

# **Stability and Change in Support for Free Expression among Those Preparing for Careers in Communication Occupations**

By

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Press freedom and public support of media rights are major components of a democratic society. In fact, it may well be the case that press freedom cannot exist unless there is basic public support for media rights.

Scholars have examined systematically support for press freedom in the United States and other countries since the early 1990s. They have found that support for media varies from one country to another, reflecting cultural differences, and also changes over time, reflecting social and political change in cultures. In addition, the research shows that the level of support especially for media rights varies within societies. In general, men have been found to be more likely to protect media rights than women. Age also was an important predictor of the attitude towards specific press freedom items: the eldest respondents were the least likely to offer protection to media rights.

Though the researchers have looked at demographic and other differences within the studied populations, they have not conducted research on important subpopulations, such as those who work in communication occupations or those preparing for such careers. Those seeking to enter communication occupations are particularly important, for they are likely to be in the vanguard of those seeking the protection of media rights.

This paper reports on the findings of studies conducted across time of graduates of the U.S. journalism and mass communication programs. The longitudinal data are particularly important for they show the nature of change or stability in support for media rights in this important subpopulation.

The data showed that, despite the four years of instruction, the graduates gave only qualified support to the media. They were most of the times more supportive than the public at large. The differences are not spectacular, however, if unconditional support was compared.

Consistent with U.S. and international surveys, male graduates were more likely to support media rights than their female counterparts.

In addition, that data show that graduates with a print or broadcast journalism specialization were more supportive of media rights than those with telecommunications, advertising, public relations, and other majors.

## **Press Freedom and Media Rights**

Press freedom and public support of media rights are major components of a democratic society. A U.S. Agency for International Development report (USAID, 1999), stated that free access to uncensored information is essential to a democratic system for four reasons. First, it helps citizens to make responsible choices. Second, the information ensures that elected officials uphold their oaths and represent the interests of those who elected them. Third, independent media strengthen the rule of law. Finally, press freedom contributes to transparent elections, giving access to all candidates.

Press freedom, as a civil right, is guaranteed by most of the constitutions around the world, in many cases as a component of freedom of expression. The real issue is whether and how this right is really implemented.

Media independence around the world is evaluated by many organizations, but only four of them have developed instruments procedures to measure it in a precise manner.

In 1980, Freedom House began conducting its media freedom survey—*Freedom of the Press: A Global Survey of Media Independence*—which in 2004 covered 194 countries (Freedom House, 2004).

Freedom House had tried to evaluate freedom of expression around the world since the fifties, initially in the *Balance Sheet of Freedom*, a report that assessed political trends in various countries and their impact on individual freedom, and later through a more complex study entitled *Freedom in the World*. Freedom of expression has been assessed based on a set of questions, the first one being: Are there free and independent media and other forms of cultural expression?

*The Freedom of the Press* survey went further by developing an index of countries based on the degree of press freedom. Three other three organizations have created indices of media freedom or sustainability by country: International Research and Exchanges Board (IREX), Reporters sans frontieres (RSF) and Committee to Protect Journalists (CPJ) (Becker, Vlad & Nusser, 2004).

While these surveys have tried to assess to what extend free media exist and are protected in various countries, other studies have focused on the attitude of populations toward media rights. Through the Free Expression and the American Public survey (Wyatt, 1991) conducted for the American Society of Newspapers Editors, more than 2,500 randomly selected Americans were interviewed in two waves, in

1990 and 1991. The first wave of surveying (more than 1,500 people, age 18 and over) examined three major issues: Americans' attitudes towards media rights; Americans' attitudes toward the free expression of private citizens; and social, economic, politic and religious factors that encourage or force Americans not to speak their minds. The participants were given three options to express their attitudes toward protection of media rights: to protect the rights all the time, some of the time or none of the time.

The second wave of about 1,000 participants repeated the questions about the press freedom. The interviews were conducted in 1991, under different political circumstances, just before the beginning of the first war in Iraq. The findings of the survey showed a huge gap between the support of free press as an abstract First Amendment right and the support for specific topics related to individual media rights items. Press freedom was 8.77 on a 10-point scale. At the same time, one-third of the American public would not protect at all individual media activities such as reporting mistakes made by politicians more than 20 years ago and siding with foreign governments when they believe those governments are right. The highest rated media freedom item was the right of the journalists to keep their sources confidential, with only 16 percent of interviewees unwilling to offer any protection. The study concluded that the citizenry support for the First Amendment was not strong.

The data of the U.S. surveys were later refined and re-analyzed from a comparative perspective (Andsager, Wyatt and Martin, 2004). The authors examined the relationship between demographic variables and the public opinion about free expression in three other countries (Russia, Hong Kong, and in Israel among both Jewish and Arab populations).

This new perspective revealed that the Americans were more likely to support community-related media practices (as opposed to nationwide practices). They were less likely to protect free press rights that, in the general public view, have the potential to affect national security or categories of individuals. The study also showed that younger, more educated, male respondents were more likely to support press freedom than their older, less educated, female counterparts.

The study in Israel was conducted in 1992. The sample included randomly selected Jews and Arabs. The survey included 26 media items that had been used by Wyatt and five new items. The Israeli citizens were also asked to rate their support for seven abstract rights, including the right to join a political

party. Freedom of the press was given less support than in the U.S. survey both by the Jews and the Arabs. The mean score for press freedom was 7.17 for the Jews and 6.96 for the Arabs.

The average score for the media rights battery showed no significant difference between Jews and Arabs, but there was significant variation in support of sexually explicit media (much higher by the Jewish population) and of media that--from a Jewish point--might be detrimental to the security of the state (much higher by the Arab population). Religious observance had a negative impact on likelihood to support some media rights for both populations. In sum, Jews and Arabs were willing to offer only conditional support to most of the media rights.

The survey in Russia was conducted in the Moscow district in the mid 1990s. One thousand people were randomly sampled and interviewed by using a Russian translation of the ASNE survey (with adaptations to reflect the country change). The mean score for press freedom as an abstract right was 7.06.

The support for the 26 media rights items was relatively low in the Russian sample. Only criticizing political leaders and the military won high protection from the Moscovite sample. Age was the most important demographic predictor of protection to media rights, with the eldest respondents showing the lowest support.

The studies in Hong Kong were conducted over a period of five years, starting in 1993. The ASNE 1990 questionnaire was used to produce the survey instrument, with new questions added and several items dropped. At least a subsample each year was presented the media rights battery. The survey was conducted over the phone and through face-to-face interviews.

The mean score for freedom of the press was rated 8.54 on the 10-point scale. The 1996 data showed the highest levels of support for all the six abstract rights included in the survey, perhaps because the respondents were anticipating the 1997 turnover to China. Among the individual media items that came from the initial battery, criticizing political leaders and criticizing the military received the highest rates of support, with almost half of the respondents saying these rights should be protected all the time.

Andsager, Wyatt and Martin (2004) concluded that press freedom received higher support, across different cultures, than particular media rights. They argued that the response to categories of media

rights--such as political, potentially harmful or routine--varied from one country to another because of cultural differences and social-political change, such as the movement to democracy in Russia and Hong Kong's return to China. In addition, they stated that demographic variables were significant predictors on the level of support especially for media rights. Men were more likely to protect media rights than women. The largest gender difference in media support was in the United States, followed by the Israeli Arabs and Moscovites. Age also was an important predictor of the attitude towards specific press freedom items: the eldest respondents were the least likely to offer protection to media rights.

### **Journalism and Mass Communication Graduates' Support of Media Rights**

Researchers have looked at demographic and other differences within the studied populations. At this point, however, they have not conducted research on important subpopulations, such as those who work in communication occupations or those preparing for such careers. This paper reports on the findings of studies conducted across time of graduates of the U.S. journalism and mass communication programs. Research shows that most journalists taking entry level jobs in news media come from such programs (Becker, Vlad and Martin, 2002).

Graduates of the nation's journalism and mass communication programs are entering a labor market today that is rather different from the one graduates entered 10 years ago. The market is more fragmented. Unemployment in recent years has been quite high. Attacks on the media and on media performance, particularly during the 2004 campaign, were quite pronounced. If these attacks on the media in the political arena served as a warning, and if the changes in the media landscape made press freedom seem more fragile, it is reasonable to expect that the 2004 graduates would be more supportive of media rights than those graduates of 10 years earlier. This is the first hypothesis for this study.

For these same reasons, it is reasonable to expect that the degree of support for individual media rights by journalism and mass communication graduates will be significantly higher than the general publics' ones. This is the second hypothesis to be tested.

The third hypothesis was that support for media rights should be greater among those graduates who were seeking jobs in print and broadcast journalism than among those looking for communication

careers in advertising and public relations. This should be both a consequence of the students' occupational commitment and the instruction they receive as part of their curricula.

The literature has consistently shown that women are less supportive of media rights than are men. There is some evidence that women, in fact, are less supportive of the traditionally conflictual approach to news in the west (Becker, Vlad, Huh and Mace, 2003). This expectation of a gender difference is the fourth hypothesis to be tested here.

## **Methodology**

In 1994, the *Annual Survey of Journalism and Mass Communication Graduates*, an on-going survey of graduates of the nation's journalism and mass communication programs (Becker, Vlad and Coffey, 2003), contained 16 questions from the original instrument from the ASNE survey (Wyatt, 1991) on media rights. The 2004 survey repeated those questions and added new questions on the war against terrorism. The responses to the questions allowed for a comparison of change in the attitudes and behaviors of the graduates across time and a comparison of these graduates with the population at large.

The *Annual Survey of Journalism & Mass Communication Graduates* is designed to monitor the employment rates and salaries of graduates of journalism and mass communication programs in the United States, including Puerto Rico. In addition, the survey tracks the curricular activities of those graduates while in college, examines their job-seeking strategies, and provides measures of the professional attitudes and behaviors of the graduates upon completion of their college studies.

Each year a sample of schools is drawn from those listed in the *Journalism and Mass Communication Directory*, published annually by the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication, and *The Journalist's Road to Success: A Career Guide*, formerly published and printed by the Dow Jones Newspaper Fund, Inc., and now available on the web at the following site: <http://djnewspaperfund.dowjones.com/fund/pubcareerguide.asp>. Schools list themselves in the *AEJMC Directory*. All U.S. programs accredited by the Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism and Mass Communications and all U.S. members of the Association of Schools of Journalism and Mass Communication are in the *AEJMC Directory*. To be included in the *Newspaper Fund Guide*, the college or university must offer at least 10 courses in news-editorial journalism and those courses must include core

courses, such as an introduction to the mass media and press law and ethics, as well as basic skills courses such as reporting and editing. Selection of schools for the sample is probabilistic, so that those chosen represent the population of schools in the two directories. In 1994, 86 schools were drawn from the 431 unique entries of four-year programs in the U.S (including Puerto Rico) in the two directories . In 2004, 97 schools were drawn from the 459 unique entries of four-year programs in the U.S. (including Puerto Rico) in the two directories.

Administrators at the selected schools are asked to provide the names and addresses of their spring bachelor's and master's degree recipients. A questionnaire was mailed in November of each of these years to all spring graduates receiving either a bachelor's or a master's degree from the selected programs. A second questionnaire was sent to nonrespondents in January. A third mailing was sent in March to graduates who had not responded to the first two mailings.

In 1994, the survey was mailed to 5,101 individuals whose names and addresses were provided by the administrators of the 86 programs. A total of 2,776 returned the questionnaires by the end of May of 1995. Of the returns, 2,388 were from students who reported they actually had completed their degrees during the April to June 1994 period. The remaining 388 had completed their degrees either before or after the specified period, despite their inclusion in the spring graduation lists. A total of 267 questionnaires was returned undelivered and without a forwarding address. Return rate, computed as the number of questionnaires returned divided by the number mailed, was 54.4%. Return rate, computed as the number returned divided by the number mailed minus the bad addresses, was 57.4. Of the 2,388 usable questionnaires, 2,238 were from bachelor's degree recipients and 151 were from those who received a master's degree.

In 2004, the survey was mailed to 9,796 individuals whose names and addresses were provided by the administrators of the 97 programs. A total of 3,640 returned the questionnaires by the end of May of 2005. Of the returns, 3,356 were from students who reported they actually had completed their degrees during the April to June 2004 period. The remaining 284 had completed their degrees either before or after the specified period, despite their inclusion in the spring graduation lists. A total of 643 questionnaires was returned undelivered and without a forwarding address. Return rate, computed as the

number of questionnaires returned divided by the number mailed, was 37.2%. Return rate, computed as the number returned divided by the number mailed minus the bad addresses, was 39.8%.<sup>1</sup> Of the 3,356 usable questionnaires, 3,123 were from bachelor's degree recipients and 233 were from those who received a master's degree.

Women made up 65.9% of the respondents in 1994 and 72.8% of respondents in 2004. Members of racial or ethnic minorities made up 18.3% of those returning questionnaires in 1994 and 19.1% of those returning questionnaires in 2004. These sample characteristics are similar to those in recent years. Overall, the sample reflects slightly higher return rates from women and slightly lower return rates from minorities, based on the known characteristics of the schools from which the sample was drawn.

Because undergraduates make up the heart of journalism and mass communication education in this country, the analyses that follow are based on their responses, not the responses of the master's degree recipients.

## **Findings**

Journalism and mass communication graduates seem more willing than the general public to give protection all the time to the media when they advertise pornographic or obscene materials than the public (**Chart 1**). They have become just slightly less supportive over time. They are also more tolerant of advertising of tobacco and liquor, and they have become increasingly supportive over time (**Chart 2**).

The journalism and mass communication graduates are more supportive of the media when they take sides with a foreign government against the U.S. in foreign affairs than the U.S. public, but the unconditional support has dropped a bit since 1994 (**Chart 3**). The graduates in 2004 were less supportive than 10 years earlier of protection of confidential sources, making them more like the public, it seems, than earlier (**Chart 4**).

Protection of journalists when using classified materials gets the support, at least under some circumstances, of a majority of the journalism and mass communication students, but not of the public, it seems (**Chart 5**). These sentiments have not changed much in the last 10 years where the graduates are

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<sup>1</sup>The return rates in 2003 were 37.0 and 39.0. In 2002 they were 42.4% and 45.6%, and in 2001 they were 42.2% and 45.7%. In general, return rates have been declining for this and other surveys across time.

concerned. The public is more forgiving of journalists' mistakes than are the graduates, who have remained consistent in their critical stance toward their profession over time (**Chart 6**).

Graduates of the nation's journalism and mass communication programs, and the public, are mixed in their sentiments about election projections (**Chart 7**). The students seem to have become less accepting of this over time. On the other hand, the graduates have become much more supportive of the rights of high school students to write and report on controversy over time (**Chart 8**). They seem to be more supportive of this right than the public at large.

Clear majorities of the graduates, both in 1994 and 2004, support the right of the media to use graphic photographs of violent events (**Chart 9**). The public seems less accepting, with a quarter of the respondents offering no protection under any circumstance. Journalism and mass communication graduates have become more supportive of the media when covering national security issues all the time, and they are clearly more supportive than the nation at a whole, based at least on the comparisons from the early 1990s (**Chart 10**).

The media get strong support from the graduates and the public at large when they write about public figures (**Chart 11**). Consistent with current media policy, the students do not feel, for the most part, that the media should release the identity of rape victims (**Chart 12**). The public was a bit more accepting of disclosure. The graduates also are not much in favor of identifying the names of juveniles charged in crimes, and support for that action has decreased in the last 10 years (**Chart 13**). The public, at least in the early 1990s, was more willing to accept this type of media behavior.

Graduates of the nation's journalism and mass communications programs give conditional support to the presentation of nude or partially clothed persons on television (**Chart 14**). The public seems to be a bit less supportive. Change in this sentiment is slight on the part of the graduates. The same is true in the case of use of nude pictures in magazines or books (**Chart 15**). A third of the graduates in both 1994 and 2004 endorsed this as a right that the media should have "all of the time." The public seems less convinced of this. There also is little evidence of change on the part of the graduates in their acceptance of the right of the media to influence trials (**Chart 16**). Only 15% of the graduates gave complete support

to the media here in 2004, a figure nearly the same 10 years ago. The graduates give more qualified support to the media here than the general public, it seems.

Three of 10 of the 2004 bachelor's degree recipients feel the media "under all circumstances" should be protected when they broadcast video that may contain a message from terrorists, and nearly six in 10 think that it is acceptable "under certain circumstances" (**Chart 17**). Four in 10 of the graduates think the media should be protected fully when they write unfavorable stories about U.S. soldiers in combat (**Chart 18**). A slightly higher ratio give conditional support to this media behavior.

The first hypothesis was that student support for media rights would change over time. There is little evidence to support this position. The mean scores of an index created by summing the responses of the 16 items used 1994 and the 16 comparable items in 2004 were virtually the same, 32.66 in 1994 and 32.52 in 2004 ( $t=0.946$ ,  $p>.05$ ). The second hypothesis is that support for media rights should be higher among students than among the general population. There is general support for this hypothesis. Across 13 of 16 comparisons, based on the "Not protected at all" category, the students were more supportive of media rights than the general population (based on the difference of proportions test at the .05 level of confidence). The only cases where there was insufficient evidence of difference was for reporting of inaccurate information, when reporting the name of rape victims, and for use of names in juvenile crimes.

The third and four hypotheses are that the area of study of the students and their gender should have impact on support for media rights. These hypotheses are supported by the data.

As predicted, those students specializing in journalism were more likely to be supportive of media rights in 1994 (**Table 1**) and 2004 (**Table 2**) than were students with other specializations within the broad field of journalism and mass communication. What is shown in the table is the mean score for an index created by summing across the total number of items asked each year. In addition, women were consistently less likely to support media rights than were men. Both of these differences are significant beyond the .05 level. Since the 2004 data file contained two additional items on media rights associated with the coverage of Iraq and terrorism, a separate index was created for 2004 based on the same set as was used in 1994. These data are shown in **Table 3**. The differences based on specialization and gender are consistent with those in Tables 1 and 2.

## Conclusions

Despite changes in the labor market, the findings show that the attitudes of journalism and mass communication graduates toward media rights have remained stable in the 10-year interval. After four years of instruction, however, the graduates are hardly absolutists in terms of media rights. They generally give qualified support to the media. Two items included on the 2004 survey but not on the 1994 survey illustrate this basic pattern. Journalism and mass communication graduates say television should be protected when its newscasts contain video that may contain a message from terrorists, but the majority of the graduates qualify this position by saying the protection should exist only “under certain circumstances.” Similarly, eight in 10 of the graduates say the media should be protected when journalists write stories about U.S. soldiers in combat that portray them unfavorably, but only half of the supporters say this right should be present “all of the time.” These are current and concrete examples of issues the media faced and are facing in covering Iraq. That so many of the graduates do not see these as basic, clear and absolute rights says a lot.

In fact, the journalism graduates seem to be more inclined than the general public to support protection of the media “under certain circumstances.” One interpretation is that the graduates have a better understanding than the public of the complexities of media circumstances. Journalism graduates, however, look more like the public than different from it, if unconditional support is compared.

A comparison of the percentage of journalism graduates who said that media rights should not be protected at all and the general public percentage of respondents who said that is more favorable to the journalism and mass communication graduates. An average of 23.1% of the journalism and mass communication graduates in 1994 and 23.4% in 2004 said they would protect media rights none of the time, while the percentage of the 1990 national public who said so was 40.0.

Consistent with U.S. and international surveys, male graduates were more likely to support media rights than their female counterparts. As the number of female journalism and mass communication graduates has constantly increased, being higher than the number of male Bachelor's, Master's and Ph.D. recipients, it is reasonable to assume that women will be more prominent in the communication-related

occupations in the future. As a result, the level of support for press freedom rights among those who work in media and other communication organizations might drop in the future.

Those graduates with a print or broadcast specialization were more supportive of media rights than those with telecommunications, advertising, public relations, and other majors. The mean scores in the 1994 and 2004 indices are almost identical, which suggests that graduates who looked for jobs in newsrooms were more aware of the importance of media rights support than those with other communication major.

Fifteen years ago, Wyatt (1991) concluded that American public support for press freedom was deficient and that, as a result, some legislators and politicians might seek to “undermine those very freedoms that give our democracy life” (p. 87). Such a process has taken place in at least one of the countries where the population’s support for individual media rights was low: in Russia, starting 2001, president Putin started an aggressive campaign against independent media, while “the vast majority of Russian people paid no attention to the campaign” (Lipman and McFaul, 2003; p. 75).

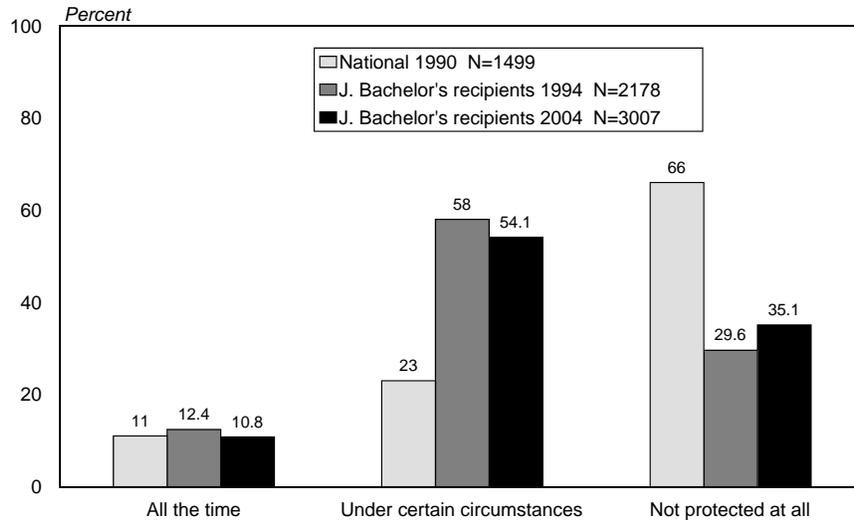
The findings of the 1994 and 2004 surveys of U.S. journalism and mass communication graduates are equally worrying. They show that people who take jobs in communication--after four years of education in the field--are likely to give only limited support to the rights that are fundamental to their occupation.

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# 1. Media rights: pornography

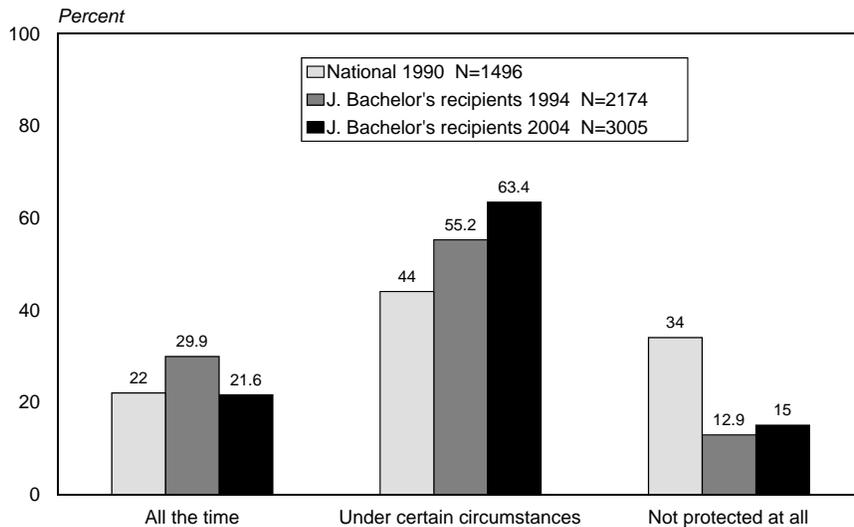
Q. Do you feel that the media should be protected when advertising pornographic or obscene materials?



Source: Free Expression and the American Public, 1991  
Annual Survey of Journalism and Mass Communication Graduates

# 2. Media rights: harmful products

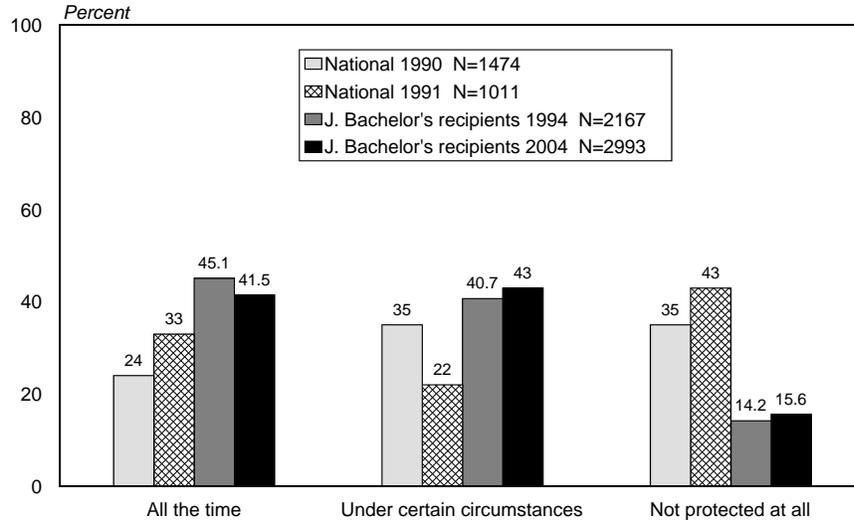
Q. Do you feel that the media should be protected when advertising products that are legal but harmful, such as tobacco or liquor?



Source: Free Expression and the American Public, 1991  
Annual Survey of Journalism and Mass Communication Graduates

### 3. Media rights: against U.S. position

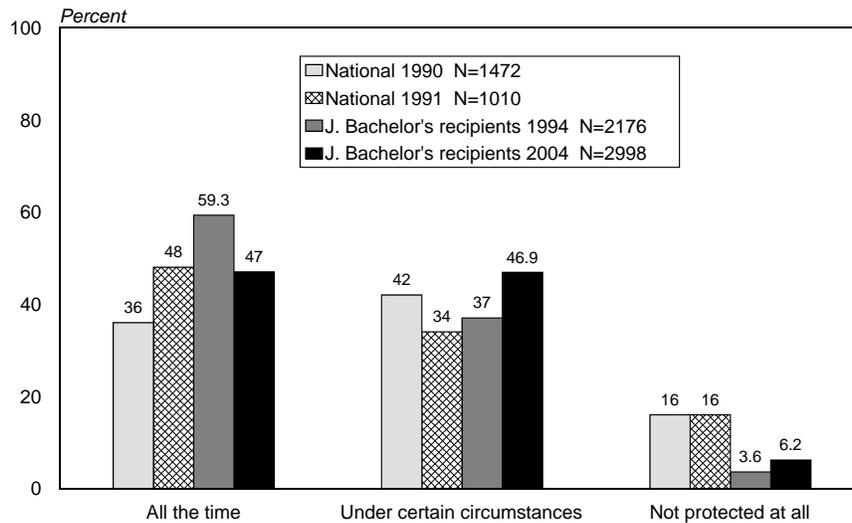
Q. Do you feel that media should be protected when journalists take sides with a foreign government against the position of the United States?



Source: Free Expression and the American Public, 1991  
Annual Survey of Journalism and Mass Communication Graduates

### 4. Media rights: confidentiality of sources

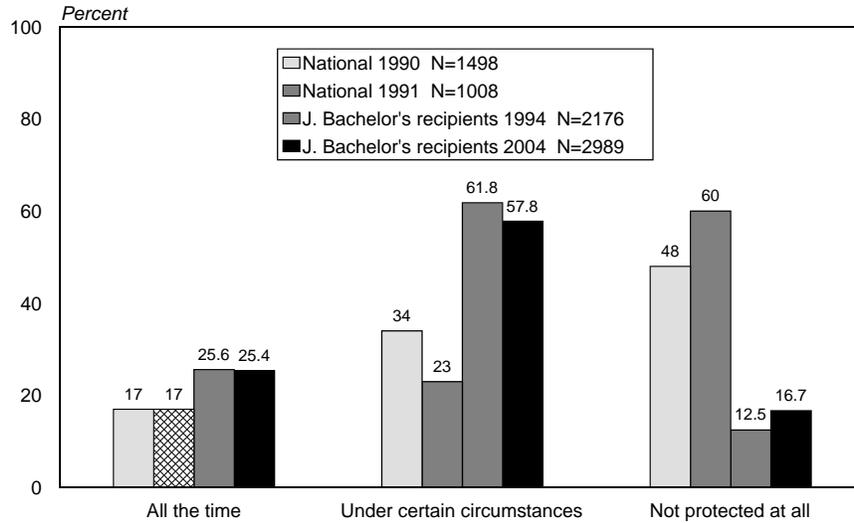
Q. Do you feel that media should be protected when journalists keep their sources confidential if a court demands to know the identity of the source?



Source: Free Expression and the American Public, 1991  
Annual Survey of Journalism and Mass Communication Graduates

## 5. Media rights: classified materials

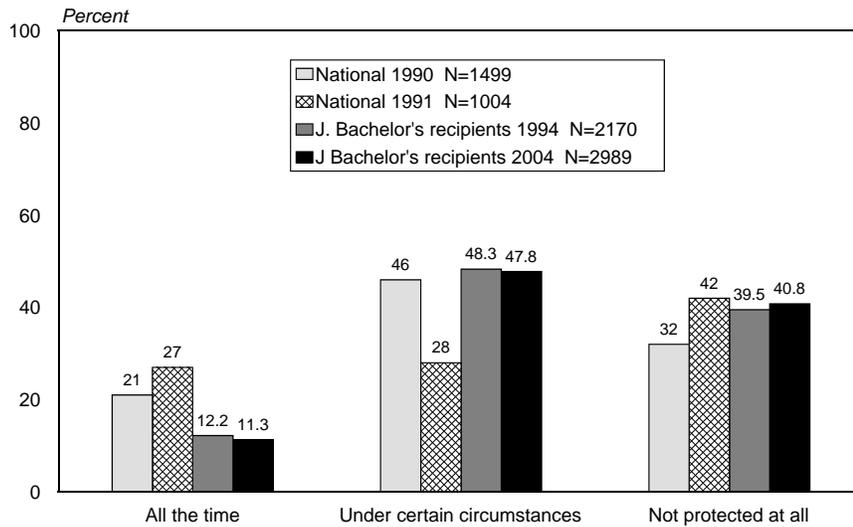
Q. Do you feel that media should be protected when journalists report classified material that the government wishes to keep secret?



Source: Free Expression and the American Public, 1991  
Annual Survey of Journalism and Mass Communication Graduates

## 6. Media rights: inaccurate information

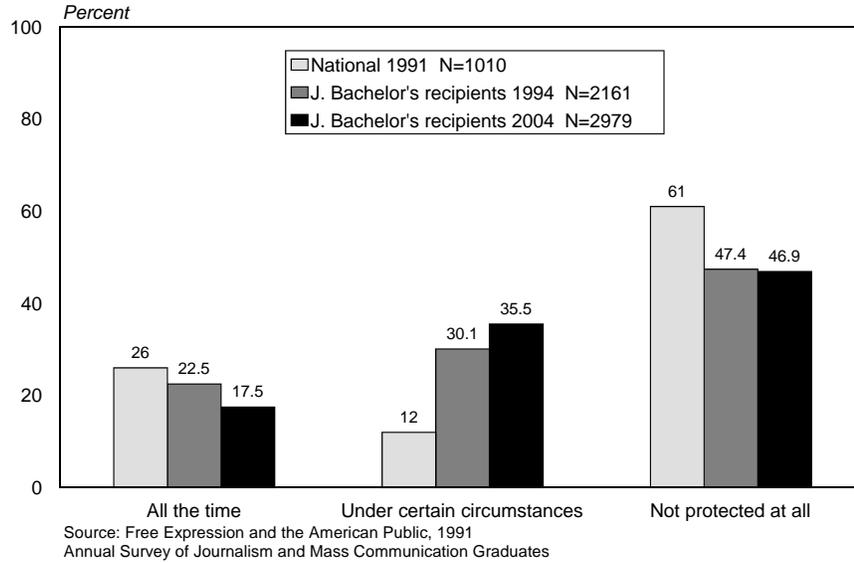
Q. Do you feel that the media should be protected when journalists report inaccurate information that they believe to be true?



Source: Free Expression and the American Public, 1991  
Annual Survey of Journalism and Mass Communication Graduates

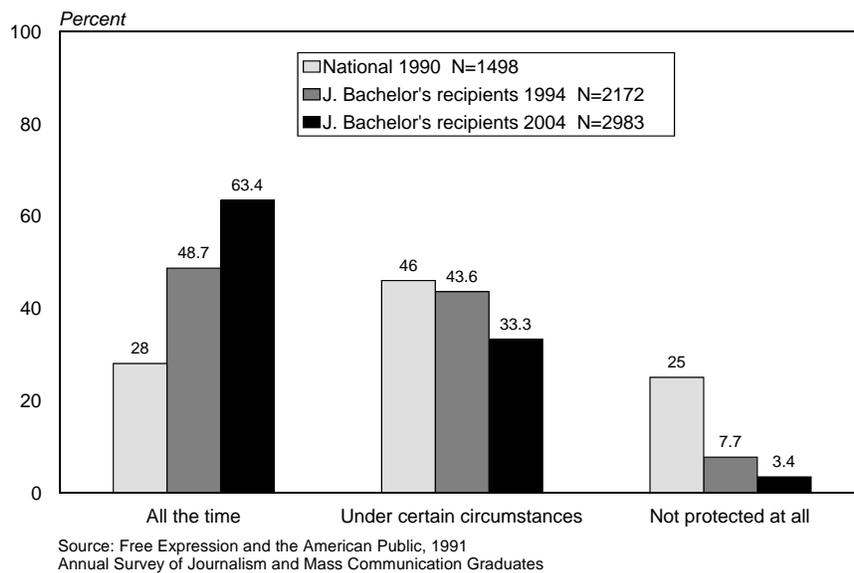
## 7. Media rights: election projection

Q. Do you feel that the media should be protected when television stations project the winners of an election while the people are still voting?



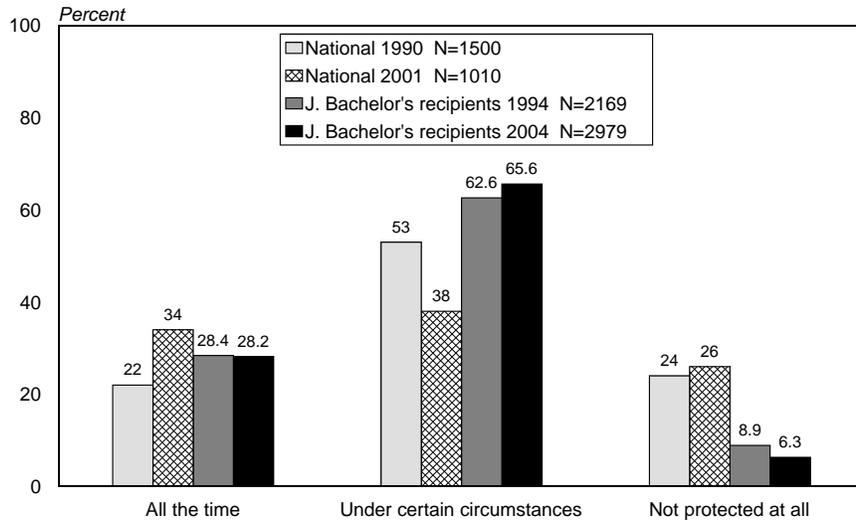
## 8. Media rights: high school media

Q. Do you feel that the media should be protected when high school students report controversial issues in their student newspapers?



## 9. Media rights: violent materials

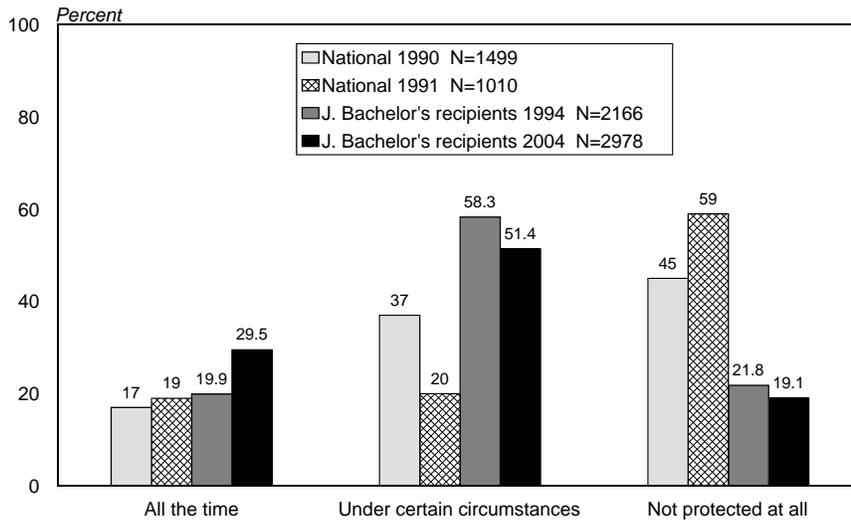
Q. Do you feel that the media should be protected when newspapers or television stations run graphic photographs of violent events?



Source: Free Expression and the American Public, 1991  
Annual Survey of Journalism and Mass Communication Graduates

## 10. Media rights: national security

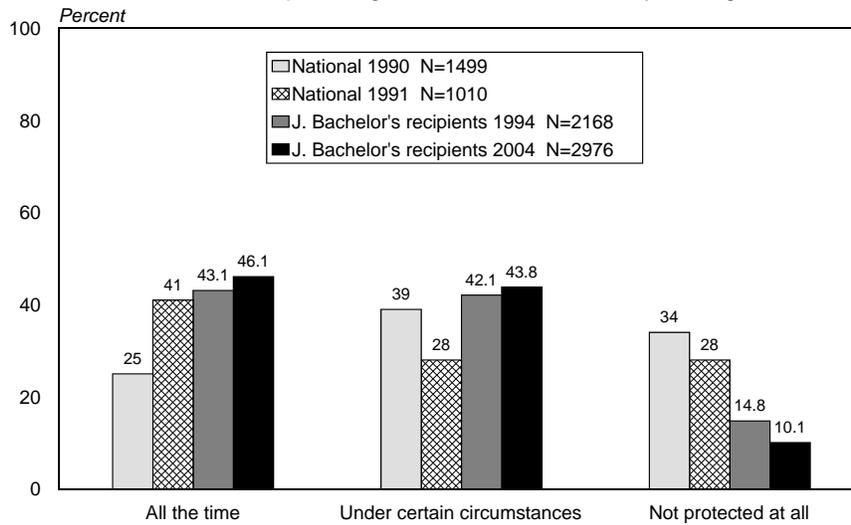
Q. Do you feel that the media should be protected when journalists report about national security without government approval?



Source: Free Expression and the American Public, 1991  
Annual Survey of Journalism and Mass Communication Graduates

## 11. Media rights: public figures

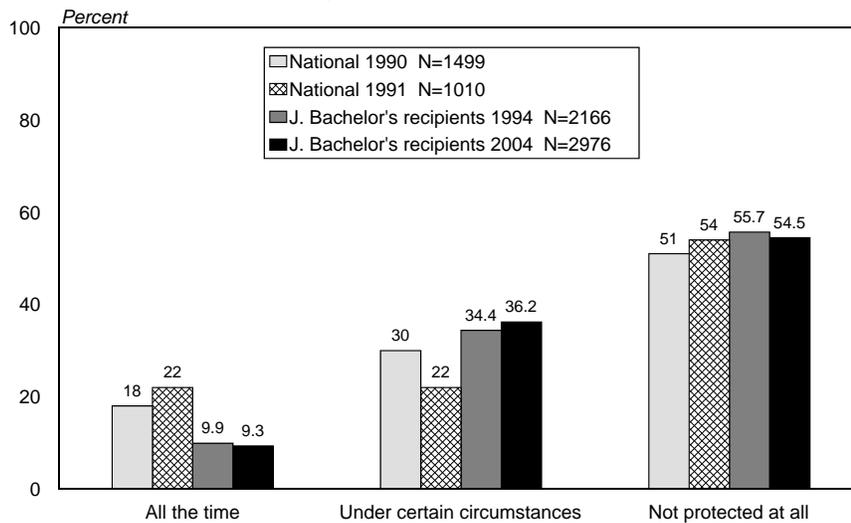
Q. Do you feel that the media should be protected when journalists report about the mistakes a public figure made more than 20 years ago?



Source: Free Expression and the American Public, 1991  
Annual Survey of Journalism and Mass Communication Graduates

## 12. Media rights: rape victims

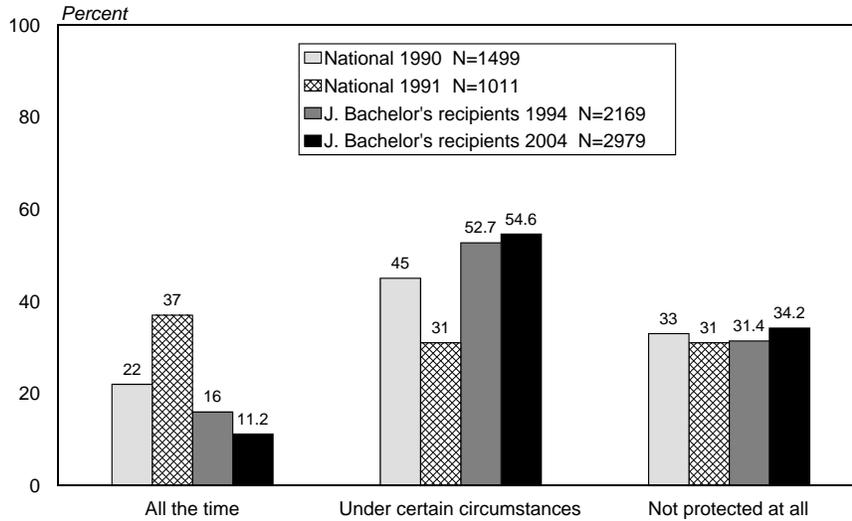
Q. Do you feel that the media should be protected when journalists report the name or identity of a rape victim?



Source: Free Expression and the American Public, 1991  
Annual Survey of Journalism and Mass Communication Graduates

### 13. Media rights: juvenile crime

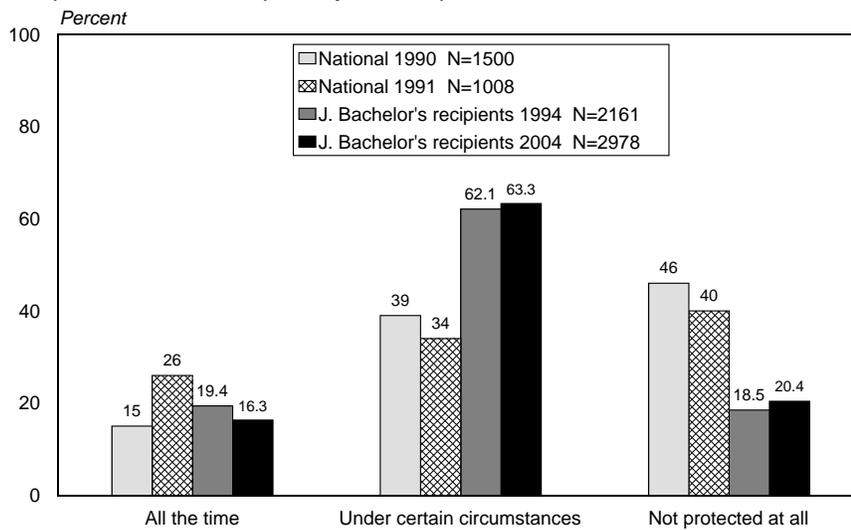
Q. Do you feel that the media should be protected when journalists report the name of a juvenile charged with a crime?



Source: Free Expression and the American Public, 1991  
Annual Survey of Journalism and Mass Communication Graduates

### 14. Media rights: broadcasting nudity

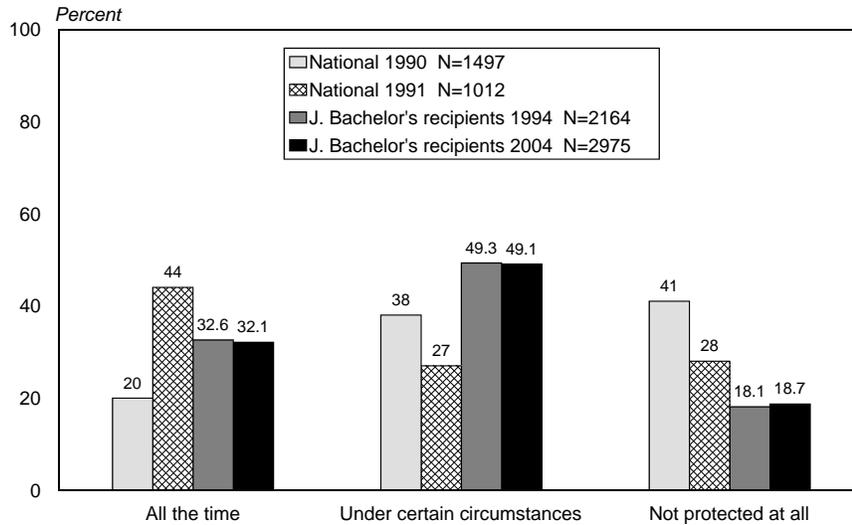
Q. Do you feel that the media should be protected when television broadcasts pictures of nude or partially clothed persons?



Source: Free Expression and the American Public, 1991  
Annual Survey of Journalism and Mass Communication Graduates

## 15. Media rights: nude pictures

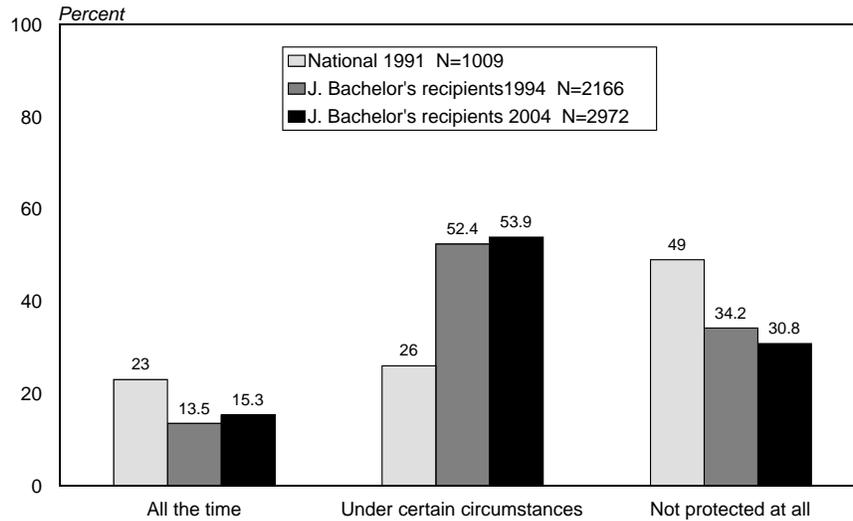
Q. Do you feel that the media should be protected when selling magazines or books that feature nude pictures?



Source: Free Expression and the American Public, 1991  
Annual Survey of Journalism and Mass Communication Graduates

## 16. Media rights: criminal trials

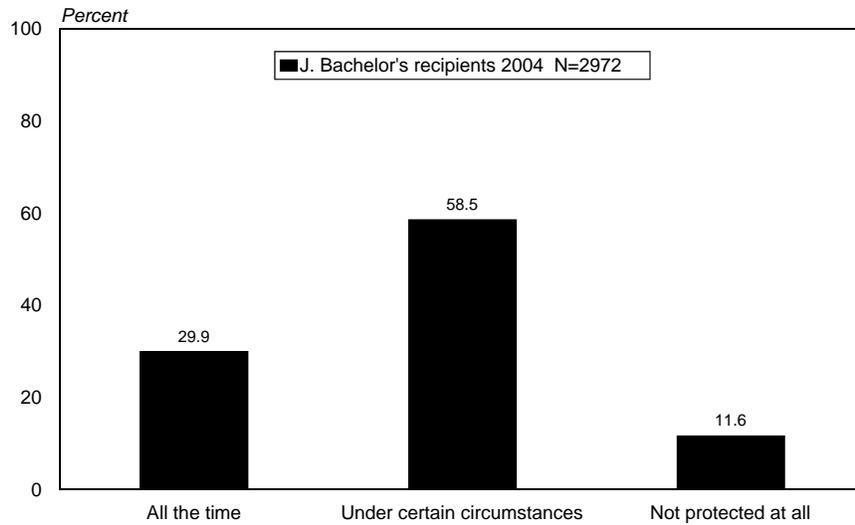
Q. Do you feel that the media should be protected when journalists report stories that may affect the outcome of a criminal trial?



Source: Free Expression and the American Public, 1991  
Annual Survey of Journalism and Mass Communication Graduates

## 17. Media rights: messages from terrorists

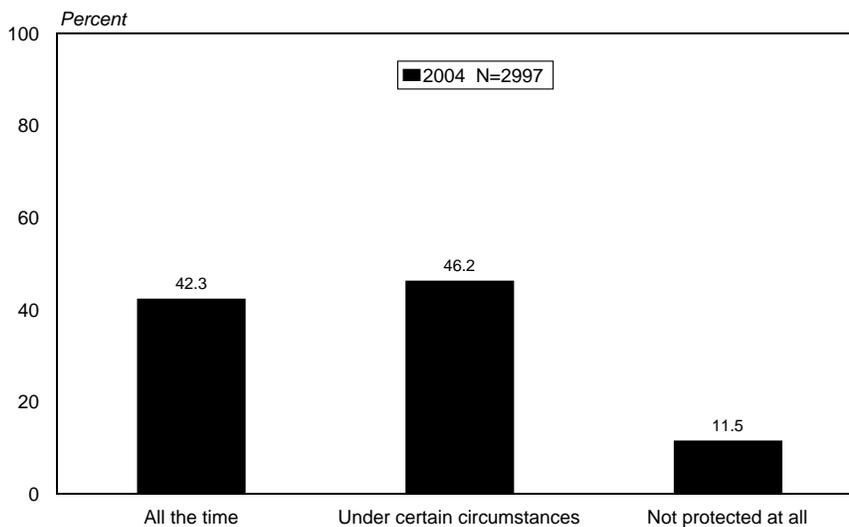
Q. Do you feel that the media should be protected when television newscasts include video that may contain a message from terrorists?



Source: Annual Survey of Journalism and Mass Communication Graduates

## 18. Media rights: U.S. soldiers in combat

Q. Do you feel that the media should be protected when journalists write stories about U.S. soldiers in combat that portray them unfavorably?



Source: Annual Survey of Journalism and Mass Communication Graduates

Table 1.

## Media Rights Index 1994

Major	Gender	Mean	N	SD
Journalism (print and broadcast)	Male	34.70	279	5.51
	Female	33.50	435	5.25
	Total	33.97	714	5.38
Telecommunications	Male	33.14	63	4.83
	Female	31.65	63	4.74
	Total	32.40	126	4.83
Advertising	Male	32.42	95	5.11
	Female	30.98	182	4.93
	Total	31.48	277	5.03
Public relations	Male	32.00	83	5.73
	Female	31.68	286	5.01
	Total	31.75	369	5.17
Other	Male	33.04	200	5.23
	Female	31.93	405	5.09
	Total	32.29	605	5.16
Total	Male	33.49	720	5.43
	Female	32.24	1,371	5.16
	Total	32.67	2,091	5.29

F Scores: Major 16.27 ( $p < .05$ ); Gender 14.99 ( $p < .05$ ); interaction 0.49 ( $p > .05$ ).

Table 2.

## Media Rights Index 2004

Major	Gender	Mean	N	SD
Journalism (print and broadcast)	Male	38.92	378	6.07
	Female	36.32	834	5.78
	Total	37.13	1,212	5.99
Telecommunications	Male	36.76	68	6.32
	Female	35.51	57	4.47
	Total	36.19	125	5.57
Advertising	Male	36.78	92	6.32
	Female	34.71	298	4.98
	Total	35.20	390	5.39
Public relations	Male	35.46	78	5.48
	Female	35.02	448	5.61
	Total	35.08	526	5.59
Other	Male	36.31	160	5.92
	Female	34.51	441	5.61
	Total	34.99	601	5.75
Total	Male	37.59	776	6.17
	Female	35.40	2,078	5.62
	Total	36.00	2,854	5.85

F Scores: Major 18.92 ( $p < .05$ ); Gender 27.92 ( $p < .05$ ); interaction 2.14 ( $p > .05$ ).

Table 3.

## Media Rights Index 2004 (1994 items)

Major	Gender	Mean	N	SD
Journalism (print and broadcast)	Male	35.02	379	5.39
	Female	32.75	837	5.09
	Total	33.45	1,216	5.29
Telecommunications	Male	33.12	68	5.53
	Female	32.05	57	4.08
	Total	32.63	125	4.93
Advertising	Male	33.23	92	5.50
	Female	31.46	299	4.46
	Total	31.88	391	4.78
Public relations	Male	32.01	78	4.87
	Female	31.65	448	4.93
	Total	31.70	526	4.92
Other	Male	32.86	160	5.15
	Female	31.33	443	4.90
	Total	31.73	603	5.01
Total	Male	33.89	777	5.42
	Female	32.00	2,084	4.94
	Total	32.52	2,861	5.14

F Scores: Major 16.89 ( $p < .05$ ); Gender 26.31 ( $p < .05$ ); interaction 2.16 ( $p > .05$ ).