by association by "minimizing irresponsible or negative behavior committed by those seen as similar to themselves...they may also attribute poor behavior to external causes, if they see themselves as like the actors, and then view the action as having an internal cause."

3.3.2 Attribution theory in mass communication research

In 1984, Fredin argued that the news media's overestimation of personalities can lead to "fundamental attribution error" where individuals tend to attribute the actions of others to their characteristics or personality traits. This, he argues, can ultimately affect the processes of newsgathering and the conclusions that journalists draw concerning their sources.

Essentially, Fredin used the social psychological theory of attribution to investigate the presence and use of causal attribution in election poll stories. This study found that journalists explain and interpret public opinion by offering causal explanations even though most surveys can only provide evidence of association not causality. Thus, journalists are likely misreporting some correlational relationships as causal relationships.

Coombs and Halladay (1996) explored the role of communication and attributions in a crisis situation. They argue that by merging attribution theory and neoinstitutionalism, a symbolic approach to crisis management can be achieved as both perspectives indicate that communication helps to shape an organization's image in a crisis. Indeed, the type of crisis response chosen should be linked to the type of crisis situation at hand.

In her article, Blanks-Hindman (1999) adopted a case study approach and used attribution theory to analyze mainstream newspaper editorials concerning media conduct during the pre-trial phase of the O.J. Simpson murder case. The author concluded that many newspapers acknowledged poor, even unethical, coverage in general, without taking responsibility themselves. In addition, while admitting problematic coverage in general, many of the editorials shifted blame to external causes, including Simpson, the legal teams on both sides, others involved in the case, and even the public.

In his examination of the merits of adopting a relational perspective in the study of crisis management, Coombs (2000) explored how attribution theory can be used as an organizing framework. He claimed that it behooves public relations scholars and practitioners to understand the attributional process at both an interpersonal and organizational level. Indeed, an accurate understanding of the how people interpret and react to events in a relationship will ensure an "appropriate" response, one which will potentially limit or repair any relational damage that a crisis might incur. Using the three causal dimensions of attribution theory (stability, external control, and locus/personal control) the author claimed to provide a mechanism for understanding the amount of organizational responsibility generated by a particular crisis.

In particular, Coombs claimed that reputational stability is especially important to public relations practitioners. He argues that a strong, favorable reputation, and stores of credibility can provide a variety of benefits to an organization in crisis, and can significantly affect the degree of attitude change produced by a message in a crisis situation (McCroskey, 1966). Perhaps not surprisingly, crisis response strategies that rely on credibility are less effective if an organization lacks initial credibility. Indeed, "Organizations must work to build credibility in order to prove that they are sincere. Reparation or repair strategies are needed to build credibility." Apropos of this point, more accommodative strategies appear to be more effective at reducing reputational damage when there are strong attributions of organizational responsibility (Coombs, 1998; Coombs and Holladay, 1996).

3.3.3 Theoretical and methodological adjustments

Attribution theories such as Kelley's covariation model tended to suggest that laypeople act like psychologists, trying to produce rational explanations for other people's behavior.

In fact, everyday attributions do not always conform to such exacting scientific standards. These traditional accounts can therefore be taken as normative models that describe how people ought to explain behavior given unlimited time and resources rather than how they actually do explain events under normal circumstances. When judgments deviate systematically from these standards, attribution is said to be biased.

Fundamental Attribution Error

According to Taylor and Fiske (1984), in most situations, behavior is a result of a mixture of both an individual's personal characteristics and situational factors. Both Oskamp (1991) and Heradstveit and Bonham (1996) argue that the *fundamental attribution error* (also known as correspondence bias) occurs when actors [those directly involved in a social interaction] attribute their behavior to situational factors ("I act this way because I have no choice"), whereas observers [uninvolved individuals] of the same behaviors tend to attribute them to stable personal dispositions of the actor including abilities, traits and attitudes ("She acts that way because it is in her nature"). So, instead of seeing that there are situational factors such as social norms or roles that have lead to a particular behavior, the observer will generally tend to see behavior as freely chosen by an individual and representative of their stable qualities.

Just some of the negative implications of the fundamental attribution error include the fact that 'victims' of situational forces may be held more accountable for their situation than is appropriate. For example, a public relations practitioner may be branded as unethical by a journalist for withholding certain documents from the press, while such objective barriers as the legal department's policy may be ignored. Moreover, since behavior is likely to be attributed to a person's enduring qualities, other people are not likely to modify the person's situation or encourage the person to change his/her behavior. Indeed, having branded the practitioner as unethical, others may fail to explore how changes could or should be made in the legal department so that the practitioner could reveal more information and be seen as more cooperative.

More recently, researchers have argued that that there is no comprehensive theoretical structure to explain the fundamental attribution error, and that maybe no error exists at all (Heradstviet and Bonham, 1996). While the "error" has been confirmed in laboratory research, Cheng and Novick (1990) also claim that it has not been found to apply to all situations. Indeed, Heradstviet and Bonham argue that perhaps the term "error" is a misnomer and beg the question: "Is an involved actor in a better position to identify the cause of his or her own behavior than that of an uninvolved observer?" According to Monsoon and Snyder (1977), actors are more knowledgeable about their own inner states, attitudes and dispositions than observers can be, as this kind of information is not available to observers. However, Nisbett and Wilson (1977) found that when people are asked to report how a particular "stimulus" influenced a particular "response," they apply or generate "causal theories about the effects of that type of stimulus on that type of response." Just some of the sources of these causal theories include the culture or subculture and empirical observation.

Actor-Observer Effect

Just one of the provocative extensions of basic attribution ideas is concerned with how people with different perspectives differ in their attributions about the causes of the same behavior. Although there is evidence that people do try to use the kinds of information specified by the normative model of attribution (McArthur, 1972), there is also evidence of a wide variety of biases in the way people make attributions. Jones and Nisbett (1972) are responsible for an influential theoretical statement on actor-observer differences in the attribution of causality. They hypothesize that actors will attribute causality or responsibility for their behavior to situational influences, whereas observers will attribute causality for the same behavior to stable dispositions possessed by the actors (Harvey and Weary, 1981). One possible explanation for the difference between how we see ourselves versus how we see others rests on the fact that when we are the actor, we literally cannot see ourselves behaving. Therefore, our behavior or activity is not as salient as the situational forces that are impinging the behavior (Fiske and Taylor, 1984). On the other hand, when we observe another person, that person's behavior is more dynamic and occurs against a more 'dull' situational background, and so causality is attributed to the person.

Another explanation for any bias that exists is referred to as *actor-observer bias*, which Jones and Nisbett claims to rest on the fact that the actor and observer have access to differing levels of information. Indeed, they argue that actors generally know more about their behavior and present experiences than observers do. Indeed, observers probably lack the background data about the distinctiveness and consistency of the actor's behavior, thus they focus their causal analysis on the presumed stable personality characteristics of actors. Interestingly, Fiske and Taylor (1984) argue that the actor-observer effect can be reversed with empathy set instructions. In this scenario the actor is told to pretend that they are observing themselves as another person might or may be asked to take the role of another person, both of which can change attributions for behavior. Indeed, actors induced to "see" their behavior as an observer may or may not tend to become more dispositional in their attributions, while observers induced to empathize with actors become more situational in their explanations.

Self-Serving Attribution Bias

The tendency to take credit for success and deny responsibility for failure is commonly known as the self-serving attributional bias. Two kinds of self-serving bias have been distinguished: The self-enhancing bias is the tendency to attribute the successful or positive outcomes you experience to your own abilities or efforts. The self-protective bias is the tendency to attribute failures or negative outcomes to external causes. Indeed, a substantial body of literature demonstrates how individuals tend to make greater self-attributions for their own positive behaviors. By taking credit for "good acts" and denying blame for negative outcomes, a form of self-serving or ego defensive bias enhances or protects one's self-esteem (Harvey and Weary, 1981; Bradley, 1978).

Evidence of genuinely self-serving biases was reviewed by Miller and Ross (1975) who argued that many of the relevant experiments on this topic failed to rule out the possibility that participants were simply publicly reporting the causes in this biased way in order to present a more favorable impression of themselves. Whether participants privately believe that they are more responsible for positive than negative outcomes is harder to determine.

Methodological Problems

From a methodological point of view, the fact that many of the studies on social attribution have been conducted in laboratory settings with college graduates explaining their actions or the behavior of others in "hypothetical or trivial situations," means that their conclusions may not be generalizable to the "real world." In order to overcome these problems, Weary, Stanley and Harvey (1989) argue, "more empirical work using more naturalistic stimulus materials…to represent social stimuli will be necessary." They argue that this might reveal that "people do not simply attribute causes and responsibility; they also offer more elaborate accounts and stories."

Miller, Smith and Uleman (1981) argued that the use of the forced-choice, closed-ended scales that are most often used in attribution research are useful, however, studies that have used multi-trait-multimethod approaches show a lack of convergence among these scales, which would imply that the scales are not very reliable or internally valid. On the other hand, Howard (1987) argued that while the free-choice and open-ended scales allow respondents to express their own views about cause and blame, it can time-consuming and open to coding problems. Indeed, a coding problem might occur because the situational-dispositional distinction is not really a dichotomy, rather it may reflect differences in language rather than thought (Monsoon and Snyder, 1977).

In an effort to solve this problem Ross (1977) defined situational attributions as "Those explanations that state or imply no dispositions on the part of the actor beyond those typical of all or most actors. Dispositional attributions are "Those explanations that state or imply something unique or distinguishing about the actor." While Monsoon and Snyder argue that this distinction may not represent a dichotomous classification, they claim that it can enable the researcher to make judgments about the perceiver's weighting of the relative importance of each. In light of these comments, Heradstveit and Bonham (1996) believe that it would be most useful to call dispositional attributions "personal" attributions in order to establish "whether the respondent is explaining an event by referring to the personality traits and peculiarities of the actor, or by referring to a response that is thought to be caused by stimuli in the actor's environment." Kruglanski (1975) proposed a distinction between occurrences (which are not completely voluntary) and actions (which are voluntary). He argued that, although occurrences can be used by both internal (person) or external (situational) factors, action cannot; actions are always internally caused. His fundamental point is that one must distinguish between causal explanations (which account for what caused an action to happen) and teleological explanations (why the action was accomplished, i.e., to what end).

Essentially, the judgments people make about the three causal dimensions ultimately influence their feelings and behaviors toward the actor (Weiner, 1985; Weiner, Perry and Magnusson, 1988; Wilson, Cruz and Rao, 1993). Indeed, the explanations people give for an action affect attributions because i) messages can shape how people perceive the three dimensions, and ii) the messages can affect the feelings created by the attributions

(Weiner, Perry and Magnusson, 1988). Therefore, communication can ultimately influence a person's attributions, or the subsequent feelings attached to those attributions.

3.4 Elaboration of research questions and hypotheses

The review of the literature in this study indicates that an antagonistic and symbiotic relationship has traditionally existed between journalists and public relations practitioners. Indeed, while previous studies have explored the levels of coorientation that exist between the two groups in relation to public relations as a profession and those who work in field, the purpose of this study is to shed light on the nature of their relationship in an educational setting. While the research questions will explore similar territory to that presented in previous studies, the key difference is that this study presents the views held by journalism and public relations educators.

Moreover, the levels of coorientation that exist between the two perspectives are under examination. As such, it will explore journalism and public relations educators' attitudes, and perhaps more importantly, the levels of accuracy that exist between the two perspectives. As mentioned in the previous chapter, "perfect communication" between the two groups may not necessarily improve agreement, and it might even reduce congruency, but it should always improve accuracy. Indeed, perfect communication in a quite literal sense is where each person knows exactly what the other is thinking; even if they are agreeing to disagree, and even choose not to coorient to the same things in the same degree (McLeod & Chaffee, 1973, p. 487). This study will therefore address the following research questions:

RQ1: What are respondents' attitudes toward public relations in a general professional setting, and is there a significant difference in the levels of coorientation (congruency, agreement and accuracy) between the two groups?

RQ2: What are respondents' attitudes toward public relations in an educational setting and is there a significant difference in the levels of coorientation (congruency, agreement and accuracy) between the two groups?

Another key difference between this study and previous efforts is the implementation of attribution theory, and three attribution dimensions – locus, stability and external controllability – as the independent variables under investigation. Another objective of this study is to examine the perceptions that influence some of the negative attitudes toward public relations that emerge in the literature. Here, the dependent variables will be the three coorientation measures – agreement, congruency and accuracy – as detailed above. Because of the working relationship that exists between these two groups and the apparent degree of antagonism that exists among journalists toward public relations, events and/or actions that occur between these two groups is bound to influenced by the causal attributions made by both parties. Indeed, the literature indicates that the greater the attributions of responsibility assigned by observers (e.g. journalists) toward actors (e.g. public relations practitioners) the stronger the feelings of anger and a more negative view of the actor's overall image (and perhaps their whole profession?) (Weiner, Amirhan, and Verette, 1987).

Therefore, it is hypothesized that the three causal dimensions of attribution will affect respondents' levels of coorientation (especially accuracy) and their subsequent attitude towards one another in predictable ways. It is hypothesized that the levels of agreement between the two groups will be lower if the action/event is stable (e.g. the professional/profession is perceived to have a history of poor conduct), external control (controlled by others outside of the professional/profession) is low, and the locus is strongly internal (intentionality is high). Based on previous studies and a review of the literature, it is also hypothesized that if the action/event is stable, external control is low, and the locus is strongly internal, journalism educators will have lower congruency scores than their public relations counterparts. Subsequently, accuracy scores between journalism educators and public relations educators will be high, while scores between public relations educators and journalism educators would be low. As such, this study will address the following research hypotheses:

H1a: That the level of congruency found among journalism educators will be higher than that found among their public relations counterparts.

H1b: That there will be a significant difference between the two groups of respondents in terms of the coorientational variable agreement.

H1c: That among journalism educators there will not be a significant difference in the level of accuracy toward their public relations counterparts.

H1d: That among public relations educators there will be a significant difference in the level of accuracy toward their journalism counterparts.

On the other hand, it is hypothesized that the levels of agreement between the two groups will be higher if the action/event is perceived as unstable (the behavior is an exception to the professional/professions performance history), with strong external control and weak internal locus (low intentionality). Indeed, in this scenario, it is hypothesized that journalism and public relations educators will have similar, high congruency scores. Subsequently, accuracy scores between journalism educators and public relations educators will be high.

H2a: That there will not be a significant difference between the levels of congruency found among journalism and public relations educators.

H2b: That there will not be a significant difference between the two groups of respondents in terms of the coorientational variable agreement.

H2c: That there will not be a significant difference in the level of accuracy found among journalism and public relations educators.

By using a combination of attribution and coorientation theories, the reasons why coorientational discrepancies exist between these two groups can be clarified. Moreover, on the basis of results, strategies can be developed to overcome or reduce the gulf, and increase the levels of accuracy between the groups in the future.

4.0 METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This study was a Web-based, self-administered survey, circulated to two groups of respondents – journalism and public relations educators. As there were considerably more journalism educators available for investigation, the study surveyed a random sample of journalism educators, selected from the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication's (AEJMC) NEWSPAPER DIVISION and RADIO/TELEVISION DIVISION and the Society of Professional Journalists' (SPJ) STUDENT CHAPTERS. In addition, a census of public relations educators, selected from the PUBLIC RELATIONS DIVISION of AEJMC and the Public Relations Society of America's (PRSA) EDUCATORS ACADEMY was also surveyed in order to investigate both profession's attitudes toward public relations and public relations education.

Attribution and coorietation theories formed the basis of the study's theoretical framework. Essentially, the goal of this chapter is to provide a clear a complete description of the specific steps followed so that a naïve reader could replicate the study (Rudestam and Newton, 1992). This will be achieved by explaining the procedures, instruments, tools, timelines, and subject population used by the researcher.

4.2 Subject population

A large number of the journalism and public relations educators chosen to participate in this survey were selected from the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication's (AEJMC) 2001-2002 membership directory in March 2002.

> The AEJMC is an international association of some 3,300 journalism/mass communication faculty, students, administrators, and professionals. AEJMC's members come from more than 30 countries, with the majority working in the United States and Canada. Founded in 1912, AEJMC is the oldest and largest association of journalism and mass communication educators and administrators at the college level (AEJMC, 2002).

In addition to the AEJMC Directory, additional respondents were also drawn from two prominent professional organizations that represent both occupations – the Public Relations Society of America (PRSA) and the Society of Professional Journalists (SPJ). The mission of the PRSA is:

> to unify, strengthen and advance the profession of public relations, the Public Relations Society of America (PRSA) has established itself as the pre-eminent organization that builds value, demand and global understanding for public relations.
>
> PRSA is the world's largest organization for public relations professionals. Its nearly 20,000 members, organized worldwide in over 100 chapters, represent business and industry, technology, counseling firms, government, associations, hospitals, schools, professional services firms and nonprofit organizations

The SPJ, on the other hand,

> ...is dedicated to the perpetuation of a free press as the cornerstone of our nation and our liberty.
>
> To ensure that the concept of self-government outlined by the U.S. Constitution remains a reality into future centuries, the American people must be well informed in order to make decisions regarding their lives, and their local and national communities.

4.2.1 Drawing the sample: Public relations educators

The AEJMC is comprised of 27 divisions, commissions and special interest groups. One of these divisions is called PUBLIC RELATIONS, and is comprised of more than 500 members. It is considered to be the largest organization representing public relations educators in the world. Its members represent institutions of higher learning in the United States and about two dozen countries around the world. The relevant mailing list for this division was purchased from the AEJMC at a charge of $50. However, only 260 names were useable as just less than half were either graduate students or public relations practitioners, rather than educators and thus not eligible for inclusion in this study.

Another 124 respondents were selected from the EDUCATORS ACADEMY of the Public Relations Society of America's (PRSA) 2001-2002 membership directory. The Academy has 309 members and was established "to reach college and university public relations educators and practitioners who share in the commitment to improve the quality of teaching and scholarly research in the field." Here, there were only 124 useable names as many of the members of the Academy were also members of the AEJMC public relations division and, therefore, were included in the aforementioned AEJMC list.

Therefore, the total number of public relations educators who were sent a copy of the survey was 384.

4.2.2 Drawing the sample: Journalism educators

Journalism educators were selected from the 2001-2002 membership directory of the AEJMC's NEWSPAPER DIVISION and RADIO/TELEVISION JOURNALISM (RTVJ) DIVISION. The RTVJ DIVISION has more than 247 members and "focuses on the teaching, practice, study and research of broadcast news as a profession.... Its purpose is the improvement of education in electronic journalism." The NEWSPAPER DIVISION examines key concerns facing journalism education, the newspaper industry and society, and has approximately 550 members. These two groups combined represent 757 journalism educators.

Another 100 respondents chosen for inclusion in the study were the advisors of the student chapters of the Society of Professional Journalists (SPJ). The Society has roughly 1,157 journalism educator members (13 per cent of their total membership). Unfortunately, the SPJ does not publish a membership directory and there is no published list of their journalism educator members. For that reason, the directors of the various student chapters around the country (found on www.spj.org) were chosen as the representatives of this group. Indeed, many of the members included in the AEJMC journalism educator group were also members of the SPJ.

To select a random sample of the AEJMC journalism educator group, a systematic interval method was employed. The sampling interval was every third name (calculated as number in the sampling frame (284), divided by number of the sample (754) and rounded up. The starting point was selected by using a table of random numbers (Singletary, 1996).

According to Singletary (1996), a sample of 384 respondents is necessary in order to set the margin of error at 5 per cent with 95 per cent confidence level. This survey was sent via e-mail to a total of 768 respondents. The public relations educator group consisted of 384 respondents (260 from AEJMC and 124 from PRSA). In total, 384 journalism educators were also sent the survey (284 from AEJMC and 100 from SPJ). In order to ensure that all public relations educators are predominantly public relations specialists and not journalists who have elected to join that division just out of interest (and vice versa), all respondents were asked to indicate whether they were journalism or public relations educators at the beginning of the survey. This was in order to eliminate any confusion or overlap in responses.

4.3 Research and instrument design

As mentioned above, this study employs a Web-based survey research design that uses a coorientational approach (see Appendix 3). Data were collected at one point in time (March 2002) from the journalism and public relations educators selected to participate in the study. The survey was, broadly speaking, comprised of three sections. The first section (statements 1-35), using the coorientation approach, explored respondents' attitudes toward public relations in a professional and educational setting. In the second section of the survey (statements 36-55), the independent variables will be the attribution dimensions (locus, stability and external controllability) and the dependent variables will be the coorientation measures. Here, the extent to which attribution affects coorientation in relation to some of the sources of antagonism toward public relations and public relations practitioners that emerged in the literature was explored. In the third section relevant demographic data was gathered (questions 55-65).

Before detailing procedures that were used in the implementation of the survey, a brief discussion of the web-based survey employed in this study is presented.

4.3.1 The Web-based survey

According to Couper, Traugott and Lamias (2001), Internet surveys are proliferating at a rapid pace. Indeed, the technique's potential for both academic and applied research has become more widely acknowledged and assessed (Sheehan and Hoy, 1999). In addition, the technique has been lauded for offering the researcher the possibility of more rapid surveying than traditional techniques, and is more inexpensive since postage, printing, and/or interviewing costs are virtually eliminated (Schaefer and Dillman, 1998). A number of peer-reviewed articles examine the numerous benefits and drawbacks of web-based surveys, some of which are detailed below.

According to Sheehan and Hoy (1999), the key benefits of the e-mail/Internet survey include:

- *Penetration of e-mail* – As many as 300 million people worldwide use the Internet and 100 million have access to e-mail (Department of Commerce, 2000). Eighty per cent of all users use the Internet daily (Kehoe, Pitkow, and Morton, 1997). The number of individuals using the medium coupled with the frequency and ease of potential contact suggests that e-mail is a viable survey method. In terms of this study, an inspection of the directories (AEJMC and PRSA 2001-2002 Membership Directories) being used to draw samples indicates that almost all respondents have e-mail addresses. In cases where the respondent's e-mail address was not included, the researcher inserted the details provided in the directory (name and name of the academy) into a search engine and found the relevant e-mail address.

- *Accessibility of names* – Databases including names and other important information are a lot more available than in the past. For this study, the author had access to two directories (AEJMC and PRSA), but as the SPJ do not publish a directory, the researcher went to the organization's website to get names and contact information for student chapter directors.

- *Anonymity and confidentiality* – Respondents can be informed that anonymity can be guaranteed through the use of encryption technology, and confidentiality can be assured through confidentiality assurances. While Couper, Blair and Triplett (1997) argue that the lack of anonymity may not have any effect on response rate, many researchers choose to assure it. In this study respondents were assured confidentiality in all of the e-mails distributed. In addition, all respondents e-mail addresses inserted in the "B.C.C." box so that none of the respondents would know who else was receiving the survey, and to ensure that no one could press the "reply all" button and potentially 'spam' other respondents.

- *Cost benefits* – The costs involved in a web-based survey are considerable lower than its traditional counterparts (McCullough, 1998; Parker, 1992). Indeed, implementation costs are negligible, and data analysis can be simplified by using appropriate software. In this study, the cost factor is particularly relevant, as the researcher does not have access to the funds necessary to implement a mail-survey, which would cost approximately $1,000.

- *Ease and flexibility of responding* – According to Parker (1992), when respondents perceive that the technology as easy to use, they are more likely to respond. He also notes that the respondent has the choice of e-mailing, faxing or mailing the response, which may enhance the perception of ease of use. In the emails distributed to respondents it was indicated that printing a copy of the survey and faxing or mailing responses was acceptable. Both mail and fax information was provided.

- *Response rate benefits* – While there is no clear evidence that the e-mail survey produces a higher response rate than postal mail, Sheehan and Hoy claim that this is because many of these studies were from small, homogenous populations, which may not represent larger populations groups' response tendencies. In this study the response rate was 28.1 percent from the public relations educator group and 30.5 percent from the journalism educator group.

While there are obviously a number of benefits associated with the techniques, there are also some drawbacks. However, despite the disadvantages there are a number of strategies can be employed to overcome problems.

Mehta and Sivadas (1995) argue that researchers must recognize that respondents may consider unsolicited surveys as aggressive. However, Schilleweart, Langerak and Duhamel (1998) claim that minimizing the perception of intrusion could help overcome this problem. In this study, respondents were sent a "solicitation e-mail" (Appendix 4) one week in advance of the survey to ask their permission to participate. If they indicated that they do not want to participate, their name was removed from the sample and replaced with another name.

Schaefer and Dillman (1998) assert that while the e-mail survey is effective, a method to consistently achieve response rates as high as those delivered by mail surveys has not been developed. However, it has been found that the most powerful determinant of response rates is the number of attempts made to contact a sample unit (Dillman, Christianson and Brooks, 1974; Goyder 1985; Heberlein and Baumgartner 1978; Scott 1961). It appears that this multiple contacts 'rule' also apples to response rates in e-mail surveys (Mehta and Sivadas, 1995; Smith 1997). In this study, one week after the survey was first distributed a thank you/reminder email was sent (which included the URL address of the survey), and again a week after that.

Personalization is also considered to be an important element in increasing the response rate in mail surveys (Dillman 1978, 1991). Schaefer and Dillman claim that a personalized letter addressed to a specific individual shows the respondent that he or she is important. This technique was applied to e-mail sent to the respondents of this study (see Appendix 5). However, they add that it is important that e-mail messages are sent directly to individual respondents, not part of a mailing list. This has added benefit as respondents are prevented from responding to the other recipients of the survey, thus helping to ensure confidentiality. Again, as mentioned earlier, in this study respondents' addresses were inserted in the "B.C.C." box so the only email address that appeared on the mail was that of the researcher.

Finally, Schaefer and Dillman argue that another drawback of this technique lies in the fact that it is not yet known whether people tend to comprehend and respond to questions differently in a web format compared to mail methods. It also seems feasible that item non-response to e-mail surveys could be lower if the answer format is convenient. Finally, because entering answers on a keyboard may be easier for some people than writing by hand, they believe that it seems plausible that response to open-ended questions/statements would be more complete.

Yet, another issue that any survey research conducted via the Internet has to contend with, alongside their non-Internet counterpart, is sampling bias. Obviously, contact can only be made with those who can and do use the Internet. The relative exclusivity of current Internet use needs to be considered seriously but it does not preclude attempts to conduct useful research (Coomber, 1997). Indeed, depending on who and what is being researched, the issue of representativeness and sample bias will be of greater or lesser importance in comparison to the indicative data that has been collected. In this study this was not considered to be a major problem as all of the respondents have e-mail and by virtue of their educator status, are probably used to using e-mail on a frequent basis.

4.3.2 Measurement instrument

A five point Likert Scale was used in the first two sections of the survey (demographic questions constituted the last section). The Likert technique presented a set of attitude statements. Subjects were asked to express agreement or disagreement on a five-point scale. Each degree of agreement was given a numerical value from one to five. Thus a total numerical value can be calculated from all the responses. In both sections, an equal number of combinations were used to minimize any response set. Respondents were asked to answer each statement three times as follows:

> Please remember, there are no right or wrong answers. Your first thought is what I want. You will respond to each statement three times. The first answer is your personal opinion. Next, you will be asked how the majority of your peers would respond to the statement. Finally, if you are a public relations educator, "Other group's opinion" asks you to predict how the majority of journalism educators would respond to the statement. Likewise, if you are a journalism educator, "Other group's opinion" asks you to predict how the majority of public relations educators would respond to the statement.

4.3.3 Statement selection

As mentioned above, the survey was comprised of three sections and the statements that were selected by the researcher were gathered from a variety of different sources. In relation to the first section (statements 1-35), many of the statements replicated or were similar to those used in previous coorientation studies that explored the nature of the journalist / public relations practitioner relationship in the workplace (Aronoff, 1975; Jeffers, 1977; Kopenhaver, Martinson and Ryan, 1984). For statements 36-55, which examined the nature of their relationship in the academy, as previous studies have not explored this topic, all of the statements were gleaned by the researcher from the sections of the literature review that pertained to this topic.

4.4 Data collection

The survey was pre-tested with a small sample of faculty and graduate students to verify the categorical representation, and assess validity and comprehension. The pre-test determined that the directions for completing the survey were clear, and ultimately assisted the researcher in estimating an adequate sample size and the achievement of response goals.

According to Sheehan and Hoy (1999) it is imperative that one week before a survey is sent out, each prospective sample member receives a solicitation to participate via e-mail (Appendix 4), as unsolicited e-mail surveys are "clearly unacceptable" (Mehta and Sivadas, 1995). The solicitation e-mail for this study was sent out on March 14, 2002 and provided potential respondents with a choice not to receive the survey. In total, 70 respondents replied to the solicitation e-mail with a request not to receive the survey (55 of which were journalism educators and 15 were public relations educators).

After the solicitation message was sent, on March 20, 2002 a notification email that included the URL address of the survey was sent to all respondents. In this mail, instructions on completing the survey were provided, and the respondent was given the option of returning the survey either via e-mail, mail or fax (Appendix 5).

The survey was approximately 15 computer screens in length. Despite the fact that common sense suggests that shorter questionnaires should obtain higher response rates than longer questionnaires, research evidence does not support this view (Kanuk and Berenson, 1975). The instructions indicated that the survey should take approximately fifteen minutes to complete, and a requested response of "within the next few days" was given.

As there was no way to distinguish which respondents completed the survey and those who had not, all respondents received two thank you/reminder messages via e-mail, the first almost one week after the first notification had been sent on March 26, 2002 and the second a week later on April 2, 2002. The thank you/reminder e-mail thanked those who completed the survey, and requested that those who had not would do so in the next few days. The URL address of the survey was also be included in the survey. These follow-ups have been widely used in postal mail surveys, and tend to increase response rates (Kanuk and Berenson, 1975).

In total, 129 mails were undeliverable (76 from the journalism educator group and 53 from the public relations educator group). Taking these 'undeliverable' e-mails into account, the journalism educator group (originally n = 384) became n = 308, and therefore the response rate for that group was 30.5 percent (n = 94). In terms of the public relations educators (originally n = 384), this group became n = 331, and therefore the response rate was 28.1 percent (n = 93).

4.5 Analysis

Statistical analyses for this study were conducted using SPSS. In particular, descriptive statistics, factor analysis, paired samples *t*-tests, and multivariate and repeated measures analysis of variances were employed.

In the first section of the survey, descriptive statistics were gleaned to describe the basic features of the data in a study. They provided simple summaries about the sample and the measures. In addition, paired *t*-tests were also conducted. These were predominantly used to compare means on the same or related subjects in differing circumstances. Finally, a factor analysis was run, which enabled the researcher to analyze multiple measurements and look for underlying causes for any relationships between the measurements.

In the second section of the survey, in addition to the descriptive statistics and factor analyses, a repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was employed. This technique tested the equality of means.

Finally, with regard to the demographics, descriptive statistics and correlations were run. As a correlation is a single number that describes the degree of relationship that exists between two variables, the researcher established the extent to which demographic details affected coorientation levels.

5.0 RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to summarize the data collected and detail the statistical treatment of that data.

5.2 Description of respondents

Of the 187 respondents participating in the study almost 50 per cent (N = 93) were public relations educators and 50 per cent (N = 94) were journalism educators. In terms of gender, 40 per cent (N = 74) were female and 60 percent (N = 113) were male. (Please note that in some cases respondents did not respond to all statements and this is why subsequent frequencies may not always add up to 187). Table 5.1 indicates that 43 percent (N = 81) of respondents were aged 30-48, another 41 percent (N = 77) are aged 49-57, and the oldest group 58-57 contained 16 percent (N = 31). When asked what was the highest degree respondents held, 77 per cent (N = 147) replied "doctoral degree," almost 21 percent (n = 40) responded "master's degree," and 2.6 per cent (N = 5) only have a bachelor's degree.

As table 5.2 indicates, almost 31 per cent (N = 59) of the respondents reported enrollments of less than 10,000 at their institutions, 26 per cent (N = 50) with enrollments of 10,000 - 20,000, 21 per cent (N = 41) with enrollments of 20,000 - 30,000, and almost 22 per cent had enrollments of more than 30,000 (N = 41).

In terms of the location of respondents' institutions, table 5.3 illustrates how 28 per cent (N = 53) are located in the Midwest, 27 per cent (N = 51) in the southeast, almost 10 per cent (N = 18) in the southwest, just over 6 per cent (N = 12) in the northwest, and almost 29 per cent (N = 54) were listed as "other."[It should be mentioned at this time that the researcher mistakenly omitted "Northeast" from the list of locations, and this would account for the relatively large number of respondents in the "Other" group.]

Seventy-nine per cent (N = 150) of the respondents teach in publicly funded institutions. Fifty-five per cent (N = 103) of respondents' institutions belong to the *Accrediting Council for Education in Journalism and Mass Communications* (ACEJMC).

Interestingly, almost 27 per cent (N = 48) reported 6-10 years professional experience outside an academic setting; 25 per cent (N = 48) have 11-20 years; almost 24 per cent (N = 45) have 0-5 years; almost 20 per cent (N = 37) have 21-30 years; while over 2 per cent (N = 5) have more than 30 years and 2 per cent (N = 4) have no professional experience outside an academic setting (see table 5.4). Neither group was found to have significantly more or less professional experience than its counterpart.

Nearly 84 per cent (N =148) of the educators reported that they belonged to the *Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication*; almost 36 per cent (N = 63) to the *Public Relations Society of America*; almost 27 per cent (N = 47) to the *Society of Professional Journalists* and 51 per cent (N = 90) listed "other." Finally, about three quarters of the educators (N = 130) reported that public relations is located in the same unit as journalism in their institution.

When a chi-square test was run on each of the items in the demographics section, there were only significant values found for one variable - gender ($p < 0.001$). The extent to which gender may, or may not, have any bearing on the results will be discussed in more detail later in the chapter.

5.3 The creation of sub-scales: Factor analysis

The reason why factor analysis was chosen as a mode of analysis in this dissertation was to reduce and summarise the data. Using factor analysis, the relationships among inter-related variables are examined and represented in terms of a few underlying factors. Indeed, as a large number of variables were generated by this survey - most of which are correlated - factor analysis enabled the researcher to reduce the data to a more manageable level.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the first section of the survey employed a coorientation approach, which explored respondents' attitudes toward public relations in a professional (statements 1-17) and educational (statements 18-35) context. In the second section of the survey (statements 36-55), the independent variables were the attribution dimensions (locus, stability and external controllability), and the dependent variables were the coorientation measures (congruency, agreement and accuracy). Here, the extent to which attribution affects coorientation in relation to some of the sources of antagonism toward public relations and public relations practitioners that emerged in the literature was explored. As such, a principal-factors extraction with varimax rotation was performed on statements 1-17 and 18-35 first, and then on statements 36-55 using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

5.3.1 Factor analysis of statements exploring coorientation

Statements 1-17

The principal-factors analysis of statements 1-17 yielded four factors, which explored perceptions of public relations in a professional environment and had eigen values greater than 1.00 accounting for 55 per cent of the total variance. The eigen value for the first factor was 4.68, and the percentage of variance was 27.58 per cent. Using Cattell's scree test to identify the number of factors to be rotated, the author decided that a 2-factor solution provided the optimal number of interpretable factors without unduly reducing the percentage of total variance accounted for. Items that loaded less than 0.3 on any factor were eliminated, as were items with double-loadings greater than one-tenth difference on more than one factor. The factor analysis was then rerun. The 2-factor solution accounted for 39.93 per cent of the variance in the final scale, and the item-total correlations ranged from 0.485 to 0.782. Statement 8 was dropped because it was double loaded, and statements 10 and 16 were dropped from the analysis because they did not load on any factor.

The first factor, therefore, consisted of nine items, and the second of five factors. A summary of the rotated factor matrix and item-total correlations are presented in table 5.5. Items are ordered by size of loading to facilitate interpretation.

The first factor, with nine items, was labelled *Positive Public Relations* and had factor loadings ranging from 0.485 to 0.755. All of the items are related to the function of public relations in relation to the news media, and the extent to which practitioners are considered to be ethical and professional (see table 5.6).

The second factor, which contained five items, was labelled *Negative Public Relations.* It had factor loadings ranging from 0.50 to 0.78. All of the items were related to common criticisms levelled at public relations practitioners such as an overemphasis on publicity and the focus on the interests of the client rather than the public (table 5.7).

Table 5.1 Age of respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Under 30yrs	1	.5	.5
	30 - 48yrs	81	42.2	42.6
	49 - 57yrs	77	40.1	40.5
	58 - 77yrs	31	16.1	16.3
	Total	190	99.0	100.0
Missing	System	2	1.0	
Total		192	100.0	

Table 5.2 Average enrollments

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Less than 10,000	59	30.7	30.9
	10,000 - 20,000	50	26.0	26.2
	20,000 - 30,000	41	21.4	21.5
	More than 30,000	41	21.4	21.5
	Total	191	99.5	100.0
Missing	System	1	.5	
Total		192	100.0	

Table 5.3 Location of respondents' institution

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Midwest	53	27.6	28.2
	Southwest	18	9.4	9.6
	Southeast	51	26.6	27.1
	Northwest	12	6.3	6.4
	Other	54	28.1	28.7
	Total	188	97.9	100.0
Missing	System	4	2.1	
Total		192	100.0	

Table 5.4 Professional experience outside an academic setting

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	None	4	2.1	2.1
	0 - 5 years	45	23.4	23.7
	6 - 10 years	51	26.6	26.8
	11 - 20 years	48	25.0	25.3
	21 - 30 years	37	19.3	19.5
	More than 30 years	5	2.6	2.6
	Total	190	99.0	100.0
Missing	System	2	1.0	
Total		192	100.0	

Table 5.5 Rotated factor matrix for factors one and two

	Component	
	1	2
Q7 My Opinion	.755	
Q9 My Opinion	.702	
Q6 My Opinion	.636	
Q1 My Opinion	.596	
Q12 My Opinion	.591	
Q4 My Opinion	.587	
Q8 My Opinion	.586	-.527
Q3 My Opinion	.550	
Q11 My Opinion	.500	
Q13 My Opinion	.485	
Q15 My Opinion		.782
Q14 My Opinion		.753
Q2 My Opinion		.683
Q5 My Opinion		.641
Q17 My Opinion		.500
Q16 My Opinion		
Q10 My Opinion		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 5.6 Factor One (*Positive Public Relations*)

Q7	In covering the organization they represent, public relations practitioners extend journalists' newsgathering potential.
Q9	Public relations practitioners are typically people of good sense, good will and good moral character.
Q6	The abundance of free and easily available information provided by public relations practitioners has, on balance, improved the quality of reporting.
Q1	Public relations practitioners and the press are partners in the dissemination of information.
Q12*	Public relations practitioners' sole objective is to persuade and control publics.
Q4*	In general public relations threatens the legitimacy of an independent Press.
Q3	Public relations as an occupation is more ethical and professional than it was 10 years ago.
Q11	The journalist / public relations practitioner relationship is more cooperative than it was 10 years ago.
Q13	Public relations practitioners typically adhere to an established code of ethics.

* These items were reverse-coded

Table 5.7 Factor two (*Negative Public Relations*)

Q15*	Serving the public interest is more important than economic gain for most public relations practitioners.
Q14	Typically public relations practitioners' primary obligation is to the client/employer rather than the public interest.
Q2	Public relations practitioners too frequently insist on promoting products, services and other activities that are not newsworthy.
Q5	Public relations practitioners regularly clutter our channels of communication with pseudo-events and phoney phrases that confuse public issues.
Q17*	Public relations is generally recognized as providing a unique and essential service to the general public.

* These items were reverse-coded

Statements 18-35

The principal-factors analysis of statements 18-35, which explored perceptions of public relations in an academic environment, yielded five factors having eigen values greater than 1.00 accounting for 61.43 per cent of the total variance. The eigen value for the first factor was 5.02; percentage of variance 27.92 per cent. Using Cattell's scree test to identify the number of factors to be rotated, it was decided that a 3-factor solution provided the optimal number of interpretable factors without unduly reducing the percentage of total variance accounted for. Again, items that loaded less than 0.3 on any factor were eliminated, as were items with double-loadings greater than one-tenth difference on more than one factor. The factor analysis was then rerun. The 3-factor solution accounted for 47.67 per cent of the variance in the final scale, and the item-total correlations ranged from 0.364 to 0.75. Two items that were double-loaded were dropped (statements 29 and 30).

The first factor consisted of seven items, the second of six, and the third of three factors. A summary of the rotated factor matrix and item-total correlations appears in table 5.8.

The third factor, with seven items, was labelled *Status Journalism*, and had factor loadings ranging from 0.389 to 0.73. Five of the items are related to the negative status of public relations programs and students compared to their counterparts in the journalism department, and two items relate to the role of ethics on perceived professionalism (table 5.9).

The fourth factor, with six items, was labelled *Status Public Relations*, with factor loadings ranging from 0.505 to 0.75. All of the items were related to the role and contribution of public relations programs in a positive way (table 5.10). The fifth factor had three items and factor loadings of 0.463 and 0.653. It was labeled *Attitudes*. The three items relate to perceptions that journalism's association with public relations in the academy is not a good thing (table 5.11).

Factor reliability

The internal reliability of each of these five factors was tested using Cronbach's coefficient alpha (table 5.12). The results of four of the factors compare favorably with the alpha value of 0.60 recommended by Nunnally (1978) for scales to be used in basic research. The values for factor five were slightly lower than the recommended number so the researcher will have to be cautious when making generalizations about these items.

5.3.2 Factor analysis of statements 36-55: Effect of attribution on coorientation.

The principal-factors analysis of statements 35-55 yielded six factors having eigen values greater than 1.00 and accounting for 60.9 per cent of the total variance. The eigen value for the first factor was 4.1; percentage of variance 20.86 per cent. Using Cattell's scree test to identify the number of factors to be rotated, the author decided that a 4-factor solution provided the optimal number of interpretable factors without unduly reducing the percentage of total variance accounted for. The factor analysis was then rerun. The 4-factor solution accounted for 50.07 per cent of the variance in the final scale, and the item-total correlations ranged from 0.41 to 0.77.

Table 5.8 Rotated factor matrix for factors three, four and five

	Component		
	1	2	3
Q27 My Opinion	.730		
Q34 My Opinion	.727		
Q28 My Opinion	.687		.340
Q18 My Opinion	.636	-.347	
Q35 My Opinion	.576		
Q23 My Opinion	.527		
Q32 My Opinion	.389		
Q33 My Opinion		.750	
Q24 My Opinion		.739	
Q20 My Opinion		.727	
Q19 My Opinion	-.369	.687	
Q21 My Opinion	-.382	.594	-.373
Q31 My Opinion	-.307	.505	
Q22 My Opinion			.653
Q25 My Opinion			.651
Q30 My Opinion	.421		-.467
Q26 My Opinion			.463
Q29 My Opinion	.320		-.364

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 5.9 Factor three (*Status Journalism*)

Q27	Journalism students have a keener moral compass than their public relations counterparts.
Q34	Public relations practitioners that are accredited by a professional organization are more ethical than those who are not.
Q28	Journalism programs generally attract students with a more critical intellect than public relations programs do.
Q18	Journalism students require a broader education than public relations students.
Q35	Public relations practitioners that belong to professional organizations are more ethical than those who are not.
Q23	Public relations education is predominantly concerned with media relations.
Q32	Journalism education programs are generally more respected in the academy than public relations education programs.

Table 5.10 Factor four (*Status Public Relations*)

Q33	Public relations educators emphasize the importance of ethics and professionalism to their students.
Q24	Public relations programs teach students how to become strategic communication managers.
Q20	Public relations education has a strong body of knowledge and skills, based on theory and research in the field of public relations.
Q19	Generally speaking, public relations educators stress the importance of critical thinking skills and social responsibility to their students.
Q21*	The prestige and credibility of journalism education will be replaced by accusations of bias and subjectivity if it continues to be associated with public relations.
Q31	Public relations programs deliver a broader and more comprehensive curriculum than they did 10 years ago.

* This item was reverse-coded

Table 5.11 Factor five (Attitudes)

Q22	Journalism and public relations do not belong in the same department.
Q25	Journalism educators generally perceive dealing with public relations as a potential threat to the legitimacy and integrity of journalism.
Q26*	Journalism educators are typically excited by the possibilities that an integrated curriculum presents, and embrace journalism education's relationship with public relations education.

* This item was reverse-coded

Table 5.12 Internal reliability of factors 1-5

	Self Alpha:	Peer Alpha:	Other Alpha:
Factor one (*Positive Public Relations*)	.7930	.8687	.9166
Factor two (*Negative Public Relations*)	.7470	.7701	.8019
Factor three (*Status Journalism*)	.7768	.8265	.7951
Factor four (*Status Public Relations*)	.8008	.8511	.8969
Factor five (*Attitudes*)	.4931	.5134	.5456

Reliability

The internal reliability of each of these four factors was tested using the coefficient alpha. However, the results of three of the factors did not compare favorably with the alpha value of 0.60 recommended by Nunnally, and so the factor analysis was re-run using two factors to see if this would improve the reliability scores.

Factor analysis: Second attempt

The 2-factor solution accounted for 34.26 per cent of the variance in the final scale, and the item-total correlations ranged from 0.30 to 0.77. The first factor consisted of nine items and the second contained eight. Three items (statements 53, 54, 55) did not load on any factor and were, therefore, dropped from the analysis. A summary of the rotated factor matrix and the item-total correlations are presented in table 5.13. Items are ordered by size of loading to facilitate interpretation.

The sixth factor, with ten items, was labelled *Negative Internal*, with factor loadings ranging from 0.304 to 0.773. All of the items relate to some of the negative aspects of public relations that are caused by internal attributes, and their effect on their job and relationship with the news media (table 5.14). The seventh factor, with eight items, was labelled *Negative External,* with factor loadings ranging from 0.313 to 0.721. All of the items were related to external factors that influence the interpersonal relationship between practitioners and journalists in both a professional and educational setting (see table 5.15).

Reliability: Second attempt

When one item was removed (statement 51) from factor seven, the internal consistencies for these two factors yielded Cronbach's alpha coefficients coefficients favorable to the alpha value of 0.60 recommended by Nunnally (table 5.16).

5.3.2 Factor means

The factor means indicate that in relation to the majority of the items, on average there does not appear to be a large difference between respondents' scores on each of the six factors. In the next section of this chapter, a more thorough exploration of any differences that may occur in relation public relations educators and journalism educators will be examined (table 5.17).

5.4 The research questions

For each of the 55 statements that were included in this survey, each respondent gave his/her own rating and also a projection of how their peers would answer. Respondents were also asked to estimate how educators from the "other" group (if they were a public relations educator, "other" referred to journalism educators and vice versa) would respond to the same statements. The means for the self-report ratings in this study offer a contemporary rating of respondents' respective attitudes toward public relations in both a professional and educational setting.

Table 5.13 Rotated factor matrix for factors six and seven

	Component	
	1	2
Q38 My Opinion	.773	
Q36 My Opinion	.750	
Q43 My Opinion	.748	-.348
Q44 My Opinion	.685	
Q41 My Opinion	.667	
Q37 My Opinion	.547	
Q47 My Opinion	.527	
Q52 My Opinion	.490	.358
Q50 My Opinion	.477	
Q40 My Opinion	.304	.721
Q45 My Opinion		.720
Q42 My Opinion		.579
Q48 My Opinion		.516
Q46 My Opinion		.394
Q39 My Opinion		.386
Q49 My Opinion		.363
Q51 My Opinion		-.313
Q55 My Opinion		
Q53 My Opinion		
Q54 My Opinion		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 5.14 Factor six (Negative Internal)

Q38	Generally speaking, public relations practitioners are not as trustworthy as journalists.
Q36	Public relations practitioners typically deceive the press by attaching too much importance to trivial, uneventful happenings.
Q43	Public relations practitioners have been called "parasites" by the press -- and that characterization is true.
Q44	Public relations practitioners are typically obstructionists, keeping journalists from the people they need to see.
Q41	Public relations practitioners routinely ignore such journalistic values as newsworthiness and relevance to the reader/viewer.
Q37	If public relations practitioners "play with the facts," it's because that's the only way they'll get their story published.
Q47	Generally speaking, journalism educators are suspicious of public relations education because their value systems are so different from one another.
Q52	If public relations educators stress the importance of publicity and promotion to students it's because that is what employers expect from public relations graduates.
Q50	Public relations educators do not teach students how to wrangle "free publicity" for clients, that's a misnomer and misinterprets the nature of modern public relations education.

Table 5.15 Factor seven (*Negative External*)

Q40	Sometimes public relations practitioners promote pseudo-events because that's what the client/employer expects from them.
Q45	Many journalists' stereotypes of public relations practitioners are based on negative experiences they have had with some "bad apples."
Q42	The press depends on information provided by public relations practitioners because of inadequate staffing levels in most newspapers.
Q48	At times, journalism educators "lock horns" with their public relations educator counterparts because each group is fighting for limited resources in the department or college.
Q46	Negative attitudes toward public relations are due to journalists' built in suspicion of the occupation, rather than the failings of individual practitioners.
Q39	If public relations practitioners fail to act in the public interest it's due to organizational pressures outside of their control.
Q49	If public relations and journalism educators clash with one another, it's because of misunderstandings about their respective functions.
Q51*	Any credibility issues that journalism educators may encounter are partly due to their association with public relations in the academy.

* Item was reverse coded

To achieve coorientational insight into the level of *congruency*, respondents' (within the public relations educator or journalism educator group) self–reports are compared to projections of "other group" responses. To achieve a coorientation measurement, repeated measures analyses of variance was conducted and if found to be statistically significant, a paired samples t-test was then run to compare the means.

When respondents' self–reports are compared to the self-reports of members of the other group, a coorientational insight into the level of *agreement* that exists between the two groups was obtained by running multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA).

Finally, when educators' self-reports were compared to their projections of how the "other" group would respond, a coorientational insight into the level of *accuracy* that exists between the two groups is obtained. Once again, to achieve this statistic two MANOVAs were run to calculate accuracy within the public relations and journalism educators groups respectively. [Note: A mean score of 1 - 1.7 = Strongly disagree; 1.8 - 2.6 = Disagree; 2.7 - 3.4 = Neutral; 3.5 - 4.2 = Agree; and 4.3 - 5=Strongly agree.]

5.4.1 RQ1: What are respondents' attitudes toward public relations in a general professional setting and is there a significant difference in the levels of coorientation (congruency, agreement and accuracy) between the two groups?

Congruence

Repeated measures analysis of variance indicated that there was a significant difference between the two groups of respondents in relation to the coorientation variable *congruence* for the two factors chosen for analysis ($p<0.001$).

Table 5.16 Reliabilities for factors six and seven

	Self Alpha:	Peers Alpha:	Others Alpha:
Factor six (*Negative internal*)	.8144	.8730	.8876
Factor seven (*Negative external*)	.6240	.6050	.6154

Table 5.17 Factor means

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Positive PR_Self score	191	1.67	5.00	3.6233	.6387
Positive PR_Peers score	188	1.00	5.00	3.4323	.7470
Positive PR_Others score	183	1.11	5.00	3.3530	.9147
NegativePR_Self score	191	1.20	5.00	3.4945	.7628
NegativePR_Peersscore	187	1.20	5.00	3.4856	.7847
NegativePR_Others score	183	1.00	5.00	3.3899	.9382
Journalism Status_Self score	191	1.00	4.83	2.6041	.7572
Journalism Status_Peer score	184	1.00	5.00	2.8218	.8216
Journalism Status_Other score	183	1.00	4.71	2.9876	.7862
PR Status_Self score	191	1.67	5.00	3.8564	.6680
PR Status_Peers score	184	1.00	5.00	3.6611	.7659
PR Status_Other score	183	1.17	5.00	3.5102	.8431
Association_Self score	191	1.33	5.00	3.1117	.8251
Association_Peer score	184	1.33	5.00	3.2781	.7959
Association_Other score	183	1.00	5.00	3.1111	.8477
Negative Internal_Self score	190	1.11	4.22	2.6004	.6895
Negative Internal_Peer score	183	1.11	5.00	2.7539	.8053
Negative Internal_Other score	182	1.00	5.00	2.9064	.8614
Negative External_Self score	189	1.00	4.86	3.5918	.5445
Negative External_Peers score	181	1.00	4.71	3.5744	.5187
Negative External_Other score	180	1.00	4.83	3.5327	.5443
Valid N (listwise)	178				

In relation to factor one, *Positive Public Relations*, which included items relating to the function of public relations and the extent to which practitioners are viewed as ethical and professional, a significant difference was found to exist between both groups of respondents' self-scores when compared to their "other" scores ($F(1, 177) = 274.104$, $p < 0.001$). The paired samples *t*-test in table 5.18 illustrates how public relations educators agreed with the statements more than they perceived their journalism counterparts would (PR self =3.9 vs. PR other=2.7). Journalism educator's disagreed with the statements more than they perceived their public relations counterparts would (J self =3.3 vs. J other=3.9).

For factor two, *Negative Public Relations*, which related to common criticisms levelled at public relations practitioners, such as an overemphasis on publicity and the focus on the interests of the client rather than the public, a significant difference was also found to exist between respondents' self-scores when compared to their "other" scores ($F(1, 177) = 226.267$, $p < 0.001$). Perhaps not surprisingly, public relations educators disagreed with the statements (table 5.19) more than they perceived their journalism counterparts would (PR self =3.1 vs. PR other=4.0). Journalism educators' agreed with the statements more than they perceived their public relations counterparts would (J self =3.7 vs. J other=2.7).

Agreement

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) indicated that there was a significant difference between the two groups of respondents in relation to the coorientation variable *agreement* for these two factors ($F(2, 183) = 31.602$, $p < 0.001$).

For factor one, *Positive Public Relations*, table 5.20 illustrates that public relations educators agreed with the statements more than their journalism counterparts did (PR self =3.9 vs. J self=3.3).

In relation to factor two, *Negative Public Relations*, public relations educators' disagreed with the statements more than their journalism counterparts did (table 5.20) (PR self =3.1 vs. J self=3.7).

Accuracy

1) Public relations educators

A MANOVA indicated that in relation to *accuracy*, among public relations educators there was a significant difference between their "other" scores when compared to journalism educators' self-scores ($F (4, 179)=15.574$, $p < 0.001$).

Indeed, for factor one (*Positive Public Relations*), public relations educators' perceptions of how their journalism counterparts would respond was inaccurate when compared to how journalists actually scored. Table 5.21 illustrates how public relations educators believed that journalism educators would disagree with the statements more than they actually did (PR other =2.7 vs. J self=3.3).

Table 5.18 Congruence: Estimated means for factor one

Category		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Public relations educator	Positive PR_Self	3.9037	91	.5706	5.981E-02
	Positive PR_Other	2.7763	91	.6150	6.447E-02
Journalism educator	Positive PR_Self	3.3542	88	.5910	6.300E-02
	Positive PR_Other	3.9553	88	.7552	8.050E-02

Table 5.19 Congruence: Estimated means for factor two

Category		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Public relations educator	Negative PR_Self	3.1945	91	.7590	7.956E-02
	Negative PR_Other	4.0198	91	.6211	6.511E-02
Journalism educator	Negative PR_Self	3.7563	88	.6475	6.903E-02
	Negative PR_Other	2.7267	88	.7590	8.091E-02

Table 5.20 Agreement: Estimated means for factors one and two

Dependent Variable	Category	Mean	Std. Error
Positive PR_Self	1 Public relations educator	3.904	.059
	2 Journalism educator	3.345	.061
Negative PR_Self	1 Public relations educator	3.190	.079
	2 Journalism educator	3.784	.067

In terms of factor two (*Negative Public Relations*), public relations educators believed that the other group would agree with these statements more than they actually did (PR other =4.0 vs. J self=3.7) (See table 5.21).

2) Journalism educators

There was a significant difference between this group's "other" scores when compared to public relations educators' self scores ($F(2, 178)=9.278$, $p < 0.001$). However, the Tests of Between-Subjects Effects revealed that there was not a significant difference for factor one ($F(1, .120)=.270$, $p >.001$).

Indeed, for factor one (*Positive Public Relations*), it appears that journalism educators' perceptions of their counterparts' responses was accurate (table 5.22). Journalism educators believed that public relations educators would agree with these statements, and they did (J other =3.9 vs. PR self=3.9).

For factor two (*Negative Public Relations*), table 5.22 illustrates how journalism educators' views of public relations educators was inaccurate. Journalism educators perceived that their counterparts would disagree with the statements slightly more than public relations educators actually did (J other =2.7 vs. PR self=3.1).

5.4.2 *RQ2: What are respondents' attitudes toward public relations in an educational setting and is there a significant difference in the levels of coorientation (congruency, agreement and accuracy) between the two groups?*

Congruence

In relation to the coorientation variable *congruence,* for the factors chosen for analysis *(Status Journalism, Status Public Relations, and Attitudes*), a significant difference was found to exist between the two groups of respondents ($p < 0.001$).

For factor three, *Status Journalism*, which related to the status of public relations programs and students as lower compared to their counterparts in the journalism department, a significant difference was found to exist between respondents' self-scores when compared to their other scores ($F(1, 177) = 256.268$, $p < 0.001$). Table 5.23 illustrates how public relations educators disagreed with the statements more than they believed their journalism counterparts would (PR self =2.2 vs. PR other=3.4). Journalism educators' disagreed with the statements, but perceived that their public relations counterparts would disagree more (J self =2.9 vs. J other=2.4).

For factor four, *Status Public Relations*, which included statements that defined public relations students and programs in a positive way, a significant difference existed between respondents' self-scores when compared to their other scores ($F(1, 177) = 228.542$, $p < 0.001$). Table 5.24 illustrates how public relations educators agreed with the statements, but perceived that journalism educators would disagree more (PR self =4.1 vs. PR other=2.9. Journalism educator's agreed with the statements, but not as much as they perceived their counterparts would (J self =3.6 vs. J other=4.0).

For factor five, *Attitudes*, which included statements that describe how public relations programs are made to feel unwelcome by journalists in the academy, a significant difference was found to exist between respondents' self-scores when compared to their other scores ($F(1, 177) = 17.185$, $p< 0.001$). Public relations educators disagreed with the statements more than they predicted journalism educators would (PR self =3.2 vs. PR other=3.4). Journalism educators disagreed with the statements and believed that public relations educators would disagree slightly more so (J self =2.9 vs. J other=2.7) (see table 5.25).

Agreement

The MANOVA indicated that there was a significant difference between the two groups of respondents in relation to the coorientation variable *agreement* for the factors chosen for analysis ($F(3, 182) = 30.972$, $p < 0.001$).

For the third sub-scale tested, *Status Journalism*, public relations educators tended to disagree with the statements much more than their journalism counterparts did (PR self =2.2 vs. J self=2.9) (see table 5.26).

Factor four, *Status Public Relations* (see table 5.26), public relations educators agreed with these statements more than journalism educators did (PR self =4.1 vs. J self=3.6).

In relation to the final factor, *Attitudes*, public relations educators agreed with the items slightly more than their journalism counterparts (table 5.26) (PR self =3.2 vs. J self=2.9).

Table 5.21 Accuracy (PR educators): Estimated means for factors one and two

Dependent Variable	Category	Mean	Std. Error
Positive PR_Accuracy among PR educators	PR educator's "other" score	2.776	.063
	Journalism educator's "self" score	3.345	.062
Negative PR_Accuracy among PR educators	PR educator's "other" score	4.020	.066
	Journalism educator's "self" score	3.784	.066

Table 5.22 Accuracy (Journalism educators): Estimated means for factors one & two

Dependent Variable	Category	Mean	Std. Error
Positive PR_Accuracy among J-educators	PR educator's "self" score	3.904	.069
	Journalism educator's "other" score	3.955	.071
Negative PR_Accuracy among J-educators	PR educator's "self" score	3.190	.079
	Journalism educator's "other" score	2.727	.081

Table 5.23 Congruence: Estimated means for factor three

Category		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Public relations educator	Status Journalism_Self	2.2183	90	.6014	6.340E-02
	Status Journalism_Other	3.4953	90	.6054	6.382E-02
Journalism educator	Status Journalism_Self	2.9891	89	.7096	7.521E-02
	Status Journalism_Other	2.4783	89	.6033	6.395E-02

Accuracy

i) Public relations educators

The MANOVA indicated that there was a significant difference between the two groups of respondents in relation to the coorientation variable *accuracy* for all of the factors chosen for analysis ($F(3, 180)=18.791$, $p < 0.001$).

With regard to factor three (*Status Journalism*), it appears that public relations educators' perceptions of how their journalism counterparts would respond was inaccurate when compared to how journalists actually responded (table 5.27). Public relations educators believed that journalism educators would agree with the statements more than journalism educators actually did (PR other =3.4 vs. J self=2.9).

In terms of factor four (*Status Public Relations*), public relations educators believed that the other group would disagree with the statements more than they actually did (PR other =2.9 vs. J self=3.6) (see table 5.27). Again, for factor five (*Attitudes*) public relations educators believed that the other group would agree with the statements more then journalism educators actually did (PR other =3.4 vs. J self=2.9) (see table 5.27).

ii) Journalism Educators

The MANOVA indicated that there was a significant difference between the two groups of respondents in relation to *accuracy* for the three factors chosen for analysis ($F(3, 177)=11.961$, $p < 0.005$). However, the tests of between-subjects effects indicated that there was not a significant difference for factor four (*Status Public Relations*) (F(1, .297)=.625, p>.001).

For factor three (*Status Journalism*), there was low accuracy among the journalism educator group who perceived that their public relations counterparts would agree with the statements more than they actually did (J other =2.4 vs. PR self=2.2) (table 5.28).
As mentioned above, for factor four (*Status Public Relations*) there was a high level of accuracy among journalism educators. Journalism educators perceived that their public relations counterparts would agree with the statements and they actually did (J other =4.0 vs. PR self=4.1) (Table 5.28).

In terms of factor five (*Attitudes*), there was lower accuracy between the two groups of respondents. Journalism educators perceived that their public relations counterparts would disagree with the statements more than they actually did (J other =2.7 vs. PR self=3.2) (see table 5.28).

5.5 The research hypotheses

In this study it was also hypothesized that the three causal dimensions of attribution would affect respondents' levels of coorientation (especially accuracy) and their subsequent attitude towards one another in predictable ways.

5.5.1 Hypothesis One

H1a: That the level of congruency found among journalism educators will be higher than that found among their public relations counterparts.

Congruence

Hypothesis 1(a) was supported. A repeated measures analysis of variance identified that there was a significant difference between the two groups of respondents in relation to the coorientation variable *congruence* for the factors chosen for analysis. In relation the two factors in this category a significant difference was found to exist between the two groups of respondents ($F(1,176)=230.987$, $p < 0.001$).

For factor six, *Negative Internal*, which included items that relate to some of the negative aspects of public relations that are caused by internal attributes, and their effect on their job and relationship with the press, public relations educators disagreed with the statements and perceived that their journalism counterparts would agree more (PR self =2.2 vs. PR other=3.4) (table 5.29). Journalism educators' agreed with the statements more than they perceived their public relations counterparts would (J self =2.9 vs. J other=2.3).

H1b: That there will be a significant difference between the two groups of respondents in terms of the coorientational variable agreement.

Agreement

Hypothesis 1(b) was supported. A univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that there was a significant difference between the two groups of respondents in relation to the coorientation variable *agreement* for the factors chosen for analysis ($F= 62.125$, $p < 0.001$).

For factor six, *Negative Internal*, it appears (see table 5.30) that public relations educators disagreed with the statements and thought that journalism educators would agree with the statements more (PR self =2.2 vs. J self=2.9).

H1c: That among public relations educators there will be a significant difference in the level of accuracy toward their journalism counterparts.

Accuracy

i) Public relations educators

Hypothesis 1(c) was supported. A univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that there was a significant difference between the two groups of respondents in relation to the coorientation variable *accuracy* for the factors chosen for analysis ($F(1, 10.849)=30.031$, $p < 0.001$). With regard to factor six (*Negative Internal*), it appears that public relations educators' perceptions of how their journalism counterparts would respond was inaccurate when compared to how journalists actually scored (Table 5.31). Public relations educators believed that journalism educators would agree with the statements more than they actually did (PR other =3.4 vs. J self=2.9).

Table 5.24 Congruence: Estimated means for factor four

Category		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Public relations educator	Status PR_Self	4.1078	90	.6503	6.854E-02
	Status PR_other	2.9915	90	.5829	6.144E-02
Journalism educator	Status PR_Self	3.6127	89	.5970	6.328E-02
	Status PR_other	4.0371	89	.7284	7.721E-02

Table 5.25 Congruence: Estimated means for factor five

Category		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Public relations educator	Attitudes_Self	3.2148	90	.7710	8.127E-02
	Attitudes_Other	3.4741	90	.7275	7.669E-02
Journalism educator	Attitudes_Self	2.9476	89	.8194	8.686E-02
	Attitudes_Other	2.7341	89	.7792	8.259E-02

Table 5.26 Agreement: Estimated means for factor three, four and five

Dependent Variable	Category	Mean	Std. Error
Status Journalism_Self	1 Public relations educator	2.220	.068
	2 Journalism educator	2.994	.068
Status PR_Self	1 Public relations educator	4.118	.065
	2 Journalism educator	3.612	.064
Attitude_Self	1 Public relations educator	3.246	.084
	2 Journalism educator	2.975	.083

H1d: That among journalism educators there will not be a significant difference in the level of accuracy toward their public relations counterparts.

ii) Journalism Educators

Hypothesis 1(d) was supported. A MANOVA indicated that there was not a significant difference between the two groups of respondents in relation to *accuracy* for the factors chosen for analysis ($F(1, .618)=1.404$, $p > 0.001$). For factor six (*Negative Internal*), journalism educators' perceptions of how public relations educators would respond was accurate when compared to how public relations educators actually scored (table 5.32). Journalism educators believed that public relations educators would disagree with the statements and they did (PR self =2.2 vs. J other=2.3).

5.5.2 Hypothesis Two

H2a: That there will not be a significant difference between the levels of congruency found among journalism and public relations educators.

Congruence

Hypothesis 2(a) was unsupported. A repeated measures analysis of variance identified a significant difference between the two groups of respondents in relation to the coorientation variable *congruence* for the factors chosen for analysis ($F(1, 174)=37.339$, $p < 0.001$). For factor seven, *Negative External*, where all of the items were related to external factors that influence the interpersonal relationship between practitioners and journalists in both a professional and educational setting, public relations educators agreed with the statements slightly more than they perceived their journalism counterparts would (PR self =3.6 vs. PR other=3.3). Table 5.33 also illustrates how journalism educators disagreed slightly with the statements more than they believed their public relations counterparts would (J self =3.5 vs. J other=3.6).

H2b: That there will not be a significant difference between the two groups of respondents in terms of the coorientational variable agreement.

Agreement

Hypothesis 2(b) was supported. An ANOVA indicated that there was not a significant difference between the two groups of respondents in relation to the coorientation variable *agreement* for this factor (($F(1, .519)=1.731$, $p < 0.001$). In relation to factor seven, *Negative External*, both public relations and journalism educators (see table 5.34) responded to the statements similarly (PR self =3.6 vs. J self=3.5).

Table 5.27 Accuracy (PR educators): Estimated means for factors three, four and five

Dependent Variable	Category	Mean	Std. Error
Status Journalism_Accuracy among PR educators	PR educator "other" scores	3.495	.070
	J-educator "self" scores	2.994	.068
StatusPR_Accuracy among PR educators	PR educator "other" scores	2.991	.062
	J-educator "self" scores	3.612	.061
Attitudes_Accuracy among PR educators	PR educator "other" scores	3.474	.082
	J-educator "self" scores	2.975	.080

Table 5.28 Accuracy (Journalism educators): Estimated means for factors three, four and five

Dependent Variable	Category	Mean	Std. Error
Status Journalism_Accuracy among J-educators	PR educator "self"scores	2.220	.062
	Journalism educator "other" scores	2.478	.064
Status PR_Accuracy among J-educators	PR educator "self"scores	4.118	.072
	Journalism educator "other" scores	4.037	.073
Attitudes_Accuracy among J-educators	PR educator "self"scores	3.246	.082
	Journalism educator "other" scores	2.734	.083

Table 5.29 Congruence: Estimated means for factor six

	Category	Mean	N	Std. Error Mean
Negative internal_Self	Public relations educator	2.2471	90	6.271E-02
	Journalism educator	2.9189	88	6.410E-02
Negative internal_Other	Public relations educator	3.4282	90	6.301E-02
	Journalism educator	2.3647	88	7.784E-02

Table 5.30 Agreement: Estimated means for factor six

Dependent Variable	Category	Mean	Std. Error
Negative internal_Self	Public relations educator	2.248	.062
	Journalism educator	2.941	.062

Table 5.31 Accuracy (PR educators): Estimated means for factor six

Dependent Variable	Category	Mean	Std. Error
Negative internal_Accuracy among PR educators	PR educator's "other" score	3.428	.063
	Journalism educator's "self" score	2.941	.062

H1c: That there will not be a significant difference in the level of accuracy found among journalism and public relations educators.

Accuracy

i) Public relations educators

Hypothesis 2(c) was only partially supported. A MANOVA indicated that there was a significant difference between the two groups of respondents in relation to the coorientation variable *accuracy* among public relations educators for of the factor chosen for analysis (($F(1, .997)=4.049$, $p > 0.001$).

For factor seven (*Negative External*), it appears that public relations educators perceptions of how their journalism counterparts would respond was inaccurate when compared to how journalists actually scored (table 5.35). Public relations educators believed that journalism educators would disagree with the statements more than they actually did (PR other =3.3 vs. J self=3.5).

ii) Journalism Educators

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) indicated that there was not a significant difference between the two groups of respondents ($F(1, 5.323)=.159$, $p > 0.001$) and so this portion of the hypothesis was supported. For this factor (*Negative External*), journalism educators were accurate in their perception of how public relations educators would respond (PR other =3.6 vs. J self=3.6) (see table 5.36).

5.6 Post hoc analysis

As mentioned previously, when a chi-square test was run on each of the items in the demographics section, there were only significant values for one variable - gender ($p < 0.001$). To investigate the extent to which any differences existed in relation to male and female respondents, post hoc analyses consisting of MANOVAs and repeated measure ANOVAs of each of the seven factors in relation to the coorientation variables were also conducted. The results of these tests are presented herewith.

5.6.1 Congruency

i) Factor one: *Positive Public Relations*

A MANOVA indicated that a significant difference between male and female respondents was found to exist in relation to the first factor ($F(1, 179)=4.081$, $p<.05$). When a paired samples t-test was conducted it emerged that there is a significant difference within the female group ($p<.001$). Table 5.37 illustrates how female respondents' agree with the statements more than they perceived that members of the "other" group would (female self=3.6 vs. female other=3.2).

ii) Factor two: *Negative Public Relations*

A MANOVA indicated that a significant difference between male and female respondents was found to exist in relation to this factor ($F(1, 179)=4.932$, $p<.05$). There was a significant difference within the male group ($p<.05$). Table 5.38 illustrates how male respondents' tended to agree with the statements more than they perceived members of the "other" group would (male self=3.5 vs. male other=3.2).

Table 5.32 Accuracy (Journalism educators): Estimated means for factor six

Dependent Variable	Category	Mean	Std. Error
Negative internal_Accuracy among J-educators	PR educator's "self" score	2.248	.069
	Journalism educator's "other" score	2.365	.071

Table 5.33 Congruence: Estimated means for factor seven

	Category	Mean	N	Std. Error Mean
Negative external_Self	Public relations educator	3.6297	89	6.012E-02
	Journalism educator	3.5380	87	5.730E-02
Negative external_Other	Public relations educator	3.3899	89	4.997E-02
	Journalism educator	3.6787	87	6.240E-02

Table 5.34 Agreement: Estimated means for factor six

Dependent Variable	Category	Mean	Std. Error
Negative external_Self	Public relations educator	3.644	.057
	Journalism educator	3.538	.057

Table 5.35 Accuracy (PR educators): Estimated means for factor seven

Dependent Variable	Category	Mean	Std. Error
Negative external_Accuracy among PR educators	PR educator's "other" score	3.390	.053
	Journalism educator's self score	3.538	.051

iii) Factor three – *Status Journalism*

A MANOVA indicated that a significant difference between male and female respondents was found to exist ($F(1, 179)=8.338$, $p<.05$). It appears that a significant difference exists within the female group ($p<.05$). Table 5.39 illustrates how female respondents' tended to disagree with the statements more than they perceived members of the "other" group would (female self=2.4 vs. female other=3.1).

iv) Factor four – *Status Public Relations*

A MANOVA indicated that a significant difference between male and female respondents ($F(1, 179)=7.934$, $p<.05$). A significant difference was found within the female group ($p<.05$). Table 5.40 illustrates how female respondents tended to agree with the statements more than they perceived members of the "other" group would (female self=3.9 vs. female other=3.3).

v) Factor five – *Attitudes*

A MANOVA indicated that there was not a significant difference between male and female respondents in relation to this factor.

vi) Factor six – *Negative Internal*

A MANOVA indicated that a significant difference between male and female respondents was found to exist ($F(1, 178)=6.299$, $p<.05$). A significant difference was found to exist within the female group ($p<.05$). Table 5.41 illustrates how female respondents' tended to disagree with the statements more than they perceived members of the "other" group would (female self=2.4 vs. female other=3.0).

vii) Factor seven – *Negative External*

Repeated measures ANOVA indicated that there was not a significant difference between male and female respondents in relation to factor six.

5.6.2 Agreement

i) Factor One and Two: *Positive Public Relations and Negative Public Relations*

A MANOVA indicated that a significant difference does not exist between male and female respondents in relation to these two factors.

ii) Factors three, four and five: *Journalism Status, Status Public Relations, and Attitudes*

A MANOVA indicated that a significant difference does not exist between male and female respondents in relation to these three factors.

iii) Factor six and seven: *Negative Internal and Negative Ex*ternal

Two ANOVAs indicated that a significant difference does not exist between male and female respondents in relation to these two factors.

5.6.3 Accuracy

i) Factors one and two

A MANOVA indicated that a there was not a significant difference between male and female respondents in relation to the first two factors – *Positive Public Relations and Negative Public Relations.*

ii) Factors three, four and five

A MANOVA indicated that there was not a significant difference between male and female respondents in relation to factors three, four and five.

iii) Factors six and seven

An ANOVA indicated that a there was not a significant difference between male and female respondents in relation to the two factors – *Negative Internal and Negative External.*

Table 5.36 Accuracy (Journalism educators): Estimated means for factor seven

Dependent Variable	Category	Mean	Std. Error
Negative external_Accuracy among J-educators	PR educator "self" score	3.644	.061
	Journalism educator "other" score	3.679	.062

Table 5.37 Congruence*Gender: Estimated means for factor one

Gender		Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Female	Positive PR_Self	3.6728	72	.6844
	Positive PR_Other	3.2060	72	.8283
Male	Positive PR_Self	3.5973	109	.6126
	Positive PR_Other	3.4657	109	.9568

Table 5.38 Congruence*Gender: Estimated means for factor two

Gender		Mean	N
Female	Negative PR_Self	3.4049	72
	Negative PR_Other	3.5507	72
Male	Negative PR_Self	3.5330	109
	Negative PR_Other	3.2688	109

Table 5.39 Congruence*Gender: Estimated means for factor three

Gender		Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Female	Status journalism_Self	2.4418	72	.7105
	Status journalism_Other	3.1218	72	.7400
Male	Status journalism_Self	2.7038	109	.7703
	Status journalism_Other	2.8869	109	.8066

Table 5.40 Congruence*Gender: Estimated means for factor four

Gender		Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Female	Status PR_Self	3.9829	72	.6596
	Status PR_Other	3.3963	72	.7834
Male	Status PR_Self	3.7581	109	.6590
	Status PR_Other	3.5979	109	.8746

Table 5.41 Congruence*Gender: Estimated means for factor six

Gender		Mean	N	Std. Deviation
1 Female	Negative internal_Self	2.4464	71	.6863
	Negative internal_Other	3.0222	71	.8137
2 Male	Negative internal_Self	2.6735	109	.6791
	Negative internal_Other	2.8160	109	.8860

6.0 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter the results of the survey will be summarized, evaluated, and interpreted with respect to the original research questions and hypotheses. In addition, the theoretical and practical consequences of the results and the validity of the results will be discussed.

To summarize, in this study journalism educators provided stronger evidence of coorientational accuracy than their public relations counterparts. When asked to project themselves as the opposite group, journalism educators were better at predicting public relations educators' responses. Conversely, public relations educators were unexpectedly poor at estimating their counterparts' responses.

In relation to the two research hypotheses, it appears that if the action/event is stable, external control is low, and the locus is strongly internal, attribution can affect the level of coorientation that exists between these two groups. However, if the action/event is perceived as unstable, with strong external control and weak internal locus, attribution is not as effective at predicting the level of coorientation that exists between public relations and journalism educators.

6.2 The research questions

6.2.1 RQ1: What are respondents' attitudes toward public relations in a professional setting and is there a significant difference in the levels of coorientation (congruency, agreement and accuracy) between the two groups?

As mentioned in the previous chapter, statements 1-17, which were subsequently divided into two factors, explored this issue. Factor one, *Positive Public Relations*, included items relating to the function of public relations in a positive way, and the extent to which practitioners are considered ethical and professional. Factor two, *Negative Public Relations,* related to some common criticisms levelled at public relations practitioners, such as an overemphasis on publicity and the focus on the interests of the client rather than the public.

In terms of the first part of the research question, which explored public relations and journalism educators' attitudes towards public relations in a professional context, the results of this study reinforce previous findings that explored the journalist / public relations practitioner relationship to some extent. In previous studies differences were found to exist between the two groups in terms of perceptions of the role and function of public relations, and journalists reported their frustration with 'un-newsworthy' public relations-originated material (Jeffers, 1977; Gieber and Johnson, 1961; Morton, 1990; Morton and Warren, 1992; Minnis and Pratt, 1995; Pomerantz, 1989). The results of the present study indicate that when it comes to attitudes toward public relations in a professional context, journalism educators share similar attitudes to those expressed by their journalism counterparts in the workplace. For example, journalism educators agreed that *public relations practitioners too frequently insist on promoting products, services and other activities that are not newsworthy* and *public relations practitioners regularly clutter our channels of communication with pseudo-events and phony phrases that confuse public issues* (statements 2 and 5). These responses indicate that the perception that public relations practitioners disregard journalistic news values continues to persist and is, therefore, an issue that still needs to be addressed.

At present, no legal standard for public relations exists and as such, all who so wish can call themselves public relations practitioners, regardless of their ability. One could argue that if public relations practitioners were licensed/accredited, the profession would cease to be "demeaned" by those lacking the experience, education, skills and integrity that true professionals have labored to attain for a long time. Indeed, a highcr standard of experience and competence for all practitioners could ultimately have a positive effect on their ability to do their job and improve their relationships with key publics, including journalists. Having said that, it is perhaps more interesting to note that public relations educators did not disagree with these statements, rather they responded neutrally. While it would be impossible to speculate as to why they responded neutrally, perhaps it acknowledges that at some level these behaviors/tactics are used by many professionals, despite the well-documented negative impact it has on the profession as a whole.

While some of the aforementioned studies also found that tension exists between the two groups, they also argue that despite their differences, both journalists and public relations practitioners acknowledge the cooperative, albeit symbiotic nature of their relationship. This parallel cannot be asserted in the present study. Indeed, while public relations educators agreed with the statements, journalism educators responded neutrally to the following: *In covering the organization they represent, public relations practitioners extend journalists' newsgathering potential* and *the journalist / public relations practitioner relationship is more cooperative than it was 10 years ago* (statements 7 and 11). Again, because of the neutral responses it is difficult to interpret journalism educators' attitudes in relation to any cooperation or symbiosis they believe may or may not exist. However, it does appear that public relations educators perceive that they assist the journalist and that a cooperative relationship exists. Could this be based on their news release publication success rate or perhaps an acknowledgement that from their point of view the relationship has improved in recent years?

It is also interesting to note that journalism educators disagreed with statement 17, which stated that: *Public relations is generally recognized as providing a unique and essential service to the general public* (statement 17). This would seem to infer that journalism educators do not consider their public relations counterparts as 'partners.' Indeed, given that one of the key tenets of a profession is that it is recognized as providing a unique and essential service to the public, it could be assumed that journalism educators do not perceive public relations to be a profession and/or its practitioners to be professional, or perhaps they simply do not believe that it provides a valuable service to the general public compared with journalism. Perhaps journalism educators prefer to view public relations practitioners as adversaries rather than partners. Interestingly, public relations educators responded neutrally to statement 17 also.

Journalism educators also responded neutrally to a number of other statements in factor one that related to the ethics and professionalism of practitioners such as: *Public relations as an occupation is more ethical and professional than it was 10 years ago* and *public relations practitioners typically adhere to an established code of ethics* (statements 3 and 13). Despite the fact that public relations educators agreed with the statements, the fact that journalism educators were "neutral" may reinforce previous findings, which indicated that their respective attitudes toward ethics are just one of the many sticking points between these two groups. Indeed, Hunt and Tripok (1993) argued that ethics are inextricably bound with credibility, and other empirical evidence suggests that practitioners who base their decision-making and recommendations on ethical principles and social responsibility are more likely to enjoy positive relationships with various publics. While the neutral responses make it difficult to speculate, perhaps the issue of ethics and professionalism is not clear-cut for these two groups of professionals, which may ultimately affect the measure and degree of credibility attached to public relations in a professional context. Again, on the other hand it may just indicate that respondents didn't know how to respond to the statements, or had no opinion on the matter.

Essentially, despite journalism and public relations educators' largely neutral replies to some of the statements within factors one and two, it does appear that contrary to some previous findings (Aronoff, 1975; Jeffers, 1977) and anecdotal evidence, journalism educators' views do not appear to differ "substantially and negatively" from the attitudes held by public relations educators in this study. Having said that, it was found that journalism educators are more cooriented toward public relations educators than vice-versa. The extent of the coorientation, and the implications for their relationship will now be discussed in more detail.

Research question one also explored the extent to which a significant difference in the level of coorientation exists between the two groups, and the results of this study indicate that for factor one (*Positive Public Relations*) a significant difference exists for all but one of the coorientation variables (journalism educators' accuracy). On the whole, public relations educators tended to perceive lower levels of *congruency* (PR self vs. J-other; J-self vs. PR other), display lower *accuracy* (PR other vs. J-self; J-other vs. PR self) and more *agreement* (PR self vs. J-self) in their responses to these statements than their journalism counterparts did. As such, when it comes to statements that present a positive view of the nature and role of public relations, journalism educators were found to be more cooriented to public relations educators than vice versa.

To summarize, public relations educators perceived that there would be a wider gap between their "self" and "other" group scores (believing they would agree with the statements more than the other group would) than was found among the journalism educator group (who perceived that they would be more likely to disagree with the statements than their public relations counterparts would). In relation to the coorientation variable *agreement*, perhaps not surprisingly public relations practitioners agreed with the statements more than their counterparts did. In terms of accuracy, which Kim (1986) described as the most important of the three coorientation measures, journalism educators displayed high accuracy. When asked to predict how their public relations counterparts would respond, they correctly estimated that the "other" group would agree with the statements. On the other hand, despite the fact that public relations educator's were correct in their estimation that the other group would disagree with the statements, they overestimated the level of disagreement and, therefore, displayed low accuracy. According to Sheff (1967), an under-estimation of the level of agreement among the other party is best described as pluralistic ignorance.

It would appear that contrary to public relations educators' expectations, journalism educators are much more successful in assessing their counterparts' views, which essentially means that journalism educators are more cooriented toward public relations educators for this factor than vice-versa. Another interesting finding is that journalism educators did not respond as negatively to statements relating to the function and role of public relations, and the ethics and professionalism of practitioners as public relations educators thought they would. This evidence of pluralistic ignorance on public relations educators' behalf is noteworthy because it could be responsible for the tenor of the journalism and public relations educator relationship, both in the workplace and in the academy. Indeed, misperceptions and misunderstanding may be resultsing in missed opportunities for collaboration and integration, and/or a self-fulfilling prophecy where public relations educators' lack of coorientation damages the possibility of a cooperative relationship with their counterparts in the future. Again, it should be stated that while journalism educators' agreed with the statements more than public relations educators thought they would, their self-scores averaged 3.3, which implies a neutral response on their behalf. [Note: In the analysis section of this survey a mean score of 1 - 1.7 = Strongly disagree; 1.8 - 2.6 = Disagree; 2.7 - 3.4 = Neutral; 3.5 - 4.2 = Agree; and 4.3 - 5=Strongly agree.]

In relation to factor two, a significant difference was also found for each of the coorientation variables. Here, public relations educators were found to display higher levels of *congruency* and *accuracy,* and less *agreement* with statements than was found among their journalism counterparts. However, statistically speaking, it appears that neither public relations nor journalism educators are particularly cooriented towards one another to any great extent.

In this scenario, public relations educators perceived that there would be a narrower gap between their "self" and "other" group scores (believing they would disagree with the statements more than the other group would) than was found among the journalism educator group (who perceived that they would agree with the statements more than the public relations educators would). In terms of the coorientation variable *agreement*, journalism educators agreed with the statements more than their counterparts. Both journalism and public relations educators were incorrect when their respective estimations of the "other" group's responses were compared to the other groups' "self" scores, and as a result they were both low in accuracy. Indeed, while public relations educators were correct in estimating that journalism educators would agree with the statements, they over-estimated the level of agreement. According to Sheff (1997) this over-estimation is an example of false consensus. On the other hand, journalism educators over-estimated the level of disagreement among public relations educators.

It would appear that little consensus exists between the two groups when it comes to the topic of common criticisms leveled at public relations practitioners. Indeed, neither public relations nor journalism educators are very successful in assessing their counterparts' views, and pluralistic ignorance and false consensus seems to be the reason for this lack of coorientation. However, it is worth noting that while journalism educators did agree with the statements, they didn't agree quite as much as public relations educators suspected they would. As mentioned previously, the consequences of this false consensus can be hazardous for the public relations educator. Indeed, a misjudgement of the prevalence of journalism educators' agreement with these negative views may have a negative effect on present and future communication between the two groups. Again, while public relations educators' disagreed with the statements more than journalism educators did, their self-scores averaged 3.1, which implies a neutral response.

6.2.2 RQ2a: What are respondents' attitudes toward public relations in an educational setting and is there a significant difference in the levels of coorientation (congruency, agreement and accuracy) between the two groups?

As mentioned, statements 18-35, which were subsequently divided into three factors, explored this issue. Factor three, *Status Journalism*, related to the status of public relations programs and students as lower compared to their counterparts in the journalism department; factor four, *Status Public Relations*, included statements that defined public relations students and programs in a positive way; and factor five, *Attitudes*, included statements that describe how public relations programs are made to feel unwelcome by journalists in the academy.

The results of this study indicate that Dickson's (2000) assertion that many public relations programs have never felt welcome in journalism schools, feeling like "orphans or outcasts," may no longer be entirely accurate. The present study found that journalism educators agreed that *public relations educators emphasize the importance of ethics and professionalism to their students*; *public relations education has a strong body of knowledge and skills, based on theory and research in the field of public relations;* and *public relations programs deliver a broader and more comprehensive curriculum than 10 years ago* (statements 33, 20, and 31). Pratt (1991) and Hunt and Tripok (1993) indicated that acknowledgements of professionalism and ethics such as these signify that a "social respect" and degree of credibility exists among journalism educators for public relations programs and educators. Interestingly, for research question one, journalism educators responded neutrally to statements that explored this issue in a professional context. Perhaps journalism educators think more highly of the ethics and professionalism of public relations educators than those of practitioners in general. This would seem to parallel Jeffers' (1976) results to some extent, which found that journalists ranked public relations practitioners with whom they had personal contact as more ethical than practitioners in general. Again, this is an issue that public relations practitioners should be made aware of, an important building block on which to build positive relations in the future.

It was also interesting to note that journalism educators disagreed with statement 21, which states that *the prestige and credibility of journalism education will be replaced by accusations of bias and subjectivity if it continues to be associated with public relations*. This would seem to contradict Reece's (1999) assertion that any association between these two groups would cause unease and ultimately threaten the credibility of journalism. However, it is also apparent that there is still some way to go. Journalism educators responded neutrally to statements such as: *Journalism students have a keener moral compass than their public relations counterparts* and *journalism programs generally attract students with a more critical intellect than public relations programs do* (statements 27 and 28). Also of interest is the fact that public relations and journalism educators responded neutrally to statement 22, which asserted that *journalism and public relations do not belong in the same department*. Again, while it would be impossible to predict why respondents' responded neutrally, further investigation may shed light on whether these responses elicited a "don't know" or "neutral" response. In the next section the extent to which public relations and journalism educators were cooriented to one another is discussed.

In relation to factor three, *Status Journalism*, a significant difference was found for each of the coorientation variables. Here, journalism educators tended to perceive higher levels of *congruency,* and display higher *accuracy* and more *agreement* with statements than their journalism counterparts. However, statistically speaking, neither public relations nor journalism educators were found to be cooriented towards one another to any great extent.

To summarize, public relations educators perceived that there would be a wider gap between their "self" and "other" group scores (perceiving that the other group would agree with the statements more) than was found among the journalism educator group (who believed they would agree with the statements more than the public relations educators would). When it comes to the coorientation variable *agreement*, public relations educators disagreed with the statements more than their counterparts did. Both journalism and public relations educators displayed false consensus when their respective estimations of the "other" group's responses were incorrect compared to the other groups' "self" scores, and as a result they were both low in accuracy. Indeed, they both overestimated the level of agreement among their counterparts.

Here again, neither public relations nor journalism educators are found to be very successful in assessing their counterparts' views. It is interesting to note that journalism educators did not agree with statements relating to the negative status of public relations programs and students as much as public relations educators suspected they would. However, again it should be mentioned that while journalism educators agreed with the statements more than public relations educators did, their self-scores averaged 2.9, which actually implies a neutral response.

However, the fact that both groups displayed false consensus is noteworthy as this means that both groups over-estimated the level of agreement. Public relations educators suspected that journalism educators would agree with the statements, while the latter responded neutrally. On the other hand, journalism educators correctly assumed that their counterparts would disagree, but under-estimated the level of disagreement. This underestimation of how much public relations educators disagreed with these statements may affect the nature of the relationship that exists between the two. It may also shed some light on why some public relations educators feel that they operate in what Walker (1987) called a "Mother, may I?" environment where curriculum and other decisions are made by a predominantly news-oriented faculty who fail to see public relations beyond its media relations function. Maybe journalism educators are also failing to understand the depth of their counterparts' unease with this situation and its impact on public relations educators' ability to do their job in the academy effectively.

For factor four, *Status Public Relations*, a significant difference was found for all but one of the coorientation variables (journalism educator accuracy). Here again, public relations educators were found to have lower *congruency,* lower *accuracy,* and more *agreement* with statements than journalism educators.

Here, public relations educators perceived that there would be a wider gap between their "self" and "other" group scores (believing they would agree with the statements more than the other group would) than was found among the journalism educator group (who agreed with the statements less than the public relations educators did). In relation to *agreement*, interestingly both journalism and public relations educators agreed with the statements, but the latter agreed more so. Journalism educators were also found to be correct in their estimation of the "other" group and therefore displayed high accuracy for this factor. Public relations educators displayed pluralistic ignorance when they under-estimated the level of agreement among journalism educators.

Here again, public relations educators were found to be less successful in assessing their counterparts' views. Therefore, in terms of positive perceptions of public relations programs, it appears that journalism educators are more cooriented toward their public relations counterparts on this factor than vice-versa. It is also interesting to note that journalism educators agreed with statements relating to the positive role and contribution of public relations programs more than public relations educators thought they would. This is yet another example of how public relations educators appear to be underestimating the level of agreement that actually exists between these two groups, a misunderstanding that could jeopardize opportunities for a more cooperative relationship between the two. Perhaps an acknowledgement of what these two groups have in common with one another could ultimately result in what Carter (1995) and Dickson (2000) describe as a more interdisciplinary approach to journalism education, which would ultimately benefit both disciplines.

For factor five, *Attitudes*, a significant difference was found for each of the coorientation variables. Public relations educators perceived higher *congruency, and* similar *accuracy* and more *agreement* with statements than their journalism counterparts. However, as the alpha reliability coefficient for this factor was slightly below the recommended level, it is recommended that results are interpreted with caution.

Here, public relations educators perceived that there would be a narrower gap between their "self" and "other" group scores (believing they would disagree with the statements slightly more than the other group would) than was found among the journalism educator group (who agreed with the statements more than they perceived the public relations educators would). In terms of *agreement*, public relations educators agreed with the statements more than their counterparts. Both journalism and public relations educators were incorrect when their respective estimations of the "other" group's responses were compared to the other groups' "self" scores, and as a result they were both low in accuracy. Public relations educators displayed false consensus when they over-estimated the level of agreement among journalism educators, while the latter believed that public relations educators would disagree with the statements more than they actually did (pluralistic ignorance).

For this factor, public relations and journalism educators were both unsuccessful in assessing their counterparts' views. Therefore, for factor five it seems that neither journalism nor public relations educators are particularly cooriented toward one another. Interestingly, journalism educators disagreed with statements relating to perceptions that journalism's association with public relations in the academy as a negative thing, more than public relations educators suspected they would. Here again it should be noted that while journalism educators' disagreed with the statements more than public relations educators did, both groups' self-scores (PR self=3.2 J-self=2.9) were neutral.

In conclusion, what is perhaps more thought-provoking than the apparent slew of neutral responses submitted by both journalism and public relations educators for some of the statements in this section of the survey is the fact that, overall, journalism educators' congruency and accuracy scores for both research questions were routinely higher than those of their counterparts, which indicates that they are more motivated to coorient than public relations educators. This would appear to contradict other coorientation studies, which found that in relation to a variety of different topics, journalists reported a greater lack of awareness of the similarities that exist between these two groups (Sallot, Steinfatt and Salwen, 1998; Kopenhaver, 1985; Aronoff, 1975; Ryan and Martinson, 1984; Beltz, Talbott and Stark, 1980). This also runs contrary to Stegall and Sanders' (1986) contention that "the person that has the motivation to coorient will be more successful at it." In theory at least, the public relations educators' stake in cooorienting is higher, but their display of both pluralistic ignorance and false consensus in this study indicates that most of the misperceptions and misunderstandings that may exist between these two groups occurs within their own camp. It also indicates that the nature and focus of future communication between the two groups obviously needs to be re-addressed. Indeed, given that the entire existence of the public relations profession rests on the assumption that positive attitudes contribute to favorable behavior towards individuals, products or organizations, public relations educators must engage in some serious self-reflection. They must identify and address why these misperceptions, which have traditionally been associated with journalists / journalism educators, exist among public relations educators and how they can work to reinforce any agreement that does exist between them. A rethinking of the nature of this relationship is imperative if public relations educators are to readjust their coorientational accuracy levels.

One reason for a lack of coorientation cited in a previous study was Davison's third person effect, and perhaps the theory has some applicability to this study also. As mentioned in an earlier chapter, the third-person effect perceptual hypothesis predicts that individuals perceive that a particular message / stimuli will wield greater influence on other people than on themselves (Salwen, 1999). It is not beyond the realms of possibility that public relations educators' perceive that as a group journalism educators' views are very different to theirs, particularly when it comes to some of the more positive aspects of public relations. It could also be the case that public relations educators, having read many of the studies that highlight their adversarial/antagonistic relationship, assume that journalism educators hold the same views as their 'professional' journalist counterparts. The results of this portion of the study, however, indicate that journalism educators do not differ as "substantially and negatively" in their opinions of public relations as the latter may currently believe. This finding may be interpreted in a number of different ways.

Indeed, Broom (1977) argued, "a public's opinions and behavior are determined at least in part by its perceptions of the issue." If public relations educators are to increase their level of accuracy and coorientation with journalism educators (and future journalists) in terms of the role and function of public relations in a professional context, "new ways must be found to enhance understanding between the two groups" (Stegall and Sanders, 1986). Sallot, Steinfatt and Salwen (1998) also argued that greater dialogue about any actual agreement between the two groups, or the fact that journalists are more cooriented to public relations educators than suspected, might lead to greater understanding and an improved relationship between the two.

Finally, as McLeod and Chaffee (1973) argued, because each person arrives at his/her beliefs through his/her own personal experiences it may be impossible to expect that these two groups will agree with one another on all of these topics in the future. "Perfect communication" may not necessarily improve agreement between them, but if two are motivated to coorient, it can facilitate understanding. Therefore, for the public relations educator, the goal of all communication should be to improve accuracy, even if they essentially agree to disagree or even choose not to coorient to the same things in the same degree.

6.3 The research hypotheses

In this study it was also hypothesized that the three causal dimensions of attribution would affect respondents' levels of coorientation (especially accuracy) and their subsequent attitude towards one another in predictable ways. It was hypothesized that the levels of agreement between the two groups will be lower if the action/event is stable (e.g. the professional/profession is perceived to have a history of poor conduct), external control (controlled by others outside of the professional/profession) is low, and the locus is strongly internal (intentionality is high). Based on previous studies and a review of the literature, it was also hypothesized that if the action/event is stable, external control is low, and the locus is strongly internal, journalism educators will display higher congruency than their public relations counterparts. Subsequently, accuracy scores between journalism educators toward public relations educators will be high, while scores between public relations educators toward journalism educators would be low.

On the other hand, it was hypothesized that the levels of agreement between the two groups will be higher if the action/event is perceived as unstable (the behavior is an exception if the professional/professions performance history), with strong external control and weak internal locus (low intentionality). Indeed, in this scenario, it was hypothesized that journalism and public relations educators will have similar, high congruency scores. Subsequently, accuracy scores between journalism educators and public relations educators will be high.

6.3.1 Research hypothesis one

It was hypothesized that if the action/event is stable, external control is low, and the locus is strongly internal:

H1a: That the level of congruency found among journalism educators will be higher than that found among their public relations counterparts.
H1b: That there will be a significant difference between the two groups of respondents in terms of the coorientational variable agreement.
H1c: That among journalism educators there will not be a significant difference in the level of accuracy toward their public relations counterparts.
H1d: That among public relations educators there will be a significant difference in the level of accuracy toward their journalism counterparts.

As mentioned previously, statements 36-55, which were subsequently divided into two factors, explored the issues contained in the two hypotheses. Factor six, *Negative Internal*, included items that relate to some of the negative aspects of public relations that are caused by internal, stable and low in external control attributes, and their effect on their job and relationship with the news media. The results supported hypotheses 1(a), 1(b), 1(c), and 1(d).

To summarize, for factor six (*Negative Internal)* a significant difference was found for all but one of the coorientation variables (journalism educators' accuracy). Here, public relations educators displayed lower *congruency,* lower *accuracy,* and less *agreement* with statements than their journalism counterparts.

Public relations educators perceived that there would be a wider gap between their "self" and "other" group scores (believing they would disagree with the statements more than the other group would) than was found among the journalism educator group (who agreed with the statements more than they perceived public relations educators would). In terms of the coorientation variable *agreement*, public relations educators disagreed with the statements more than their counterparts. Public relations educators over-estimated the level of agreement (false consensus) actually found among journalism educators and were therefore found to be low in accuracy. On the other hand, journalism educators correctly predicted that their public relations counterparts would largely disagree with the statements.

Here again, public relations educators were found to be unsuccessful in assessing their counterparts' views. Therefore, in terms of factor six, it appears that journalism educators are more cooriented toward public relations educators than vice-versa. It is interesting to note that journalism educators disagreed with statements relating to some of the negative aspects of public relations that are caused by internal attributes and their effect on the job and relationship with the news media, more than public relations educators suspected they would. However, it must be noted that journalism educators' self-scores averaged 2.9, which actually implies a neutral response to the statements.

6.3.2 Research hypothesis two

It was hypothesized that if the action/event is perceived as unstable, with strong external control and weak internal locus:

H2a: That there will not be a significant difference between the levels of congruency found among journalism and public relations educators.
H2b: That there will not be a significant difference between the two groups of respondents in terms of the coorientational variable agreement.
H2c: That there will not be a significant difference in the level of accuracy found among journalism and public relations educators.

For factor seven, *Negative External*, where all of the items were related to external factors that influence the interpersonal relationship between practitioners and journalists in both a professional and educational setting, a significant difference between the two groups was found for only some of the coorientation variables (journalism and public relations educators' congruency, and public relations educators' accuracy). Therefore, in this study: hypothesis 2(a) was unsupported; hypotheses 2(b) and 2(c) were supported; and hypothesis 2(d) was partially supported.

Essentially, there was a statistically significant difference between both groups' "self" and "other" scores, with the journalism educators found to be only *slightly* more congruent than their public relations counterparts. Indeed, public relations educators perceived that they would agree with the statements more than the other group would, while the journalism educator group perceived that while the public relations educators would agree with the statements, journalism educators would agree more. When it comes to the coorientation variable *agreement*, both public relations educators and journalism educators shared similar levels of agreement with the statements. However, public relations educators displayed pluralistic ignorance when they slightly under-estimated the level of agreement among journalism educators and were, therefore, low in accuracy. On the other hand, journalism educators correctly predicted that their public relations counterparts would largely disagree with the statements.

The results that relate to hypothesis two indicate that while there was actual agreement in relation to statements such as: *Many journalists' stereotypes of public relations practitioners are based on negative experiences they have had with some "bad apples,"* and *at times, journalism educators "lock horns" with their public relations educator counterparts because each group is fighting for limited resources in the department or college* (statements 45 and 48), public relations educators were unsuccessful in assessing their counterparts' views. Conversely, journalism educators accurately predicted that their counterparts would agree with the statements and are, therefore, more cooriented. It is also interesting to note that journalism educators agreed that: *If public relations practitioners fail to act in the public interest it's due to organizational pressures outside of their control,* and *negative attitudes toward public relations are due to journalists' built in suspicion of the occupation, rather than the failings of individual practitioners* (statements 39 and 46).

To summarize the main conclusions that relate to the two research hypotheses, the findings indicate that if the action/event is stable, external control is low, and the locus is strongly internal, attribution can affect the level of coorientation that exists between these two groups. However, if the action/event is perceived as unstable, with strong external control and weak internal locus, attribution is not as effective at predicting the level of coorientation that exists between public relations and journalism educators.

These findings would appear to parallel much of the attribution literature referred to in previous chapters. It seems that in most situations, behavior is the result of a mixture of both an individuals' personal characteristics and situational factors (Taylor and Fisk, 1984). Indeed, in this study public relations educators appear to want to attribute their own negative behaviors to external rather than internal factors, a tendency that Oskamp (1991) and Heradstveit and Bonham (1996) have described as the *fundamental attribution error*. Indeed, when the action/event was stable, external control was low, and the locus was strongly internal (RH1), public relations educators disagreed with statements such as: *Public relations practitioners routinely ignore such journalistic values as newsworthiness and relevance to the reader/viewer*, *generally speaking, public relations practitioners are not as trustworthy as journalists*, and *public relations practitioners have been called "parasites" by the press -- and that characterization is true* (statements 41, 44 and 43). On the other hand, when the action/event was perceived as unstable, with strong external control and weak internal locus (RH2), public relations educators agreed with statements such as: *Sometimes public relations practitioners* *promote pseudo-events because that's what the client/employer expects from them, if public relations practitioners fail to act in the public interest it's due to organizational pressures outside of their control and at times*, and *journalism educators "lock horns" with their public relations educator counterparts because each group is fighting for limited resources in the department or college* (statements 40, 39, and 48).

However, the fundamental attribution error also implies that the observer (in this case the journalism educator) of the same "behaviors" will tend to "blame" actors for negative actions they perceive to be caused by internal forces, and will be less likely to blame them for actions that are perceived to be external. This theory would seem to be supported in the present study, but it is interesting to note that where journalism educators disagreed with the statements within factor six more than public relations educators thought they would. However, it is important that the researcher proceeds with caution here as technically speaking their "self" score of 2.9 indicates a largely neutral response. Despite this fact, journalism educators did agree with the statements that attributed blame to external forces (factor seven) such as: *If public relations and journalism educators clash with one another, it's because of misunderstandings about their respective functions,* and *negative attitudes toward public relations are due to journalists' built in suspicion of the occupation, rather than the failings of individual practitioners* (statements 49 and 46). It would appear that despite journalism educators agreement that there are internal reasons for bad behavior, they are somewhat willing to accept that external factors do influence public relations professionals' ability to do their job. This is an interesting insight that could have a positive effect on the nature of their relationship with one another, one that could be used to increase levels of coorientational accuracy between them in the future.

Interestingly, a negative ramification of the fundamental attribution error is that instead of recognizing that there are situational factors such as social norms or rules that have led to a particular behavior, people can tend to see that behavior as freely chosen by the individual and representative of their stable qualities. Indeed, Heider (1958) argues, "At the most primitive level (association), the person is held responsible for any action that is connected with him, however remote." However, in this study journalism educators did not agree (or technically, disagree) with the *Negative Internal* statements, but *did* agree with the statements contained in factor seven (*Negative External*), which would appear to contradict the tenets of fundamental attribution error. However, this finding may be best explained by referring to Ross and DiTecco (1975) who argued that while individuals generally tend to use the "primitive" (lower level) interpretations of responsibility, there is evidence to support the view that identification or perceived similarity with the "harm doer" reduces blaming responses by observers. Blanks-Hindman (1999) also argues that people try to avoid guilt by association in their own minds by either minimizing irresponsible or irregular behavior committed as similar to themselves, or they may attribute poor behavior to external causes, if they see themselves as like the actors. This may help to explain why journalism educators responded as they did. Perhaps journalism educators have a greater appreciation of the constraints that public relations educators operate under, perhaps they are similar to some the external factors (scarcity of resources) that hinder communication and their relationships in the academy too?

Another factor that may explain why journalism educators did not agree with factor six but did with factor seven is the actor-observer bias - or a lack thereof. Actor-observer bias is an extension of basic attribution ideas, which states that any differences that exist between actor and observers' views are due to the fact that the actor's behavior or activity is not as salient as the situational forces that are impinging the behavior (Fiske and Taylor, 1984). Conversely, for the observer the behavior is more dynamic and occurs against a "dull" situational background, and this is why causality is attributed to the person. However, in this study there does not appear to be any evidence of an actor-observer bias. Indeed, despite the fact that responses were different for factor six and similar for factor seven, it is possible that journalism educators may have enough background data about the distinctiveness and consistency of their counterparts' behavior and/or empathy with the other group to accept that there are external factors that influence behavior. This may explain why journalism educators seem to be able to focus their causal analysis on the situational, rather than the dispositional aspects that affect actors' behaviors.

One more interesting extension of attribution analysis that may relate to this study is referred to as the self-protective attribution bias, which is the tendency to attribute failures or negative outcomes to external causes in order to protect one's self esteem

(Harvey and Weary, 1981). Miller and Ross (1975) argue that participants may only report causes in this biased way to present a more favorable impression of themselves. Whether participants privately believe that they are more responsible for positive rather than negative outcomes is harder to determine.

Similar to the research question findings described earlier, these results also seem to run contrary to Stegall and Sanders' (1986) contention that "the person that has the motivation to coorient will be more successful at it." As mentioned earlier, public relations educators' stake in coorienting is higher, but their display of both pluralistic ignorance and false consensus in the study as a whole indicates that the nature of future communication between the two groups needs to change. If public relations educators are to increase their level of accuracy and coorientation with journalism educators (and future journalists) in terms of the role and function of public relations in a professional context, "new ways must be found to enhance understanding between the two groups" (Stegall and Sanders, 1986). Indeed, Sallot, Steinfatt and Salwen (1998) also argued that greater dialogue about any actual agreement between the two groups, or the fact that journalists are more cooriented to public relations educators than suspected, might lead to greater understanding and an improved relationship between the two.

6.4 Post hoc analysis

As mentioned in the previous chapter, it appears that a significant interaction between gender and the coorientation variable *congruency* was found in this study.

It appears that in relation to the coorientation variable *congruency*, women's responses were found to be significantly different to their male counterparts' views in four out of the seven factors used in this study. However, there was not a significant difference found for any of the factors in relation to gender for the other two coorientation variables - agreement and accuracy. The significant differences that were found can be explained by the fact that there was a significant difference in the amount of men and women participating in the study (there were considerably more men) and this resulted in the skewing of results, or in other words, the appearance of a significant relationship where none exists.

6.5 Limitations of the study

It should be noted that a number of the values reported by respondents in the summary of *accurate* estimates were neutral (score of 2.7 – 3.4), as were a number of responses for the congruence and agreement categories. It was assumed by the researcher that the majority of the results for these items were due to respondents' tendency to respond neutrally to "My opinion" and "Others' opinion" for these items. While it would be impossible to speculate why respondents responded neutrally to these and other statements, some possible reasons include i) there may have been too many categories for busy professors complete (55 statements, each with three components could have been too overwhelming/time consuming); ii) in retrospect, some of the statements were double-barreled and possibly confused respondents/made it impossible for them to simple agree or disagree; and iii) the absence of a "Don't Know" category may have forced respondents' to choose "Neutral," thus making their responses more difficult to interpret. To overcome these problems, future researchers could include a "Don't Know" category, make certain statements less confusing, and reduce the number of statements/response categories. In addition, to increase the response rate an incentive (drawing for a book voucher) could be offered to respondents.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

SOCIETY OF PROFESSIONAL JOURNALISTS CODE OF ETHICS

Preamble

Members of the Society of Professional Journalists believe that public enlightenment is the forerunner of justice and the foundation of democracy. The duty of the journalist is to further those ends by seeking truth and providing a fair and comprehensive account of events and issues. Conscientious journalists from all media and specialties strive to serve the public with thoroughness and honesty. Professional integrity is the cornerstone of a journalist's credibility. Members of the Society share a dedication to ethical behavior and adopt this code to declare the Society's principles and standards of practice.

Seek Truth and Report It

Journalists should be honest, fair and courageous in gathering, reporting and interpreting information.

Journalists should:

- Test the accuracy of information from all sources and exercise care to avoid inadvertent error. Deliberate distortion is never permissible.
- Diligently seek out subjects of news stories to give them the opportunity to respond to allegations of wrongdoing.
- Identify sources whenever feasible. The public is entitled to as much information as possible on sources' reliability.
- Always question sources' motives before promising anonymity. Clarify conditions attached to any promise made in exchange for information. Keep promises.
- Make certain that headlines, news teases and promotional material, photos, video, audio, graphics, sound bites and quotations do not misrepresent. They should not oversimplify or highlight incidents out of context.
- Never distort the content of news photos or video. Image enhancement for technical clarity is always permissible. Label montages and photo illustrations.
- Avoid misleading re-enactments or staged news events. If re-enactment is necessary to tell a story, label it.
- Avoid undercover or other surreptitious methods of gathering information except when traditional open methods will not yield information vital to the public. Use of such methods should be explained as part of the story
- Never plagiarize.
- Tell the story of the diversity and magnitude of the human experience boldly, even when it is unpopular to do so.
- Examine their own cultural values and avoid imposing those values on others.
- Avoid stereotyping by race, gender, age, religion, ethnicity, geography, sexual orientation, disability, physical appearance or social status.
- Support the open exchange of views, even views they find repugnant.

- Give voice to the voiceless; official and unofficial sources of information can be equally valid.
- Distinguish between advocacy and news reporting. Analysis and commentary should be labeled and not misrepresent fact or context.
- Distinguish news from advertising and shun hybrids that blur the lines between the two.
- Recognize a special obligation to ensure that the public's business is conducted in the open and that government records are open to inspection.

Minimize Harm
Ethical journalists treat sources, subjects and colleagues as human beings deserving of respect.

Journalists should:
- Show compassion for those who may be affected adversely by news coverage. Use special sensitivity when dealing with children and inexperienced sources or subjects.
- Be sensitive when seeking or using interviews or photographs of those affected by tragedy or grief.
- Recognize that gathering and reporting information may cause harm or discomfort. Pursuit of the news is not a license for arrogance.
- Recognize that private people have a greater right to control information about themselves than do public officials and others who seek power, influence or attention. Only an overriding public need can justify intrusion into anyone's privacy.
- Show good taste. Avoid pandering to lurid curiosity.
- Be cautious about identifying juvenile suspects or victims of sex crimes.
- Be judicious about naming criminal suspects before the formal filing of charges.
- Balance a criminal suspect's fair trial rights with the public's right to be informed.

Act Independently
Journalists should be free of obligation to any interest other than the public's right to know.

Journalists should:
- Avoid conflicts of interest, real or perceived.
- Remain free of associations and activities that may compromise integrity or damage credibility.
- Refuse gifts, favors, fees, free travel and special treatment, and shun secondary employment, political involvement, public office and service in community organizations if they compromise journalistic integrity.
- Disclose unavoidable conflicts.

- Be vigilant and courageous about holding those with power accountable.
- Deny favored treatment to advertisers and special interests and resist their pressure to influence news coverage.
- Be wary of sources offering information for favors or money; avoid bidding for news.

Be Accountable
Journalists are accountable to their readers, listeners, viewers and each other.

Journalists should:

- Clarify and explain news coverage and invite dialogue with the public over journalistic conduct.
- Encourage the public to voice grievances against the news media.
- Admit mistakes and correct them promptly.
- Expose unethical practices of journalists and the news media.
- Abide by the same high standards to which they hold others.

The SPJ Code of Ethics is voluntarily embraced by thousands of writers, editors and other news professionals. The present version of the code was adopted by the 1996 SPJ National Convention, after months of study and debate among the Society's members.

Sigma Delta Chi's first Code of Ethics was borrowed from the American Society of Newspaper Editors in 1926. In 1973, Sigma Delta Chi wrote its own code, which was revised in 1984, 1987 and 1996.

APPENDIX 2

PUBLIC RELATIONS SOCIETY OF AMERICA CODE OF ETHICS (2000)

Preamble
Public Relations Society of America Member Code of Ethics 2000

- Professional Values
- Principles of Conduct
- Commitment and Compliance

This Code applies to PRSA members. The Code is designed to be a useful guide for PRSA members as they carry out their ethical responsibilities. This document is designed to anticipate and accommodate, by precedent, ethical challenges that may arise. The scenarios outlined in the Code provision are actual examples of misconduct. More will be added as experience with the Code occurs.

The Public Relations Society of America (PRSA) is committed to ethical practices. The level of public trust PRSA members seek, as we serve the public good, means we have taken on a special obligation to operate ethically.

The value of member reputation depends upon the ethical conduct of everyone affiliated with the Public Relations Society of America. Each of us sets an example for each other - as well as other professionals - by our pursuit of excellence with powerful standards of performance, professionalism, and ethical conduct.

Emphasis on enforcement of the Code has been eliminated. But, the PRSA Board of Directors retains the right to bar from membership or expel from the Society any individual who has been or is sanctioned by a government agency or convicted in a court of law of an action that is in violation of this Code.

Ethical practice is the most important obligation of a PRSA member. We view the Member Code of Ethics as a model for other professions, organizations, and professionals.

PRSA Member Statement of Professional Values

This statement presents the core values of PRSA members and, more broadly, of the public relations profession. These values provide the foundation for the Member Code of Ethics and set the industry standard for the professional practice of public relations. These values are the fundamental beliefs that guide our behaviors and decision-making process. We believe our professional values are vital to the integrity of the profession as a whole.

Advocacy
We serve the public interest by acting as responsible advocates for those we represent. We provide a voice in the marketplace of ideas, facts, and viewpoints to aid informed public debate.

Honesty
We adhere to the highest standards of accuracy and truth in advancing the interests of those we represent and in communicating with the public.

Expertise
We acquire and responsibly use specialized knowledge and experience. We advance the profession through continued professional development, research, and education. We build mutual understanding, credibility, and relationships among a wide array of institutions and audiences.

Independence
We provide objective counsel to those we represent. We are accountable for our actions.

Loyalty
We are faithful to those we represent, while honoring our obligation to serve the public interest.

Fairness
We deal fairly with clients, employers, competitors, peers, vendors, the media, and the general public. We respect all opinions and support the right of free expression.

PRSA Code Provisions

Free flow of information
Core Principle
- Protecting and advancing the free flow of accurate and truthful information is essential to serving the public interest and contributing to informed decision making in a democratic society.

Intent
- To maintain the integrity of relationships with the media, government officials, and the public.
- To aid informed decision-making.

Guidelines
A member shall:
- Preserve the integrity of the process of communication.
- Be honest and accurate in all communications.

- Act promptly to correct erroneous communications for which the practitioner is responsible.
- Preserve the free flow of unprejudiced information when giving or receiving gifts by ensuring that gifts are nominal, legal, and infrequent.

Examples of Improper Conduct Under this Provision:
- A member representing a ski manufacturer gives a pair of expensive racing skis to a sports magazine columnist, to influence the columnist to write favorable articles about the product.
- A member entertains a government official beyond legal limits and/or in violation of government reporting requirements.

Competition

Core Principle
- Promoting healthy and fair competition among professionals preserves an ethical climate while fostering a robust business environment.

Intent
- To promote respect and fair competition among public relations professionals.
- To serve the public interest by providing the widest choice of practitioner options.

Guidelines

A member shall:
- Follow ethical hiring practices designed to respect free and open competition without deliberately undermining a competitor.
- Preserve intellectual property rights in the marketplace.

Examples of Improper Conduct Under This Provision:
- A member employed by a "client organization" shares helpful information with a counseling firm that is competing with others for the organization's business.
- A member spreads malicious and unfounded rumors about a competitor in order to alienate the competitor's clients and employees in a ploy to recruit people and business.

Disclosure of Information

Core Principle
- Open communication fosters informed decision making in a democratic society.

Intent
- To build trust with the public by revealing all information needed for responsible decision making.

Guidelines

- A member shall:
- Be honest and accurate in all communications.
- Act promptly to correct erroneous communications for which the member is responsible.
- Investigate the truthfulness and accuracy of information released on behalf of those represented.
- Reveal the sponsors for causes and interests represented.
- Disclose financial interest (such as stock ownership) in a client's organization.
- Avoid deceptive practices.

Examples of Improper Conduct Under this Provision:

- Front groups: A member implements "grass roots" campaigns or letter-writing campaigns to legislators on behalf of undisclosed interest groups.
- Lying by omission: A practitioner for a corporation knowingly fails to release financial information, giving a misleading impression of the corporation's performance.
- A member discovers inaccurate information disseminated via a Web site or media kit and does not correct the information.
- A member deceives the public by employing people to pose as volunteers to speak at public hearings and participate in "grass roots" campaigns.

Safeguarding Confidences

Core Principle

- Client trust requires appropriate protection of confidential and private information.

Intent

- To protect the privacy rights of clients, organizations, and individuals by safeguarding confidential information.

Guidelines

- A member shall:
- Safeguard the confidences and privacy rights of present, former, and prospective clients and employees.
- Protect privileged, confidential, or insider information gained from a client or organization.
- Immediately advise an appropriate authority if a member discovers that confidential information is being divulged by an employee of a client company or organization.

Examples of Improper Conduct Under This Provision:

- A member changes jobs, takes confidential information, and uses that information in the new position to the detriment of the former employer.
- A member intentionally leaks proprietary information to the detriment of some other party.

Conflicts Of Interest

Core Principle

- Avoiding real, potential or perceived conflicts of interest builds the trust of clients, employers, and the publics.

Intent

- To earn trust and mutual respect with clients or employers.
- To build trust with the public by avoiding or ending situations that put one's personal or professional interests in conflict with society's interests.

Guidelines

A member shall:

- Act in the best interests of the client or employer, even subordinating the member's personal interests.
- Avoid actions and circumstances that may appear to compromise good business judgment or create a conflict between personal and professional interests.
- Disclose promptly any existing or potential conflict of interest to affected clients or organizations.
- Encourage clients and customers to determine if a conflict exists after notifying all affected parties.

Examples of Improper Conduct Under This Provision

- The member fails to disclose that he or she has a strong financial interest in a client's chief competitor.
- The member represents a "competitor company" or a "conflicting interest" without informing a prospective client.

Enhancing the Profession

Core Principle

- Public relations professionals work constantly to strengthen the public's trust in the profession.

Intent

- To build respect and credibility with the public for the profession of public relations.
- To improve, adapt and expand professional practices.

Guidelines

A member shall:

- Acknowledge that there is an obligation to protect and enhance the profession.
- Keep informed and educated about practices in the profession to ensure ethical conduct.
- Actively pursue personal professional development.
- Decline representation of clients or organizations that urge or require actions contrary to this Code.
- Accurately define what public relations activities can accomplish.
- Counsel subordinates in proper ethical decision making.
- Require that subordinates adhere to the ethical requirements of the Code.
- Report ethical violations, whether committed by PRSA members or not, to the appropriate authority.

Examples of Improper Conduct Under This Provision:

- A PRSA member declares publicly that a product the client sells is safe, without disclosing evidence to the contrary.
- A member initially assigns some questionable client work to a non-member practitioner to avoid the ethical obligation of PRSA membership.

PRSA MEMBER CODE OF ETHICS PLEDGE

I pledge:

To conduct myself professionally, with truth, accuracy, fairness, and responsibility to the public; To improve my individual competence and advance the knowledge and proficiency of the profession through continuing research and education; And to adhere to the articles of the Member Code of Ethics 2000 for the practice of public relations as adopted by the governing Assembly of the Public Relations Society of America.

I understand and accept that there is a consequence for misconduct, up to and including membership revocation.

And, I understand that those who have been or are sanctioned by a government agency or convicted in a court of law of an action that is in violation of this Code may be barred from membership or expelled from the Society.

____

Signature

____

Date

The PRSA Code of Ethics is voluntarily embraced by almost 20,000 public relations professionals. The present version of the code was adopted by the PRSA Assembly in 2000, the result of two years of concentrated effort led by the Board of Ethics and Professional Standards. Intensive advice and counsel was received from the Ethics Resource Center, the Board of Directors, PRSA staff, outside reviewers, as well as District and Section officers. Extensive research involving analysis of numerous codes of conduct, ethics statements, and standards and practices approaches was also carried out.

The 2000 Code of Ethics replaces a Code of Ethics in force since 1950 and revised in 1954, 1959, 1963, 1977, 1983, and 1988. The PRSA was chartered in 1947.

APPENDIX 3

Special Instructions

Before you begin the survey, please indicate which designation describes you best:

a) Public Relations Educator

b) Journalism Educator

You are required to give your opinion on each of the statements three times. The first answer will be your personal opinion. Next, you will be asked how the majority of your peers would respond to the same statement. Finally, if you are a public relations educator, "The Other Group's Opinion" requires you to predict how journalism educators would respond to the same statement. Likewise, if you are a journalism educator, "The Other Group's Opinion" requires you to predict how public relations educators would respond to the statement.

To respond to the statements, use the mouse to click on your choice. If you make a mistake, click on the correct choice and the previous answer will disappear.

When you have completed the survey press "Submit" on the very last page of the survey. To move from page to page please use the "Next / Previous" keys at the end of each page. Do not use the "Back / Forward" key on your browser.

1) **Public relations practitioners and the press are partners in the dissemination of information.**

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

2) **Public relations practitioners too frequently insist on promoting products, services and other activities that are not newsworthy.**

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

3) **Public relations as an occupation is more ethical and professional than it was 10 years ago.**

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

4) **In general public relations threatens the legitimacy of an independent Press.**

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

5) **Public relations practitioners regularly clutter our channels of communication with pseudo-events and phony phrases that confuse public issues.**

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

6) **The abundance of free and easily available information provided by public relations practitioners has, on balance, improved the quality of reporting.**

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

7) **In covering the organization they represent, public relations practitioners extend journalists' newsgathering potential.**

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

8) **As a rule, public relations practitioners are really just "puppets" for whoever hires them.**

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

9) **Public relations practitioners are typically people of good sense, good will and good moral character.**

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

10) The journalist / public relations practitioner relationship is generally an adversarial one.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

11) The journalist / public relations practitioner relationship is more cooperative than it was 10 years ago.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

12) Public relations practitioners' sole objective is to persuade and control publics.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

13) Public relations practitioners typically adhere to an established code of ethics.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

14) Typically public relations practitioners' primary obligation is to the client/employer rather than the public interest.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

15) Serving the public interest is more important than economic gain for most public relations practitioners.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

16) Public relations would be perceived as being more ethical and professional if practitioners were licensed.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

17) Public relations is generally recognized as providing a unique and essential service to the general public.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

18) Journalism students require a broader education than public relations students.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

19) Generally speaking, public relations educators stress the importance of critical thinking skills and social responsibility to their students.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

20) Public relations education has a strong body of knowledge and skills, based on theory and research in the field of public relations.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

21) The prestige and credibility of journalism education will be replaced by accusations of bias and subjectivity if it continues to be associated with public relations.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

22) Journalism and public relations do not belong in the same department.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

23) Public relations education is predominantly concerned with media relations.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

24) Public relations programs teach students how to become strategic communication managers.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

25) Journalism educators generally perceive dealing with public relations as a potential threat to the legitimacy and integrity of journalism.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

26) Journalism educators are typically excited by the possibilities that an integrated curriculum presents, and embrace journalism education's relationship with public relations education.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

27) Journalism students have a keener moral compass than their public relations counterparts.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

28) Journalism programs generally attract students with a more critical intellect than public relations programs do.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

29) Today, public relations graduates are more respected by journalism educators than they were 10 years ago.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

30) The academic caliber of the average public relations student is higher than it was 10 years ago.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

31) Public relations programs deliver a broader and more comprehensive curriculum than they did 10 years ago.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

32) Journalism education programs are generally more respected in the academy than public relations education programs.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

33) Public relations educators emphasize the importance of ethics and professionalism to their students.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

34) Public relations practitioners that are accredited by a professional organization are more ethical than those who are not.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

35) Public relations practitioners that belong to professional organizations are more ethical than those who are not.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

36) Public relations practitioners typically deceive the press by attaching too much importance to trivial, uneventful happenings.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

37) If public relations practitioners "play with the facts," it's because that's the only way they'll get their story published.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

38) Generally speaking, public relations practitioners are not as trustworthy as journalists.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

39) If public relations practitioners fail to act in the public interest it's due to organizational pressures outside of their control.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

40) Sometimes public relations practitioners promote pseudo-events because that's what the client/employer expects from them.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

41) Public relations practitioners routinely ignore such journalistic values as newsworthiness and relevance to the reader/viewer.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

42) The press depends on information provided by public relations practitioners because of inadequate staffing levels in most newspapers.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

43) Public relations practitioners have been called "parasites" by the press -- and that characterization is true.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

44) Public relations practitioners are typically obstructionists, keeping journalists from the people they need to see.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

45) Many journalists' stereotypes of public relations practitioners are based on negative experiences they have had with some "bad apples."

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

46) Negative attitudes toward public relations are due to journalists' built in suspicion of the occupation, rather than the failings of individual practitioners.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

47) Generally speaking, journalism educators are suspicious of public relations education because their value systems are so different from one another.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

48) At times, journalism educators "lock horns" with their public relations educator counterparts because each group is fighting for limited resources in the department or college.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

49) If public relations and journalism educators clash with one another, it's because of misunderstandings about their respective functions.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

50) Public relations educators do not teach students how to wrangle "free publicity" for clients, that's a misnomer and misinterprets the nature of modern public relations education.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

51) **Any credibility issues that journalism educators may encounter are partly due to their association with public relations in the academy.**

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

52) **If public relations educators stress the importance of publicity and promotion to students it's because that is what employers expect from public relations graduates.**

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

53) **Public relations graduates are not perceived as being as prestigious as journalism graduates because of inaccuracies and misunderstandings regarding the role of public relations.**

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

54) **Journalists' mistrust of public relations is influenced more by what was learned about the occupation in the academy, rather than negative experiences with individual practitioners.**

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

55) If public relations practitioners prevent access to people or information, it's at the client's request.

	Strongly Agree				*Strongly Disagree*
Your Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Peer's Opinion	1	2	3	4	5
Other Groups' Opinion	1	2	3	4	5

The following information is being collected for statistical purposes only. Please select the option that best describes you best where indicated.

56) Are you?

a) Male

b) Female

57) To what age group do you belong?

a) Under 30

b) 30-48 years

c) 49-57 years

d) 58-77 years

58) What is the highest degree you hold?

a) Bachelor's degree

b) Master's degree

c) Doctoral degree

59) What are the average enrollment rates at your institution?

a) Less than 10,000

b) 10,000 – 20,000

c) 20,000 – 30,000

d) More than 30,000

60) Is your institution located in the:

a) Midwest

b) Southwest

c) Southeast

d) Northwest

e) Other

61) Is your institution publicly funded?

a) Yes

b) No

62) Is your institution accredited by the Accrediting Council for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (ACEJMC)?

a) Yes

b) No

63) How much professional experience do you have outside an academic setting?

a) None

b) 0-5 years

c) 6-10 years

d) 11-20 years

e) 21-30 years

f) More than 30 years

64) To which of the following professional organizations do you belong.

a) PRSA

b) AEJMC

c) SPJ

d) Other

65) Do you have any additional comments?

APPENDIX 4

Hello! My name is Thomasena Shaw from The University of Tennessee's College of Communications. I am a doctoral student researching JOURNALISM AND PUBLIC RELATIONS EDUCATORS' ATTITUDES TOWARD PUBLIC RELATIONS AND PUBLIC RELATIONS EDUCATION. I would like to invite you to participate in a survey about your attitudes and opinions about this topic. Your answers to this survey will be confidential, and all responses will be reported only in the aggregate. You will not receive a commercial solicitation from me or from your participation in this survey.

If you are willing to participate, you need not take any action. I will send the survey to you in a few days. If you are not willing to participate in the survey, please send a return e-mail to me.

Thank you very much for your consideration.

APPENDIX 5

Hello there! Would you take about 15 minutes in the next couple of days and complete this survey about your attitudes as either a journalism or public relations educator toward public relations and public relations education? This survey is part of a doctoral research project at the University of Tennessee, College of Communications. The survey consists of 65 questions.

Please follow the link to the web page that contains the survey. When you are finished, please press the "send answers" button to mail the survey back to me. This survey will work best with Microsoft Internet Explorer so please use this browser if possible.

http://surveys.utk.edu/thomasena/index.htm

If you encounter any problems with the browser, you may print the survey and mail your responses to:

Thomasena Shaw,
330 Communications Building,
University of Tennessee,
Knoxville, TN 37996-0330.

Or fax them to my attention at (865) 974-5056

Replies will be kept confidential, and responses will be reported only in the aggregate. Participation in this survey is voluntary, and you may refuse to participate or withdraw from participation at any time without penalty.

If you have any questions about the survey, please feel free to contact my committee members. Dr. Bonnie Riechert, Dr. Paul Ashdown and Dr. Jim Crook can be contacted at (865) 974-5155.

VITA

Thomasena Shaw is a native of Dublin, Ireland where she attended elementary and high schools before graduating in 1988. That same year she began her college education and received a Bachelors Degree in Sociology at University College Maynooth, Ireland in 1991. In 1993 she completed a Masters Degree in Social Science (Sociology) from University College Dublin, and a Master of Arts (Public Relations) from the Dublin Institute of Technology, Ireland in 1999 where she was also presented with the program's first "Excellent Student Research Award."

In terms of professional work experience, in 1994 she worked as an intern in the European Commission (DG5) in Brussels, and in 1995 as a production researcher for an independent TV production company, which produced several high-rated television programs for Ireland's public service broadcaster RTÉ. Shaw also worked as a lecturer in the Dublin Institute of Technology's College of Marketing, teaching mass communication theory and public relations to students pursuing certificate, diploma and degree qualifications in marketing.

In 1999 Shaw began her doctoral studies in the University of Tennessee's College of Communications and was presented with the College's "Outstanding Ph.D. Student of the Year" award in 2001. She completed her dissertation under the supervision of Dr. Bonnie Riechert and received her Ph.D. degree in Communications with a major in Public Relations in August 2002.

Shaw is currently teaching in the University of Tennessee's College of Communications and her goal is to return to Ireland, pursue an academic career and ultimately establish a research profile in the field of mass communication and public relations.