

**PROFESSIONAL FREEDOM AND SATISFACTION OF
MEDIA PERSONS IN KERALA**

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**By
MELJO THOMAS**

**Supervising Teacher
Dr. MUHAMMADALI N
Head, Dept. of Journalism & Mass Communication**



**Dept. of Journalism and Mass Communication
University of Calicut, Kerala**

2017

DECLARATION

I, Meljo Thomas, hereby declare that this thesis entitled **Professional Freedom and Satisfaction of Media Persons in Kerala** is a bona fide record of research work done by me and that it has not previously formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, associateship, fellowship or other similar title or recognition in the University of Calicut or any other Universities.

University of Calicut

Date:

Meljo Thomas

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis entitled **Professional Freedom and Satisfaction of Media Persons in Kerala** submitted to the University of Calicut for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Journalism is a bona fide record of research carried out by **Meljo Thomas** under my supervision and guidance.

University of Calicut

Date:

Dr. Muhammadali N

Head, Dept. of Journalism
& Mass Communication

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"When you love what you have, you have everything you need."

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PREFACE

I communicate therefore I am

Media are the extensions of man, observed Marshall McLuhan. I have media eyes and media ears in the forms of print media, radio, television and now the internet. So it is through media that I extended myself. The world I imagined was actually created by media part by part. Messages flowed relentlessly to me through my media eyes and ears. 'This is what I want and this is what I ought to receive,' I thought.

Suddenly but slowly I recognized not one day but over many days that the operations of my media eyes and ears are not spontaneous but planned as they are not my natural extensions. Obviously, what I see and what I hear are filtered and structured. Sorry to be so dramatic but that is the reality. Take any of our worldviews and see what not is mediated.

Have media got that power to create our worldviews and to generate our attitude towards it? Yes, it is, in one way or other. How do we know that? Take a minute to think that to which newspaper and channel you exposure the most. Why are we so selective? Is it because of availability or preference? If it is our choice, find what prompts us to select it.

Take two or three newspapers or switch to two or three news channels and try to get the content about a particular news item. Are they different? If so, know that the sources are the same but the way the news is filtered and structured is different from media to media.

If that is the case, why the news items of equal importance get filtered and structured differently in different media. Is it done by the processing hands consciously or unconsciously? In both ways, what are the factors that influence these processing hands? Individual, organizational, socio-cultural, economic or political factors – what play the crucial role in determining the form and content of the media? Is the news processors satisfied or not satisfied in the profession they are engaged in? Are they free or not free while processing news?

Unending are the questions. This study is an attempt to address some of the above questions in the context of Kerala mediascape. Evaluating the level of professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons in Kerala, the study further tries to find out the linkage between professional and personal characteristics with freedom and satisfaction of Kerala journalists. Also examined is the reciprocity between professional freedom and satisfaction.

The present study is organized into five chapters. The first chapter draws a picture of the problem under study on what it is, why it is and how it is to be understood and measured. Reviewing previous studies on professional freedom and satisfaction of journalists across the globe, the second chapter shows the trend set by erstwhile researchers in the field. The third chapter details the objectives and methodology adopted to elicit the influencing factors of professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons in Kerala. Analysing the survey data, the fourth chapter provides a general understanding of the personal and professional characteristics of Kerala journalists and the levels of their professional freedom and satisfaction. Focusing on the important findings of the study, the last chapter tries to make conclusions, discussions and recommendations of the present study on professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons in Kerala.

In a wider perspective, the status of professional freedom and satisfaction of journalists in Kerala is not in a safer position for all the positive aspects of intellectual and physical indices that the state claims in the name of the well acclaimed Kerala model. And, it is also to be noted that journalists' freedom is more curtailed, as they perceive, internally than externally pointing at the organizational motives that betray the very concept of press freedom. Level of satisfaction, from a different angle, is reduced as they were less satisfied in the extrinsic factors of professional satisfaction. Service-oriented journalism which might have inspired the journalists to enter this profession alone is insufficient for journalists to whom it is a livelihood. The relationship between professional freedom and satisfaction, arguably, is like two sides of the same coin in a public service profession like journalism. Hence, raising professional freedom for journalists will automatically raise the level of their professional satisfaction which ultimately upsurges the quality of journalism.

However, the study is not devoid of limitations. Since the thoughts generated from the findings of the study set in the regional mediascape of Kerala, their applicability to the wider spectrum of the country and across nations need to be tested by time. Studies focusing on a specific gender/caste, type of media, beat specialization and so on may broaden the understanding of the problem under investigation and will enrich the media research, especially in the Indian context.

The present study, I believe, contributes to the study of journalism and mass communication industry in India as it explores many hitherto hidden aspects of media profession in the country. Also, I hope, the professional freedom and professional satisfaction models and indices developed as part of the study will remain as guiding mechanisms for future researchers since they were framed encompassing all possible scenarios in the Indian media landscape.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Media are the extensions of men with which they communicate. And the very way of communication later decided the way men are. History of man unfolds through four different communication phases: the oral age, the literary age, the print age, and the electric age. The evolution of modern mass media began with the invention of printing press. It was with the advent of newspapers, the golden era of mass communication began. Mass media found new heights with radio and television. And by the last decade of 20th C. mass media reached its zenith through computer and internet. Research in the field reveals that the communication through media is the nervous system in the body of society without which proper flow of message is not possible.

Journalism refers to the work of professional journalists who collect information about current events, people, trends and issues and disseminate it through mass media like radio, TV, print and those based on internet. It can range from hard news, current affairs and war reporting to soft news, colour pieces and features; it can be general or special, local or international, serious or popular. It often regarded as the first draft of history (Harcup, 2014). In the words of newspaper editor and screenplay writer Kurt Luedtke, reputations and careers, jail sentences and stock prices, Broadway shows and water rates that depend on journalists' discretionary judgments. They are the mechanism of reward and punishment, the arbiter of right and wrong, and the roving eye of daily judgment. And they no longer shape public opinion; they have supplanted it (Swearingen, 1989).

The media tell the audience 'not what to think but what to think about.' Here, the public perceives the world around them as directed by the media i.e. the journalists. The newsworthy information processed by journalists is an important influence in setting the public agenda. But the newsworthiness of these events is shaped in the news desk in accordance with the 'political economy' of the media organization and the journalists (Herman & Chomsky, 1989).

The question who or what tells the media what to think about is vital. Studies revealed that the way news as a social construct is shaped and the newsroom

practice as a professional trait is nurtured are based on the characteristics of journalists, the news processors. On this ground, the existence of media, the fourth estate, as the watchdog of democracy needs to be examined. Therefore, it becomes inevitable to check who these communicators, why they do and what they do as they are the mirror bearers of the society of which they themselves are part of and as they act as the 'eyes and ears of the general public' in a democracy.

Professional freedom of a journalist is inevitable to the fourth estate's public service journalism in a democracy. Unfortunately, it is challenged by the over-riding role of market forces in media where conglomerates invest to squeeze profit through all the possible ways. The media try to make a mass appeal for the stands of its owners and the funding agencies. Chomsky put it in these words, "the media serve, and propagandize on behalf of, the powerful societal interests that control and finance them" (Herman & Chomsky, 1989) and thus shape and constrain the media policy.

Professional satisfaction, on the other hand, is a job attitude and the most extensively researched area in the organizational psychology. The smooth functioning of media organization depends on the satisfaction of journalists which is related to the individual, organizational, professional and societal factors.

Information ought to be a public good. Data shows that a lion share of publications in Indian media industry is under the ownership of individuals and joint stock companies and so is the case of Kerala, a southern Indian state (RNI, 2015). Social leaders warn that a privatised, corporatized and commoditized information resulting from the consolidation of media ownership in the absence of cross-media restrictions and with favouring government policies, will affect the diversity of news flows adversely.

Hence, the news is filtered and modified while processing and political economy of mass media redefine the role of a journalist and the notion of freedom of the press. As a result, journalists' satisfaction and freedom encounter a number of problems and issues in the present professional scenario. Therefore, it is worthwhile to examine the professional freedom and satisfaction of journalists as a whole and this study focuses on journalists in Kerala.

Though the researchers shied away from the field of journalism and journalists for a long time, they entered with a large sum of interesting data in the

last decades of 20th century. Yet such studies in this regard are conducted rarely in India, especially in Kerala, excepting a few like that of Robin Jeffrey.

India placed at the 136th rank in the 2017 World Press Freedom Index by Reporters Without Borders and the jobs of newspaper reporter and broadcaster rated the worst jobs in the world by CareerCast (2017). The structural compulsions in the corporatized media industry world over force the stakeholders, particularly news processors and managers, to resort to increased self-regulation risking professional freedom and satisfaction. As a developing nation with matured media market, India is also not an exception to it. In this context, the present study does a close watch on the watchdog in Kerala, the most literate state in the world's largest democracy that will shed light on their work culture and professional status in Kerala and so in India. Area of investigation for this study is limited to professional freedom (PF) and professional satisfaction (PS) of media persons in Kerala.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

What is journalism? Is it a service, business or a profession? What is its role in democracy? How does it act in a democratic country like India and what is its status in India as well as in Kerala? What are the current trends and related changes in media? How is the journalistic content of media produced and distributed? What are the factors that influence the media content? What is the role of journalists/media persons in making media content? How important is it to know the concepts of professional/job autonomy/freedom and job/professional satisfaction of the journalist to understand the media and its content? What are the theoretical frameworks provided in the fields of PF and PS of journalists? What are the key elements of PF and PS of a journalist? The present study on PF and PS of media persons in Kerala builds on these grounds.

Journalism as a Profession

Is journalism a profession? There is much debate about the status of journalism as a profession. The terms job and profession are often used interchangeably though they refer to two quite different things. Job refers to the activities that are performed in exchange for money and is often short-term having no significant impact on society of the person's life. Profession, on the other hand, is a vocation based on specialized educational training and a lifelong practice having a significant impact on society of the person's life.

Professionalization has been held back by the internal diversity of media and the wide range of goals. For Max Weber (1948) journalists are like 'a sort of pariah caste' similar to an artist, lacking a fixed social classification. Whereas Schuldsen characterized journalism as an 'uninsulated profession' that lacks clear boundaries. Thus considering Journalism as a profession is a matter of dispute both within and outside the media world (McQuail, 2010, p. 287).

Scholars like Olen (1988) Kepplinger and Koecher (1990) hold the idea that journalism should not become a profession since it involves the exercise of a right to freedom of expression that cannot be monopolized by an institution (that of journalism). Keeping this in mind, Schultz opines that 'quest for professionalism was generally opposed by the publishers who saw journalistic autonomy as a threat to newsroom control' (McQuail, 1998, p. 135).

General criteria of professionalism (McQuail, 2005) includes control of entry to the occupation, core skills that required training, codes of ethics and standards of practice, and having significant social role and autonomy in the exercise of skills.

As a profession journalism provides fixed salary to the practitioners and has got ethical codes to guide their practice. Professional integrity is the corner stone of journalists' credibility. But in contrast, there seems deficiency in respect of exclusive skill, autonomy and self-regulation. On the other hand, journalism has got a significant social role especially in a democratic country like India.

As part of professionalization, media persons pledged to uphold standards of professional practice, promised to weed out irresponsible practitioners and gave recognition to those who excel in the field by establishing awards and all. Thus journalists made an attempt to make their job a profession by receiving the structure of other professions like doctors and lawyers. For media scholars like McQuail, journalism is an incomplete profession and its process of professionalization faces obstacles in ever being complete. In short, journalism can claim professional status on some criteria.

Professionalization, on the other hand, brought some problems that a profession faces. Some of the problems faced by journalism as a profession are; a tendency to be reluctant to identify and censure professional standard violating professionals, vague standards of ethics, the absence of professional training and licensing in journalism, less independence over one's own work and so on (Baran & Davis, 2006).

In general, the profession is a contentious term used by some to describe the occupation of journalism whereas others reject the idea as the entry to journalism is not restricted unlike regulated professions such as medicine and the law (Harcup, 2014).

Journalism as a Business

In its originality, journalism refers to public service. But for the present profit-oriented media industry, journalism is a business i.e., news business. The news is the filler to fill the news holes created by the pre-arrangement of advertisements though journalists, in general, disfavour the concept. Some even argue that objectivity is influenced more by the economics of the news business than by anything else.

Profit orientation of the media business is evident when a media company recognizes that good journalism cannot survive, develop and flourish unless it is viable and commercially successful. Though the media have grown up in response to the social and cultural needs of the public whom they serve, they are largely run as business enterprises. As a result, industrial and economic significance of the information and communication sector increased. Anyhow, media are not only businesses, responding to economic forces, but also deeply rooted social and cultural institutions (Mcquail, 2005).

Profit-oriented media industry depends mainly on advertisements and advertisers. In order to increase the advertisements, media institutions were forced to take a soft approach to their sponsors. Gradually, media is being limited as advertisement suppliers for corporate firms with a mask of news providers. And the fourth estate represents, for argument, the wealthy hands of vested interest groups overruling the other three estates namely judiciary, legislature and executive.

Media and Democracy

Scottish philosopher Thomas Carlyle considered British press as powerful as the three official branches of government namely the Lords, the House of Commons and Church while developing the term 'fourth estate' articulated by Edmund Burke. At present, the term is used to indicate the fourth pillar of democracy after the executive, legislative and judiciary. It is the fourth power that checks and counterbalances the first three estates. The fourth estate became a conventional

term for journalists in their role as reporters of and watchdogs on the government in a democratic country. The mass media mediate between government and society and acts as a guardian of welfare. Here, journalists become quasi-constitutional watchdogs acting on behalf of a society's citizens (Harcup, 2014).

In a democratic country, the press is ought to be free. A free press is meant to inform, educate and entertain the citizenry in a fair, objective, factual, and proportionate way. And it should be committed to individual and civil liberties. Democratic media justifies its existence as the fourth estate only if it could investigate and question both money and power and hold them to the idea of greater common good. Scepticism should be their first impulse.

As the technology develops the nature of journalism is facing tremendous change in every aspect of collecting and disseminating the message whether it is information or entertainment. Earlier, the duty of a journalist was to inform, educate, and entertain the mass. It is replaced by infotainment (a combination of information and entertainment) and media is reformed as an industry. Even the law restricts the newspaper production and Television under the Industries Act of India. So journalist turns to be a mere worker in the media industry. These industries, owned by profit aiming monopolies outsmart service-oriented journalism.

S. Y. Quraishi, former Chief Election Commissioner of India, from this ground, stated that (Tehelka) 'the media is the watchdog of democracy, nothing that weakens it should be permitted, but if it is weakening from within, that too should not be permitted.'

Though journalists enjoy more freedom when compared to other professions, there are some restrictions like availability of resources that result from a shortage of time and fund, editors and their expectations that approve or disapprove the newsworthiness and may defer in the angle of a story. In addition, the marketing department that follow a advertisers' friendly/ subscribers' friendly policies and a localization policy which also vary from an organization to the next, public journalism in which news consumers' news selection is given priority, presence of news consultants who monitor the kinds of stories, and the lawsuits that are potential may arise from investigative stories also play their roles in curtailing freedom of a journalist.

To conclude, freedom of the press is the unconditional criterion of a democracy. And autonomy of a journalist is the provider of 'fourth estate' status to the media. Freedom can be considered as the basic principle of any theory of public communication. It is a condition rather than a criterion of performance. Real independence from excessive control and interference by owners and outside political or economic interests is one of the main conditions for effective media freedom. Here the conditions place control of freedom in the hands of those who own the media of publication and do not recognize the rights to freedom of publication of those who work in the media, i.e. journalists (McQuail. 2005).

Journalist as a Professional

Journalism is a profession and journalist is a professional. Joseph Pulitzer defined journalist's professional responsibility as follows:

What is a journalist? Not any business manager or publisher, or even proprietor. A journalist is a lookout on the bridge of the ship of state. He notes the passing sail, the little things of interest that dot the horizon in fine weather. He reports the drifting castaway whom the ship can save. He peers through fog and storm to give warning of dangers ahead. He is not thinking of his wages or the profits of his owners. He is there to watch over the safety and welfare of the people who trust him (as cited in Hohenberg, 1978, p.9).

Journalist deals with the present history or that what is happening at the moment. His role is beyond a gatherer and a communicator of the news and opinions of the day; he is a truth-seeker. Being a professional, s/he is highly motivated, diverse both in character and talent, and independent.

The profession requires education, training, journalistic skills and having respect for one's personal and professional integrity. So precedents of Joseph Pulitzer opined that journalists are educated, and not born. Professionalism crept into the field of journalism slowly and at present, they enjoy comparatively higher pay, better working conditions, improved attitudes, and professional education and so on. Hence, the profession is a crowded and a highly competitive one.

Journalistic Content

Characteristics of a journalist and his/her personal background and experiences along with organizational and social contexts may have an effect on journalistic

content. In one way professional roles and ethics of the journalist subordinated by professional backgrounds and experiences and on the other one's power within the organization subordinated by personal attitudes, values and beliefs make a significant influence on the journalistic content (Shoemaker & Reese, 1991).

Influence of personal characteristics of the journalist on content is more when s/he experiences more power and fewer work constraints. Shoemaker and Reese are true in the case of an elite journalist of whom the personal signature is left on the work are fairly evident. And 'personalized content' is not evident in the case of stories done by the ordinary journalist.

Organizational goals and settings get prominence when it comes to the contents that are prepared by teams. And in case of such contents, personal characteristics are not relevant but the organizational characteristics are. Since the socialization process of the journalist is likely from the immediate work environment i.e., the organization itself there exists greater probability of organizational determination.

Sources of Content

The journalist is the one who gather, edit and present information (news) using available sources and with most objectivity through mass media. He is the gatekeeper of news. A journalist seeks truth to report it, acts independently other than public's right to know and they are accountable to their readers, listeners, viewers and each other. To be objective in reporting journalist needs to keep a distance from everyone who may become either a source or a subject to be covered. The obligation to the public/readers will make a journalist a fair, honest and truthful professional. Attaching or detaching one extremely from the sources and stories will adversely affect the objectivity. The idea of objectivity is common among journalists but the definition varies individually.

Sometimes journalists need to guarantee confidentiality to the news sources when they want not to share things in public. This may be due to the fears of loss of job, personal harm or damage to reputation. Journalists compromise with these requirements pursuing the goal of getting stories. Stories originated from anonymous sources that make allegations of ethical or legal wrongdoing against persons may fetch contempt of court. In other words, a journalist can be as good as his/her sources.

Journalists' experience and views about the world have got influence on interpretations on the same. Factors like gender, age, socio-economic levels, religion, and state etc. lead the list here.

Media and Media Persons in Transition

What are the changes brought by media convergence, the advent of media conglomerates and cross-media ownership, etc. (results of globalization) in the field of journalism, the outlook of journalists and the preferences of media as a whole? Findings of earlier studies are not exciting.

A new world order based on international capitalism and the unrestricted cross-border flow of capital and information began to operate by the end of cold war. And it paved way for the emergence of multinational companies and other multinational organizations. The change was termed as globalization.

For media, globalization can be seen as the overall process whereby the location of production, transmission and reception of media content ceases to be geographically fixed, partly as a result of technology, but also through international media structure and organization. Globalization as a whole depends heavily on communications technology. As a result, there emerged multinational corporations that are specialized in communications commodities. Ted Turner (CNN), Rupert Murdoch (FOX), and Michael Eisner (Disney) were the forerunners in this category (Baran & Davis, 2006).

Globalization is welcomed as it enriched local cultures by new impulses and through creative hybridization and is criticized for delocalizing content and undermining of local cultures that are threats to cultural identity, autonomy and integrity. Because the small nations that are incapable to bear and nurture a multinational company lost its identity and are hijacked by the flow of globalization. Resultantly, globalization has ignited a backlash from traditional cultures too.

What is relevant in the case of media is that both mass media and new media are used alike both by the proponents of globalization and the social movements against it. Recent revolutions in the Arab world, that displaced dictators from different countries, were strengthened by new media, especially social media.

Media and communication technology advances grounded facility for cultural hybridity and new social order. This is what Marshall McLuhan, the

metaphysician of media prophesied decades ago when he said that changes in communication technology inevitably produce profound changes in both culture and social order. Introducing the concepts like 'the medium is the message' (new forms of media transform our experience of ourselves and our society), 'global village' (instantaneous electronic media tie the entire world into one great social, political and cultural system), and 'media as extensions of man' (media literally extend sight, hearing and touch through time and space), McLuhan was really pointing at the transformation and role of media in the age of globalization (McLuhan, 1964).

Markandey Katju, former Chairman of Press Council of India, observed that (2014, April 8, *The Hindu*) 'India is passing through a transition period from feudal to a modern society as witnessed in Europe, and media has to play an active role.'

The working environment witnesses a drastic change which is boosted by the advent of web-based journalism. And the profession is going through a transition stage of dual-platform journalism including print and digital. Almost all the newspapers go online for their print versions become outdated. Though the trend in India is quite opposite to that there will be no exception in future. Keeping this in mind, journalists need to engage more forcefully with web-based journalism.

Pressures and Demands in Media Industry

Pressures and demands of media industry play a vital role in the production content. These can broadly be divided into external and internal influences. External influences are from society and the media market as well as from owners, advertisers and the audience. Relations internal to the media organization and to the conflict, tensions and problems encountered come under the latter.

The dilemma faced by the organization in selecting either profit or the social purpose is an example of the tension that arises during media-making. The conflict between creative and editorial freedom with demands of production is a problem to be reconciled.

Shoemaker and Reese (as cited in McQuail, 2005) come up with the assumption that media organizations are not really autonomous but are penetrated by other sources like political and economic powers. They also assumed that the media content is influenced by media workers' socialization and attitudes, organizational routines and social institutions outside media.

Media in Kerala, India

The origin of media in Kerala can be traced to the 19th century for print (Rajyasamacharam in 1847) and 20th century for broadcast (Travancore Broadcasting in 1943 & Doordarshan Kendra Thiruvananthapuram in 1985) and online media (Deepika online in 1998). Manifestly, media in Kerala as well as in India evolved through four stages; the ideological apparatus of the missionaries under British colonialism (1781-1857), the flag bearer of Indian nationalism during the struggle for independence (1857-1947), the catalyst for nation building as well as a crusader of democracy particularly during the Emergency (1947-1991), and the present market-driven stage during globalization and liberalization (1992-). Undoubtedly, journalistic objectives and contents are varied along with public service and self-serving visions and the political atmospheres in the state.

Most of the leading regional dailies including Deepika (1887), Malayala Manorama (1888), Kerala Kaumudi (1911) – in the Princely State of Travancore - Mathrubhumi (1923), Chandrika (1934) and Deshabhimani (1942) – in Malabar Province – and the radio station of Travancore Broadcasting (later AIR, 1943) started during the struggle for independence. AIR Kozhikode Station (1950) Doordarshan Kendra, Thiruvananthapuram (1985), and Janayugam (1953), Veekshanam (1976), Janmabhumi (1977), and Madhyamam (1987) were established during political journalism phase. Later, dailies like Metro Vaartha (2008) and Suprabhatham (2014) and private Television channels starting from Asianet (1994), and more importantly, 24 hours news channels like Indiavision (2003-2015), Asianet News (2003), People TV (2005), Manorama News (2006), Reporter (2011), Mathrubhumi News (2013) and online versions of almost all the offline media outlets starting from deepika.com (1997) and news portals like malayalam.indiainfo.com (later Thatsmalayalam.com, 2000) and weblokam.com (later Malayalam.webdunia.com, 2000) were inducted to media in Kerala during globalization and liberalization. Meanwhile, national and international media reached this part of the world and were wholeheartedly welcomed by the Keralites.

Kerala, a state with 3.69 million population and highest literacy rate in the country, ranked first in terms of daily media exposure of the people in the National Family Health Survey (NFHS). N Ram rightly observed that “Kerala is the classic Indian case of politicization spreading to large sections of the population and

creating a newspaper-reading culture” (Ram, 2011). Perceived professional freedom and satisfaction of journalists in Kerala is vital, in this respect, as they process the content to keep such a society informed and critically aware. To cater to media requirements of such a vast audience, there are 75 dailies including tabloids, 65 Television channels, 7 radio stations and 10 news websites in Malayalam (PRD Directory, 2015).

Media adore the place of the fourth estate after the executive, legislative and judiciary in Indian democracy. The fourth estate is also entrusted with the duty of a watchdog to watch the activities of the first three estates closely, independently and democratically. The smooth functioning of democracy is to be ensured by media. Media also plays the middlemen role between people and government. They disseminate information from the authority to the people and in turn, they take people’s opinion of the ones in power.

Gandhi declared in his autobiography that "the sole aim of journalism should be service." Taking it as a mission many local media, especially newspapers faced huge loss and eventually shut down in independent India. Emergency and later, liberalisation along with technological advancement brought tremendous changes in Indian media scenario. Owners of media in India, so as in Kerala, tend to adapt to the demands and conditions of their audience and of world capitalism. As a result, profit-oriented media industry controlled by national and foreign media conglomerates redefined the role of media. Edutainment, hyper-localization and sensationalism have become essential ingredients of media content. And the role of a journalist is reduced to the informer or communicator of such contents.

As a land of linguistic complexity, India is having eighteen official languages, written in ten different scripts, spoken by 84 percent of the population. The Anthropological Survey of India estimated that India has 325 different languages and newspapers and periodicals were published in about hundred languages.

Kerala ranked first in the list of state-wise media exposure of the people in the National Family Health Survey (NFHS) conducted in 2007 by International Institute of Population Sciences (IIPS) designated by Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (MOHFW), Govt of India. There see a gender disparity in media exposure as Kerala males (99%) ranked first in the country while female population (94%) ranked third after Goa (96%) and Punjab (95%) (IIPS, 2007).

According to the PRD directory 2015 published by the Govt. of Kerala, there are 75 dailies including tabloids, 65 Television channels, 7 radio channels and 10 news websites in Malayalam. Hence the media in Kerala is competitive enough to cater to the various needs of its potential readers/audience/viewers.

Unhealthy relation with the executive, legislative or judiciary will deteriorate the existential value of the democracy itself. The harmful relation between media persons and politicians was revealed in the Nira Radia Tape controversy and paid news syndrome triggered debates all over the country and caused media to lose its credibility as a watchdog of democracy.

Media and Indian Constitution

M. K. Gandhi observed that 'Freedom of the press is a precious privilege that no country can forgo' (Gupta, 2001). In India, media freedom comes under the article 19.1(a) of the constitution of India that deals with freedom of speech and expression of an Indian citizen. Being the most important and key article which embodies the "basic freedoms," article 19(1)a proclaims that all citizens shall have the 'right to freedom of speech and expression.' However, the right is not absolute and is restricted in respect of the sovereignty and integrity of the country. The restrictions on the right to freedom of speech and expression are the security of the state, friendly relations with foreign states, public order, decency or morality, contempt of court, defamation, incitement to the offence, and sovereignty and integrity of India (Indian Constitution, 1950).

These restrictions were embodied in their current form in the constitution by First Amendment Bill 1951, necessitated by the case *Romesh Thapar v. State of Madras* (1950). The entry and circulation of the English journal "Cross Road", printed and published in Bombay, was banned by the Government of Madras. Considering the case, the Supreme Court observed that, 'unless a law restricting the freedom of speech and expression was directed solely against the undermining of the security of the state or its overthrow, the law could not be held a reasonable restriction though it sought to impose a restraint for the maintenance of public order' (GK Today, 2015).

Grounds contained in Article 19(2) show that they are all concerned with the national interest or in the interest of the society. The first set of grounds i.e. the sovereignty and integrity of India, the security of the State, friendly relations with

foreign States and public order are all grounds referable to the national interest, whereas, the second set of grounds i.e. decency, morality, contempt of court, defamation and incitement to an offence are all concerned with the interest of the society.

Journalists in Kerala, India

For Robin Jeffrey, “Indian-language media, i.e. newspapers act as both mirrors and prisms. As mirrors, they reflect regional concerns and idiosyncrasies back to the societies and the language-speakers they serve. As prisms, they refract those concerns and idiosyncrasies to an Indian nation and in turn interpret national and global issues to their region” (Jeffrey, 1997; p. 57). Today, both Malayalam and English along with Tamil and Kannada media circulated/broadcast/accessed in Kerala are international in the package but the contents are localised sensitively.

Jeffrey (1997) observed that newspaper industry in Kerala demonstrates “the force of capitalist practices and international technology and the necessity of adapting these forces constantly and skillfully to local conditions” (Jeffrey, 1997). Further, media industry in Kerala can be viewed as a model for commercial competition in which localization of geographical coverage and broadening of social coverage were successfully adopted to boost a media organization’s identification with the masses so as the expansion of media.

Hofstede (1991) defined culture as ‘the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another’. Kerala culture is thus created from the collective programming of the minds of Keralites induced by its social, economic, political, gender and religious interplays. A typical Kerala journalist could be the best representation of Kerala culture and the ‘central tendency’ of its culture (Au, K., & Cheung, M. W. L., 2004).

PROFESSIONAL FREEDOM (PF)

Professional freedom of a journalist presupposes the degree of freedom an individual journalist has in making news decisions without being influenced internally or externally. It is not just restricted to the news decisions taken within the newsroom but internal and external factors that affect those decisions also to be included (Beam, 1990; Merrill, 1974). For Shoemaker and Reese (1996) the influences on news content were from individual media workers, media routines,

organization and from outside media organization.

Freedom of speech and expression, which is enshrined in the Indian Constitution, is a universal human right and is not reserved for press alone. Professional freedom of journalists, in their day-to-day work, is thus based on every citizen's right to freedom of speech and expression. Free press in democratic India is as fundamental as the fourth estate which holds the first three estates in authority to account for their deeds by disseminating news, information, comment and views. In short, the press acts as the public's watchdog and activist while being their educator and entertainer. Press freedom is the prerequisite for professional freedom of media persons to process and disseminate information freely. Specifically, it is the individual journalist who acts as the guardian and protector of freedom of expression.

Professional freedom of journalists is one of the most important characteristics of the journalism profession (Weaver & Wilhoit, 1986; Demers, 1994; Sachsman, Simon & Valenti, 2008; Chang & Massey, 2010; Reinardy & Crawford, 2011; Deprez & Raeymaeckers, 2012; Semaury, 2012; El-Nawawy & Strong, 2012; Willnat, Weaver & Choi, 2013; Thomas & Nellyullathil, 2013; Reinardy, 2014) and is widely studied as it is well connected with the freedom of the press (Semaury, 2012; El-Nawawy & Strong, 2012; Willnat, Weaver & Choi, 2013; Thomas & Nellyullathil, 2013; Reinardy, 2014).

Researchers observed that the journalistic freedom is declining due to competition in the news market, booming corporate control, profiteering media industry and so on (Glasser & Gunther, 2005; Bagdikian, 2000; Shoemaker & Reese, 1996; Pew Research Center for the People and the Press, 2004). When comes to the context of India, the nation dropped to 136th rank in the 2017 World Press Freedom Index prepared by Reporters Without Borders (Reporters Without Borders [RWB], 2017).

Defining Professional Freedom

According to Merriam Webster's Dictionary, autonomy refers to a context of accountability, authority and responsibility.

Hackman and Oldham (1980) defined Professional Freedom (PF) as 'the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion

to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out' (as cited in Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006).

Again, PF is the practice of entrusting responsibility down the hierarchy giving 'employees increased decision-making authority with respect to the execution of their primary work tasks' (Leach et al., 2003, p. 28), a kind of structural empowerment (Kanter, 1993, 1997), influencing workers' level of control.

Professional freedom of a journalist refers to the freedom from interference, domination, and regulation on media content (Johnstone, Slawski, & Bowman, 1976; Plaisance & Deppa, 2009); journalistic ability to criticize and to hold public persons, organized groups and the authority to account by keeping the citizens informed (Althaus, 2003; McDevitt, 2003).

Factors of Professional Freedom

Professional Freedom of a journalist is determined by a group of factors having content-control in the media. Journalists' PF can be defined as their freedom to select, prepare, and present the news without the decision-making involvement of neither internal nor external factors. Literally, a situation where journalists make free and fair news decisions (Mellado & Humanes, 2012).

Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory observed PF as a motivating factor (Herzberg et al., 1969). Job Characteristics Model viewed it as one of the core task characteristics along with task variety, task identity, task significance, and feedback that positively affect employees' psychological states (Hackman and Oldham, 1975). For Pollard (1995), the profession and the organization are the two control centres that govern the journalists. Hence, the degree of professional control plays an important role in deciding journalists' professional freedom (Pollard, 1995).

There are both internal and external factors that influence the PF of a journalist. Political, economic and geographical constraints in a country will automatically play the role of external autonomy-determining factors whereas restrictions rose within the organization in the forms of institutional policy and philosophy act as internal freedom-determining factors.

Nature of government, organization's relation with the political parties and leaders, religious groups and leaders, pressure from income sources like advertisers and so on will robotically shape the media content. For John Lloyd,

threats to press freedom come not only from government or monopoly ownership but from within the journalistic culture. Organizational orientations may be boosted by the ownership type, to certain ideologies and its commitment towards journalistic ethics constitutes internal PF deciding factors. Also, personal factors play a role in weighing these factors differently.

Journalists experience a large gap between what they do and what they think they should do i.e. sort of discrepancy between the stated and the actual importance of PF as they perceive and receive it. News beat, political and organizational influences, the media policy and philosophy, and geographical location, etc. are placed under this category. From this understanding, journalists do emphasize the idea of job autonomy as their actual freedoms are restricted. 'Killed' stories, punishment transfers, threats of removal and persuasion to manipulate or hide stories are some of the manifestations of the restrictions.

PF is a context where journalist becomes the decision-making authority. And is accountable and responsible for news decisions as they are the lone authority to select, prepare and present news. On the other hand, PF of journalists reflects the freedom of readers/viewers to access trustworthy news and views. Whenever and in what circumstances journalists are limited by either internal or external factors of news collection, preparation and dissemination through the mass media they work for, the freedom is restricted. Hence it violates readers/viewers' right to access trustworthy news and views.

Professional Freedom of a Journalist

Journalism is built on objectivity and on its qualities as a whole on which trust and reliability of news audience are based. These include factual accuracy, lack of bias, separation of fact from comment, transparency about sources, and impartial mediation. Since the one-to-one representation of reality is not possible, the norms must be interpreted by journalists in their daily work presented in mass media.

Professional freedom is the autonomy that journalists get in their media organization to inform and educate the public with maximum objectivity without the regulations put visibly or invisibly by policy and philosophy of the parental organization. Here the freedom of a journalist is equally important with that of the freedom of the fourth estate.

Julian Petley argued that press freedom should consist of considerably more than the freedom of press owners, managers and editors to use their papers as they wish and that the freedom of readers to access a wide range of trustworthy news and views. Consequently, it should also be included in any truly democratic notion of press freedom.

Reporting prerequisites creativity is given the fact that journalists blend information on a particular event to construct the report. But on television and all, reporting is more a team effort where reporters, videographers and editors work together. In this sense, journalism seems to be a profession where practitioners enjoy more freedom than that of practitioners of other professions. And it should continue to be so for the welfare of a democratic country like India.

However, the socially important notion of press freedom is often considered as a self-serving myth by some critiques as the proprietors treat the concept more as a property right than a human right (Harcup, 2014). And the restrictions on the grounds of profit, ideology and all come from within the organization than from outside. Freedom of journalists is inevitable to serve the purpose of freedom of the press in a democratic country.

Grounding Concepts of Professional Freedom

PF is mostly studied as part of professional freedom and at times considered as a major factor of professional satisfaction. On the other hand, there were many constructs on press freedom. Professional freedom, in this study, is based on the propaganda model proposed by Herman and Chomsky (1988) and also it takes cues from The Freedom of the Press Index prepared by the Freedom House and World Press Freedom Index published by Reporters Without Borders. These are detailed in the third chapter under the title of theoretical background.

Grounding on the factors of professional freedom identified by the theories and constructs identified by propaganda model, the freedom of the press index and world press freedom index, the present study tries to elicit professional freedom index of journalists on the basis of ten factors under the components of internal professional freedom (IPF) and external professional freedom (EPF). These are elaborated in the third chapter.

PROFESSIONAL SATISFACTION (PS)

Professional satisfaction is often identified as job satisfaction in this study which is a major job attitude along with job involvement, psychological empowerment, organizational commitment, perceived organizational support and employee engagement. PS is the extent to which one is feeling good and committed to his job. It is generally defined as the sum of the positive influence that individuals have toward their profession. In simple terms, professional satisfaction is the extent to which people like their profession.

Job satisfaction (JS) of journalists received widespread attention only during the last two and half decades after its inception in the early 1960s. Over the time, the interval between job satisfaction studies among journalists has been reduced and the area is enriched with an impressive amount of data. In the beginning, job satisfaction research among journalists was done once in a decade and was restricted to certain nations. Starting from the 1990s, the first decade of the new millennium saw a jump in the number of research done on job satisfaction of journalists.

The term satisfaction firstly introduced by Happock in 1935. For him, job satisfaction is a combination of psychological and environmental circumstances cause a person truthful to say “I am satisfied with jobs” (Singh, C. F., 1994). It is the result of various attitudes the employee holds towards his job. These attitudes are concerned with the factors like age, health, wages, supervision, steadiness of employment, the condition of work, and advancement opportunities. Further, his family relationship, political or purely social status etc. contributes ultimately to job satisfaction.

Professional satisfaction caused to increase and a decrease in productivity and staff turnover respectively and so is important for employers as well. PS makes employees devoted and committed to their responsibilities and their organization/institution. A person may be satisfied with one or more aspects of the profession but may be unhappy with one or more other aspects related to the profession at the same time.

Defining Professional Satisfaction (PS)

Professional satisfaction is a work attitude that is defined variously by researchers in the field highlighting different aspects of the profession as they perceive it (Lu, H., Barriball, K. L., Zhang, X. & While, A.E., 2012).

Locke gives a comprehensive definition of job satisfaction as involving cognitive, affective and evaluative reactions or attitudes and states (Luthans, 2005). He wrote that “the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one’s job values” (Locke, 1976).

PS is the employees’ attitude towards their job. And so, Spector argued that it is “the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs” (Spector, 1997).

Thus, researchers tried to address PS from various perspectives and provided their own theories and models in this regard though they recognized, in general, PS as an affective feeling one holds toward the job engaged in and often termed it as Job Satisfaction (JS).

Grounding Theories and Models of Professional Satisfaction

JS is the most extensively probed job attitude and one of the most widely investigated areas in the field of Psychology (Judge & Church, 2000). Many work motivation theories have identified the role of JS and many work satisfaction theories tried to explain its influence on the profession. The most common and prominent theories in this area include: Maslow’s needs hierarchy theory (1943), Adam’s equity theory (1965), Porter and Lawler’s modified version of Vroom’s VIE Model (1968), Herzberg’s two-factor (motivator - hygiene) theory (1968), Locke’s discrepancy theory / range of affect theory (1969), Dispositional approach or core self-evaluations model (1997), Hackman and Oldham’s job characteristics model (JCM, 1976), Bandura’s social learning theory (1977), Landy’s opponent process theory (1978), Situational occurrences theory (1992) and self-determination theory (SDT). Job satisfaction theories have a strong overlap with theories explaining human motivation. Though the proposed JS theories do not fully explain job satisfaction, together they account for a significant portion of job satisfaction (Ewen, 1964; Judge & Bono, 2001; Maher, 2002).

Basing on the factors of professional satisfaction identified by the theories of Herzberg's two-factor (motivator - hygiene) theory (1968), Hackman and Oldham's job characteristics model (JCM, 1976), Situational occurrences theory (1992) and self-determination theory (SDT), the present study tries to elicit professional satisfaction index of journalists on the basis of mostly used ten factors under the components of intrinsic professional satisfaction (IPS) and extrinsic professional satisfaction (EPS). The concerning theories are elaborated in the third chapter.

Determinants of Professional Satisfaction

Journalistic profession is in a period of transition in terms of ownership patterns, organizational structure, and technological advancements and so on. The field asks more skills and discipline from journalists. Based on the theories of job satisfaction, how and when does a journalist become satisfied? Are they able to meet their expectations? If satisfied how does it profit journalism? If not, what are the reasons for dissatisfaction and how does it negatively affect the media content that they package for an audience under the guidance of the firm?

Theory and research suggest that there are four main factors which produce job satisfaction. The first one is the level of desired outcomes which people receive. Second, when people get desired outcomes which they didn't expect, they are more satisfied than they would be if they had expected the rewards. Third, whether the reward is perceived equitable by the person. If they are at the level of compensation far above or far below what they perceive to be equitable, they will be dissatisfied. Finally, people differ in the account of the certain outcome which they desire. This especially seems to be so in regard to freedom and autonomy in the job (Gilmer, C. F. & Peci, 1977).

Professional satisfaction is caused by and is derived from, many interrelated factors like personal characteristics, professional characteristics, situational variables and nature of the job. Satisfaction of a journalist thus depends on individual's level of gender, age, education, political affiliation and religious affiliation (personal characteristics), region, type of media, ownership pattern, the field of work, experience, salary (professional characteristics), working conditions, supervision, equitable rewards and workgroup (situational variables), and occupation level and job contents (nature of the job).

Degrees of satisfaction of individuals, working in jobs with different nature and in different job environments vary accordingly. Therefore it appears that nature of jobs and job environment play vital roles in deciding one's job satisfaction. Beyond this, people working in the same job and in the same job environment also vary in their level of satisfaction indicating the presence of individual variables that affect job satisfaction. So, the degree of job satisfaction is settled on all the factors including individual, nature of the job and situational variables. JS of a journalist is assumed to be closely related to these determinants of job satisfaction. Again, the factors may vary in its intensity according to the emphasis journalists place on it

Journalists can be satisfied with some of these factors and dissatisfied with some other factors that are identified and unidentified. Anyhow, an individual journalist tries to maintain a kind of balance between the satisfying and dissatisfying factors to generate a composite satisfaction with their profession as a whole.

Outcomes of Professional Satisfaction

There are consequences when employees like their jobs as well as when they dislike their jobs. The Exit-Voice and Loyalty-Neglect theoretical framework illustrating four different responses, along with two dimensions: Constructive/Destructive and Active/Passive. For an organization, it is important to know how satisfaction relates to these outcome variables.

Voice: Employees with voice actively and constructively involved in attempts to improve conditions through suggestions, discussing problems with superiors and through some forms of union activity.

Loyalty: Loyalty enables the employee to wait for conditions to improve in a passive and an optimistic way. Backing up the organization and trusting it at the time of criticism believing that the management would do the right thing are included in this behaviour.

Exit: Exit, the behaviour persuades an employee to leave the organization byways of resignation and seeking a better position.

Neglect: Neglect allows conditions to worsen by being passive and with increased rates of chronic absenteeism, lateness, and reduced effort.

Voice and loyalty expand constructive behaviours enabling individuals to tolerate unpleasant situations and to stimulate satisfactory working conditions while

exit and neglect behaviours include the performance variables similar to productivity, absenteeism and turnover (Robbins & Judge, 2007).

Measures of Professional Satisfaction

Researchers adopt various methods to measure professional satisfaction known as job satisfaction of employees from various social contexts. For this purpose, researchers depend on existing evaluation tools or scales which provide a 'valid, reliable, and consistent' construct to assess JS.

JS measurements are generally categorized as a single question (one question on JS asked), global measurement (several questions on different aspects of JS), and facet measurement (area wise questions) (Mitchel, et. al., 2013).

Fields (2002) detailed about ten important JS measures used by researchers in the organizational and psychological field (Fields, 2002) including overall job satisfaction, job descriptive index (JDI), global job satisfaction, job satisfaction relative to expectations, Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire, job in general scale, job satisfaction survey, job satisfaction index, job diagnostic survey and career satisfaction. Of these ten JS measures, JDI, MSQ and JSS are the measures taken as the foundation of PS measurement in this study which is detailed in the third chapter.

Organizations and practitioners work across different national and cultural boundaries should choose the credible and valid measure fitting to the target professionals (Arnold, et. al., 2002). On the other hand, using a different measure for each work group makes comparison difficult (Liu, Borg, & Spector, 2004). However, use of the same measure across different countries and cultures can be problematic since the interpretation changes with different workforces.

Professional satisfaction of Kerala journalists is measured grounding on the possible intrinsic and extrinsic factors of influence inspired from the Herzberg's Two-factor theory, Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Model, Situational Occurrences Theory, and Self Determination Theory. Again, the PS measurement was developed by taking clues from Job descriptive index (JDI), Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, and Job Satisfaction Survey. The professional satisfaction scale/index consisted of 10 items (most reported influencing factors through various studies and nations across the globe) – five each from intrinsic and

extrinsic categories. Intrinsic factors of professional satisfaction included work itself, personal growth and advancement, individual responsibility, professional status and work-family relation. Pay and working conditions, organizational morale, organizational support, supervision and co-worker relation were the extrinsic factors of professional satisfaction.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The study is centred on the complexities of the relationships between professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons in Kerala and the implications of these relationships for the quality of journalism as a social service as well as a business, and for the quality of life of media persons as professionals and individuals.

SCOPE AND RELEVANCE OF THE STUDY

A parliamentary standing committee while addressing issues across the print and electronic media in India noted the 'pathetic working conditions' of significant sections of the media, disapproved of the media's tendency to 'hire and fire', and noted that the contract employment should not be used for 'attraction and allurements'. It also recommended that a statutory body to be set up to look at 'media content in both print and electronic media with powers to take 'strong actions'. The Panel was entrusted to document the trend of 'paid news' in its various forms.

According to the Press Freedom Index published by Reporters Without Borders, India has dropped three places to 136 in the list of 180 countries in 2017. It is because of increasing impunity for violence against journalists and because Internet censorship continues to grow. Further, "with Hindu nationalists trying to purge all manifestations of "anti-national" thought from the national debate, self-censorship is growing in the mainstream media" (RWB, 2017). Four journalists were killed in India in 2017 on related grounds.

Justice Markandey Katju, Former President of Press Council of India criticized the media for projecting non-issues and deceiving people instead of highlighting real problems affecting the country like malnutrition in almost 50 percent children. The media, as it deals with ideas, not commodities, cannot be like an ordinary business, Katju observed (The Hindu, April 21, 2017).

Media barons in India criticized Majithia wage board that proposed a decent wage structure calling it as a threat to freedom of the press. The Supreme Court of India ordered to implement the recommendations of Majithia Wage Board in February 2014. Samrat (2017) observed that “some journalists earn less than a driver working for the central government at the entry level” (Samrat, 2017).

The two lowest-ranking jobs are newspaper reporter and broadcaster as rated by US-based human resource consultancy CareerCast’s annual jobs rated report 2017. Thus journalists irrespective of their type of media are found to be the ones who engaged in worst job in terms of the work environment (emotional and physical), income, employment growth, and stress. Journalists especially political reporters are under extreme pressure the report stated. “Working extensively in the public eye and often under tight deadlines contributes to the high-stress rankings for both Newspaper Reporters and Broadcasters,” the report noticed (CareerCast, 2017).

Above reports are some indications that prevailing over the media industry in world scenario where India is not an exception. Job prospects in the media industry are in deterioration. Professionalized and commercialized profit-oriented media industry is no longer meant for a service-oriented patriotic journalist. It is now a group of professionals who work for salary along with the interests of their respective owners, who serves the interests of MNCs and other monopolies.

On the other side, the process of professionalization and commercialization left a pale face of the workers or journalists. Professionals in the media field get comparatively less and unstable salary to cop up with their effort they pour in. Life is so unconditional and miserable for the bottom level media journalists. The output of the journalist is not a material product but an intellectual one and so immeasurable. The life of a journalist is poor due to the pressure of the work; unpredicted working hours, disappointment created by the ‘editor’ and above all low wage leads them to hell. Along with these, the workers who work on contract basis are threatened by their insecurity in the job too. In short, Professional freedom and satisfaction in a journalistic career is a matter of concern in a democratic country without a second thought.

The fourth estate is supposed to ensure the smooth and fair functioning of the former three estates namely executive, legislature and judiciary. But the

symptoms like 'paid news syndrome' point at the fallen standards of journalism in India. When the gatekeeper, the fourth estate is attacked and unarmed, life in the house of a democratic republic like India becomes insecure and terrible justifying the Press Freedom Index in which India dropped by three places in 2017 (RPW, 2017). This recognition is a call to all to be alert in the case of journalists, the members of the fourth estate. Their failure is actually the failure of the country. A study about this important sector will help us to identify their actual life situation that may lead to the betterment of the sector, indirectly, the betterment of the nation (Herman & Macquail, 1989).

Keeping these views regarding Indian media industry the present study tried to examine how journalism interferes in a journalist's life and in turn, how journalist's existence affect the journalism field. Every aspect of a journalist's personal life including his motivation, work culture, family life, health etc., and the practice as a journalist even at the conditions like job insecurity, ethical and financial dilemmas, unsatisfied vision et al. become very significant in a period of transition in the journalistic field. This study is, especially relevant, considering the fact that there are a few studies done on Kerala journalists as a whole and exclusively about their professional freedom and satisfaction.

The study also investigates Kerala journalists' job satisfaction and their perceptions of their own media organizations' level of professionalism which would reveal their journalistic perceptions and expectations about professional autonomy and roles.

CONCLUSION

As discussed this study attempts to analyze the interrelationships between the personal and professional characteristics with professional freedom and professional satisfaction of media persons in Kerala. And so it looks into professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons in Kerala and also explores the correlation with their perceptions of editorial autonomy, professional freedom, job satisfaction and other dimensions of the profession. Intrinsic and extrinsic factors like Pay, job security, editorial policy and autonomy, etc. are included in these dimensions. Journalists' satisfaction and perceptions of these factors may extract valuable information on the job environment, organizational policy and philosophy.

The analysis of professional freedom and job satisfaction may give us a number of insights into certain aspects of the labour market especially in the media industry in Kerala. “A universal approach would need to... account for the realities of the journalistic field in non-western countries,” (Hanitzsch, 2011: p.477) since most researches done in this area focused on western journalists and western news organizations.

Being a cross-section of Indian media, Kerala media industry will definitely be a door to the real face of Indian media through the lives and characteristics of Kerala journalists. And also a lens to look at the Kerala society as a field that refers to a “network, or a configuration, of objective relations between positions objectively defined, in their existence and in the determinations they impose upon their occupants, agents or institutions, by their present and potential situation” (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992, p. 97). In that way, the study is capable to generate valid results having local and global relevance.

To conclude, this chapter tried to deal with the background of the present study entitled professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons in Kerala including topics like journalism profession, journalist, media, media freedom in India and Kerala, the concepts of job/professional satisfaction, professional autonomy /freedom, elements, measures and theories of JS and JF, statement of the problem and scope and relevance of the study. Summarizing these, the chapter drew a picture of the problem under study on what it is, why it is and how it is to be understood and measured. Reviewing previous studies on professional freedom and satisfaction of journalists across the globe, the next chapter draws the trend set by erstwhile researchers in the field.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Is the media content shaped by the characteristics of processing hands? Are they happy to produce the same without much hindrance from different factors like professional environment? Studies revealed that the way news as a social construct is shaped and the newsroom practice as a professional trait is nurtured based on the characteristics of news processors along with their production environment (Pollard, 1995; Mwesige, 2004; Lo, Chan, & Pan, 2005; West, 2011; Mellado & Humanes, 2012; Nygren & Degtereva 2012; Godler & Reich, 2012; Skovsgaard, 2014).

Researchers of mass media in India focused on effects of mass media and the reception of its content for so long. Studies on media persons and production process heaved less attention and their studies were restricted to famous personalities in the field. On the other hand, journalists and their profession were researched in depth in different parts of the world including many developing nations in Asia.

The massive amount of data on journalists produced by the researchers threw light on the various realm of the professional field of journalism. Journalists across the world share some common traits by the very nature of their job. Hence the areas of investigation of this study extend to professional freedom and job satisfaction of journalists across the globe since such studies are rare in the Indian context. The research was done on journalists and their freedom and satisfaction in the profession across the world have been integrated and reported in the present review. The studies may give some insights into their basic characteristics and will help us to know important variables that determine professional freedom and job/professional satisfaction.

PROFESSIONAL FREEDOM

Professional freedom is essential for a journalist by the very nature of his/her profession which functions under the norm of freedom of the press. Supreme Court of India once observed that "Liberty of the press remains an 'Ark of the covenant' in every democracy and that it has acquired the role of the public educator" (as cited in Ahmad, 1997). Researchers across the world studied the freedom of journalists

in their respective job of the journalistic profession which they termed either as job autonomy or as professional autonomy.

Societal right to a free press, like the individual right, 'is a guarantee against governmental intrusion in the free flow of information and ideas necessary in a democracy' (Perkins, 2002). But, the stated importance of professional freedom is not enjoyed by the journalists around the globe in the actual state due to 'political economy' of mass media. As a result, journalists perceive a large gap between what they do and what they think they should do. So the concern journalists expressed in the following studies about their freedom may not have any connection with the level of freedom of the press prevailing in their respective countries. The studies on PF are given under three sections: Freedom of Press in India, Internal Professional Freedom (IPF), and External Professional Freedom (EPF).

Freedom of Press in India

Ahmad (1997) pointed that press received no smooth sailing in pre-independence as well as in post-independence era in India but its sheer determination survived all the odds. Supreme Court of India was very vigilant to protect the freedom of the press from 'the arbitrary actions and harsh measures adopted by the governments and allowed any restriction only when there is a resultant public advantage' over the years under the provision of Article 19(1)(a). At the same time, SCI made efforts to maintain the balance between 'freedom of the press and the social and national interests in the view of Article 19(2) and was highly conscious in dealing with contempt of court cases. This positive attitude of SCI towards freedom of the press must be helpful in expanding the legal horizons of freedom of the press in India (Ahmad, 1997).

Technological advancements and advent of new media along with globalization changed the media scenario drastically that led to the emergence of market-driven journalism. Reddy (2005), bearing this change in the field in mind, conducted a sociological study of journalists. Majority of the journalists belonged to socially upward categories and the English papers lacked the presence of a single SC/ST journalist. English journalists enjoyed more freedom than those worked in vernacular media. Journalistic freedom was adversely affected by advertising, commercialization, and self-censorship as the package was valued than content.

Yet most of them were satisfied with their job as they were inspired by coverage of matters of significance and creativity. Satisfaction was further stimulated by the fact that they could meet their professional expectations. In addition to that excellent work quality and high newsroom, morale helped journalists to be content in the profession. Unsurprisingly, job insecurity and low salary were seemed to be the major sources of their complaint.

Himelboim and Limor (2008) explored media perception (perceptions of journalists and media organizations) on the notion of freedom of the press comparing 242 codes of ethics from various nations. The findings based on characteristics of organizations and the political-economic status of the nations showed that the journalists were concerned more about the fundamental freedoms other than freedom of the press prevailing in their respective countries (Himelboim & Limor, 2008).

High-quality journalism is not just the child of socially committed journalists. They need to be supported with due freedom equally by the state and by the media organization. Journalists in rural India receive less state and organizational support to continue in their socially committed profession. And in most militant states like Assam, as reported by Paul (2009), journalists faced physical threats too. Journalists in Assam were under high deadline and editorial pressures. They were not adequately paid and were compelled to fulfil their duties under poor working conditions. Corporatization and technological advancement adversely affected their collective power of bargaining. And so in Paul's observation, the status of journalists in Assam was not different from that of their counterparts in rural India. The ideological passion of social commitment of the journalists should be supported with adequate salary and good working conditions to keep them active watchdogs in a democratic country.

Tamandehrou (2014) identified that press in India is only partially free based on the 24 case studies of journalists in New Delhi and so is not eligible to constitute a public sphere, a forum for free public debates and discussions on public issues, as envisaged by Habermas. Freedom of the press in India is restricted by business interests of the private owners, ownership concentration, advertisers, and surveillance on journalists, invitations or payments to journalists and sometimes the

suppression of 'sensitive' news. On these grounds, he argued that scheduled castes, poverty, unemployment, pollution, development issues, population control and minorities receive insufficient media coverage (Tamandehrou, 2014).

Not only the absence of women in the journalistic field but also the ignorance about women journalists in history played an important role in the present status women folk in media. Rekha (2016) traced the presence of women journalists in the history of colonial Kerala from the women journals published from the end of 19th C. to the time of Indian independence. There were 23 women magazines published from Travancore, Cochin and Malabar during the period from 1885 to 1947. Many of the articles were written by women writers of the time who were mainly belonged to elite middle class and upper caste families. Remarkably, women writers of these magazines enjoyed the editorial decision powers in that era. Articles of these magazines mostly dealt with women's freedom, family life, social life, education, self-sufficiency and political activities to empower the female folk in the state. The study criticized that the women journalists and their contributions were mostly ignored consciously or unconsciously by the Kerala historians.

Internal Professional Freedom (IPF)

Pollard (1995) observed that the journalists were governed by their profession and organization. These two acted as the 'control centres' that influenced journalists' selection, preparation and presentation of news the most. The greater the 'professional control' the greater was their satisfaction with the job. Autonomy, authority and control over the work were the major determinants of professional control. On the other hand, organizational control was negatively related to journalists' satisfaction. The more the organizational control the less was journalists' satisfaction with the job (Pollard, 1995).

Journalists across regions held attitudinal differences based upon their conflicting interests found Lo, Chan, and Pan (2005) while studying journalists from China, Hong Kong and Taiwan. They agreed invariably on accepting freebies (free gifts, meals, etc.) and moonlighting practices (soliciting ads, PR for businesses, etc.). Taiwan journalists were having a greater degree of ethical clarity since they are from a more democratic region. In opposite, Chinese journalists suffered ethical and moral confusion. The researchers observed that 'a democratic context and

commitment in newsroom leadership and discussion of ethics' alone can make news decisions of journalists more ethical oriented (Lo, Chan & Pan, 2005).

Technical and economic changes took place in the newsrooms disrupted the professional control of journalists as reported by Witschge and Nygren (2009). They observed journalistic work as a profession was under pressure. Media business made dramatic changes to news organizations and to the news work as a whole. Technological advancements redefined the role of a journalist and demanded technically skilled professionals instead. Profit-oriented organizations challenged journalistic values and journalists' authority over news story selection (Witschge & Nygren, 2009).

Lin (2010) found that Chinese journalists' attitude and behaviour was the result of a literati value coexisted with both the modern professional and party journalism values at the time. For the researchers, journalists seemed to be inactively liberal as they possessed liberal attitudes. But they kept themselves away from the action. Yet, journalists considered themselves as professionals and liked to continue in the profession. Majority of these journalists enjoyed more autonomy on page design than on content (Lin, 2010).

Albuquerque and Gagliardi (2011) reached the idea that 'authoritarian modernisation' was the 'journalistic professionalization' that took place in Brazil while analysing the reform of the *Diário Carioca* newspaper. Embracing the American model, Brazilian media discarded the existing literarily and politically engaged, fact centred French model of journalism. This 'authoritarian modernisation' underestimated reporting and reduced the autonomy of journalists while assigning core ideological, normative and disciplinary roles to the copy desk. The researchers termed the process as 'Professionalization without professionalism.' A 'revolution from above' was needed to handle the perceived reformation challenges. A new team of journalists was entrusted to practice the new system of journalistic beliefs and practices created by the editors that adhered to 'authoritarian modernization.' Thus copy desk acted as a disciplinary resource of moral control that restrained journalists' autonomy at work. Gradually, journalism was converted from an art form to a literature of technique which valued technical skills of journalists than that of their autonomy (Albuquerque, 2011).

On the other hand, Mellado and Humanes (2012) assessed that Chilean journalists could make news decisions independently. The notion of autonomy was perceived both from the importance given to the ideal of public service and from the occupational professionalism. Notably, factors of professional autonomy like the news beat assignment, perceived influences of politics and organization, institution's political orientation and geographical location, were related to the editorial policy. Expected interference from the editing table alone viewed as interference. Journalists, in general, valued autonomy as the second most contributing factor of job or professional aspect though journalists with managerial position marked less importance to autonomy. Thus subjective and objective factors played their roles in deciding journalists' professional autonomy. In general, the study observed that greater pressure from external and internal restrictions in the forms of 'news routines, superiors, editors, executives, owners, politicians, government officials, business and public relations,' decreased the degree of journalist's perceived autonomy depending on the 'naturalization' of these factors (Mellado & Humanes, 2012).

Personal beliefs, ownership pattern along with social and political environment influenced journalists' depiction of facts, found a study conducted by Godler and Reich (2012). They were neither objectivists nor interpretationists but kept a mixture of both while receiving news material from the sources. Journalists were, in spite of corporate ownership and democratic political regimes, indecisive regarding objectivism and interpretationism. At the same time, the more the journalists were religious and conservative ideologists the more they tended to be interpretationists. Yet, the distinction between these two groups of journalists was not 'mutually exclusive' but 'more liquid and complementary' (Godler & Reich, 2012).

The conflict between professional goals and organizational goals influenced the journalists' professional autonomy negatively as per the report of Skovsgaard (2014). Organizational dependency and journalists' relation to their superiors determined the amount of pressure put on his/her professional autonomy. Skovsgaard wrote that "the relationship to superiors is better characterised by consensus and agreement than by adjustment and conflict, and that journalists have substantial independent discretion" (Skovsgaard, 2014, p. 347). For Skovsgaard, the degree of one's professional autonomy also dependent on the type

of news organization and gaps between journalists' own goals and values and the goals and values of the organisation. It is also affected by the 'time constraints from the organisation' (Skovsgaard, 2014).

Mathisen's interviews (2017) on 15 freelance journalists shed light on professional autonomy existed in Norwegian journalism. Distinguishing idealists from entrepreneurs, the researcher observed that most journalists stayed in freelancing as they valued their freedom and control the most. And they preferred to specialize in areas such as healthcare as they are self-employed. Further, the freelancers professed flexibility as an important aspect of autonomy that enabled them to discharge their family obligations better. However, choice of being a freelancer was taken when they were more experienced and established and so the younger ones less likely to be a freelancer. Mathisen concluded with the observation that idealists preferred autonomy more while the entrepreneurs emphasized on the job's business aspects (Mathisen, 2017).

Journalists in Japan enjoyed a moderate degree of professional autonomy as reported by Oi and Sako (2017) based on a survey of 747 media professionals. Interestingly, more than half of them (54.2%) were having a great deal of freedom in story selection and more journalists (60.1%) predicted complete freedom in aspects to be emphasized in a particular story. For Japanese journalists, most influencing factors on media content were 'military, police and state security.' Additionally, time constraints, personal beliefs and professional ethics put pressure on journalistic autonomy. In general, internal constraints than external ones that affected professional autonomy more adversely (Oi & Sako, 2017).

External Professional Freedom (EPF)

Examining press freedom in Egypt and in the Arab world, Amin (2002) reported that single party domination raised the censorial political culture in the region. Even journalism education contributed to this phenomenon educating the students to practice self-censorship adhering to the propaganda of the ruling party. Journalists working for international media were in a position to make censorship an obsolete one as they were to report for international outlets with the help of technological advancements. However, Internet, that gave accessibility to media around the world and as the one that was difficult to censor, gave new dimensions to freedom of speech and expression, in effect, freedom of the press (Amin, 2002).

Ugandan journalists could enjoy only limited freedom as reported by Mwesige (2004). Their freedom was restricted in legal (laws restricting media & media personnel), political (govt censorship) and in economic (underpaid) terms. Yet, they were committed to the public affairs benefit of the journalism profession. Ugandan journalists in the new millennium, as per researcher, enjoyed their roles as information disseminators, advocates and watchdogs. They valued journalistic functions of information analysis and interpretation, investigation of official claims, and they gave voice to the ordinary people despite the limited freedom they enjoyed (Mwesige, 2004).

Examining the statements and memoirs of veteran Arab journalists, Mellor (2009) detected that they could somehow negotiate their autonomy with those in power. The reflections also depicted the context in which their journalism was practised and the journalists acted as cultural producers of their era. Political expertise strengthened their professional identity and helped them to make specially secured relation with politicians. Again it enabled journalists to bargain with the political regime for their autonomy. They made it possible by redefining 'eyewitness' and 'historian' roles and 'journalisticness' of the journalists, Mellor unearthed (Mellor, 2009).

West (2007) reported that journalists sidelined market research as an obstacle to their ability to develop original story ideas of their importance. The feeling resulted from the fact that consultant-driven market research would act as the selection criteria of (mostly sensational) stories to be broadcast. Denying research-driven story suggestion, journalists favoured 'back to basics' approach that provides 'relevant and informative stories and trustworthy and credible journalism.' The more the managers depended on research to determine news coverage the more was journalists' dissatisfaction with the job though they did not oppose the practice (as cited in West, 2011).

Later, West (2011), following experimental method, reached the idea that journalists, from consultant-relied newsrooms, valued findings from market research more and were in comfort as they were in 'control of story selection.' Expectedly, participants in the management condition did not agree with the news director's decision as they felt less control over story selection. Consultants were placed hierarchically higher than the news directors. Market research-oriented news

decisions are controlled indirectly by the viewers although the research is conducted by the consultant. Job roles played a significant role in deciding organizational responsibilities as reporters argued that they need more control over story decision except for the reporters with above 21 years of experience. Most of the journalists believed that outside news sources play a more important role in news decisions than the journalists' own decisions (West, 2011).

A cross-national study reported that "Swedish journalists enjoy greater independence in choosing the subjects for their work and in editorial decisions" (Nygren & Degtereva, 2012) in comparison with Russia, but they too are not free from the commercial pressure in their daily work. Russian journalists feel a much stronger political and economic pressures in both the selection of subjects and confronting obstacles ahead of publishing. Owners of the Media Company, political actors and advertisers are the pressure groups (Nygren & Degtereva, 2012).

Strömbäck, Karlsson and Hopmann (2012) revealed that the actual importance given to various determinants of news was different from perceived normative determinants. It indicated that the news produced was influenced by factors other than the normative determinants. As a result, news determinants related to 'audience interest, production routines and economic considerations' were seemed to be given more importance than they normatively deserved. Exclusive, sensational and unexpected events were also covered similarly. Journalists working for commercial broadcasters tended to have a wider gap between perceived normative and actual news determinants than their colleagues in other media types. Thus journalism practice differed evidently with journalism theory (Strömbäck, Karlsson & Hopmann, 2012).

Willnat, Weaver and Choi (2013) reported that Australia, Canada, and Finland were the countries where journalists enjoyed a great deal of freedom on the job. Chile, Hong Kong, South Korea, and Taiwan were the nations where least journalists claimed to have highest perceived job autonomy. Type of government, culture, job nature, etc. played important roles and caused the differences in the perceived autonomy of the journalists. The researchers also attributed the phenomenon to national differences existed in the criteria to decide perceived professional autonomy. Altogether only one-fourth of journalists from 18 countries

are reported to have very satisfied figures for perceived job autonomy (Willnat et al., 2013).

Reich and Hanitzsch (2013) found that there were country wise differences regarding the influencing factors of professional autonomy. Political influence was the leading factor that controlled the autonomy of a journalist. Organizational, procedural and economic factors negatively influenced their job autonomy. In addition, the influence of the profession and the reference groups on professional autonomy was positive. Experienced journalists in higher editorial positions enjoyed greater autonomy. Surprisingly, journalists from private owned media seemed to enjoy more autonomy than their colleagues in state-owned media. Researchers also observed that the higher the democracy prevailed in a country the more was their perceived professional autonomy. This was also true with political parallelism which positively influenced professional autonomy (Reich & Hanitzsch, 2013).

Interviewing 18 political journalists in Chile, Orchard (2017) found that the journalistic objectivity derives mainly from shared professional codes that grounded on commercial news values. Further, the professional autonomy of Chilean journalists was shaped by market-oriented and elite-dependent local media system. On the other hand, he also observed that communicative pressures from outside traditional circuits counterbalanced both economic and political pressures. And so there is a need to direct the professionals to the public-oriented values (Orchard, 2017).

Reviewing studies on professional autonomy in the field of journalism from various European countries, Lauk and Harro-Loit (2017) made important conclusions at a time of economic recession and info-technological revolution. They identified that political and economic instability indirectly caused by the deterioration in journalistic autonomy as it adversely affected the whole journalistic community. Further, they suggested that an integrated media policy should also consider the invisible elements of various journalistic practices like professionalization along with the observable elements such as ownership structures. In this sense, moral awareness and critical ability of the journalists become detriments of professional autonomy in their everyday practices. Hence strong professional identity and integrity are essential to protect the news decision autonomy of the journalists (Lauk & Harro-Loit, 2017).

Siraj and Hussain (2017) reported that autonomy of Pakistani journalists was determined by military and state security, editorial policy, advertising considerations, media owners, media laws and regulations, and editorial supervisors. In addition to that ownership pattern, journalistic profile, salary range and deadline pressures were also detrimental factors for journalistic autonomy. The study surveyed 242 Pakistani journalists to draw such conclusions. Factors above mentioned were responsible for the low autonomy and challenges to a free media in Pakistan (Siraj & Hussain, 2017).

Tandoc and Ferrucci (2017) observed that audience feedback has got the power to decide journalists' content selection on online media. And that the usage of the feedback, in turn, depends on journalists' personal attitudes and organizational policy in this regard based on a survey of 360 online journalists in the United States. For them, "While personal attitudes operate at the individual level, injunctive norms operate at the organizational level"(Tandoc & Ferrucci, 2017, p 154) of which organizational influence was more powerful. At the same time, journalist's attitude towards the use found to be the strongest predictor of the intention to use audience feedback. The study also affirmed the predictive value of the theory of planned behaviour (Tandoc & Ferrucci, 2017).

Professional freedom or job autonomy of journalists was earlier considered and studied as a predictor of job satisfaction. Later in the last decade of 20th C. freedom of journalists became an important and independent area of research. Reporters Without Borders started to categorize nations on the basis of press freedom index and the reports were published every year.

PROFESSIONAL SATISFACTION

Professional satisfaction (PS) of journalists received widespread attention only during the last two and half decades after its inception in the early 1960s. Over the time, the interval between job satisfaction studies among journalists has been reduced and the area is enriched with an impressive amount of data. In the beginning, job satisfaction research among journalists was done once in a decade and was restricted to certain nations. Starting from the 1990s, the first decade of the new millennium saw a jump in the number of research done on job satisfaction of journalists.

A satisfied journalist contributes immensely to his/her institution. Job satisfaction of a journalist is the content that s/he has regarding the profession. It depends on a number of factors like nature of work, organizational atmosphere, supervision, etc. But these factors do not carry the same intensity in deciding job satisfaction of a journalist. It may vary according to their country, culture, personal factors and all. Specifically, “journalists from different nations assign different levels of importance to job characteristics, rewards equity, and P-E (Person-Environment) fit antecedents to job satisfaction” (Chang & Massey, 2010, p. 54). Job satisfaction becomes a rare element in the career of a journalist in most countries due to various reasons.

Job satisfaction among journalists is extensively studied by the researchers across the world. Research on journalists was earlier centred on media persons from U.S and U.K. as they were the countries where newspaper circulation reached its zenith. Later, researchers from other nations of democratic nature found its importance and collected a large sum of data helping to unearth attitude, aptitude and work-life quality of content makers of the fourth estate. Considering the objectives of the study, reviews of PS studies are arranged under the categories of PS in general, Intrinsic Professional Satisfaction (IPS), and Extrinsic Professional Satisfaction (EPS).

PS in General

One of the earliest studies on journalism job satisfaction by Samuelson (1962) examined attitudinal areas of satisfaction. Studying 223 journalists graduated between 1950 to 1961, he found out that a considerable number of newspaper journalists tended to change their careers. Journalists at larger newspapers were more dissatisfied than their counterparts at smaller newspapers. The more the experience was the more the job satisfaction of the journalists. Salary had nothing to do with these journalists' satisfaction in the study. But those who migrated to other careers were dissatisfied with poor managerial leadership and low pay and they did not perceive a promising career in journalism (Samuelson, 1962).

Examining job satisfaction in terms of professional standards, sociologists Johnstone, Slawski and Bowman (1976) reported that there existed a significant relationship between these two. Gender, education and experience played vital roles in deciding job satisfaction. Women experienced and educated journalists

registered more satisfaction than men, less experienced and less educated journalists respectively. Further, experienced journalists seemed to accept editorial constraints while younger ones were dissatisfied with low salaries and discrepancies between journalistic ideals and existing practices at the newsroom. Overall, about 88% of journalists were either 'very satisfied' or 'fairly satisfied' with their job (Johnstone, Slawski & Bowman, 1976).

Later, Demers (1994) identified newspaper size as an influencing factor. Drawing on social system and reference group theory, he disclosed that top editors at small newspapers are less satisfied when compared with their counterparts in larger newspapers. Greater autonomy and greater social status contributed much to the difference. The study also found that autonomy played the role of a mediating factor. Interestingly, income has nothing to do with job satisfaction of editors from both small and large newspapers (Demers, 1994).

Mahalik (1998) observed that journalists in Orissa were middle-aged graduates and the majority of them were non-accredited professionals. Most of the media persons were meagerly paid and they found it difficult to meet everyday needs. Interestingly, despite the difficulties they found in the profession, more than half of them were satisfied in the job. Considering information seeking behaviour, majority visited library occasionally to improve professional efficiency. Interestingly, the majority preferred to build-up their own collections at home. It was an alarming observation that the journalists were not well aware of the available information sources.

Smucker, Whisenant, and Pedersen (2003) made an investigation of job satisfaction among female sports journalists basing on the Two-factor theory of satisfaction. Adopting Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and Job In General (JIG) to measure job satisfaction, the researchers found that majority of women sports journalists were satisfied with their overall employment especially with the level of pay, supervision, relation with co-workers and the work itself. But they were dissatisfied with the promotional opportunities they got which made them more transient regarding job and organization. And there existed disparity in levels of education, age, and length of employment in the print media. Journalist's position and tenure in the organization were also observed as important predictors of level of job satisfaction (Smucker, Whisenant & Pedersen, 2003).

Kirati (2004) wondered at the finding that two third of the working women journalists in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) were expatriates. Nearly half of them were either very satisfied or were somewhat satisfied in their job despite the fact that they advocated the national unity and development and worked with a pro-government mentality. Hence they experienced job stability, healthy peer relations and opportunity to use talents and creativity. A quarter of them enjoyed complete freedom regarding subject coverage and story selection. On the other hand, a simple majority of UAE working women journalists were unhappy with the news organizations' policy towards continuing education. Some of them were very dissatisfied with the job other than a somewhat dissatisfied group that constituted one-third of the total sample size (Kirat, 2004).

Minority journalists especially reporters, as recognised by Rivas-Rodriguez et al. (2004) thought that head belonging to a minority community in a news media could make positive differences in covering issues related to minorities. His/her position would result in news operation's sensitivity to racism, its coverage of minority groups, news media approach to the minorities and greater job opportunities for all minorities in the news media. It was seemed to be possible despite ethnicity, occupation, or years in the business as far as the reporters were concerned. Photographers and graphic artists were less likely to share the beliefs than the reporters who observed the newsroom politics in close. Interestingly, it was men than of women (concerned more about glass ceiling effect) held the idea that a minority head could influence the media attitude towards minorities. Yet, the minority journalists as a whole were satisfied with their career despite the demographics and the view they upheld (Rivas-Rodriguez, Subervi-Vélez, Bramlett-Solomon & Heider, 2004).

Interestingly, Sachsman, Simon and Valenti (2008) found that male journalists seemed to be more satisfied than their female counterparts. The study on Environment Reporters in the U.S.A. proved that specialised journalists and religious environment journalists enjoyed higher levels of job satisfaction as it offered more autonomy. Surprisingly, education and job satisfaction were negatively correlated. The more the journalists were educated the lesser they were satisfied. Variables like the organizational image, freedom to select stories and to choose aspects to be highlighted, and the opportunity to follow up on a story also played

crucial roles in determining job satisfaction of a journalist in the United States (Sachsman, Simon & Valenti, 2008).

Why are women journalists less satisfied than those male journalists? Reinardy (2009) revealed that women newspaper journalists felt overburdened at work than their male counterparts. Lack of desired organizational support to cope with the higher levels of exhaustion, role overload and job demands led the women journalists to have lower levels of professional efficacy. Hence two third of the younger ones (aged 27 or less) experiencing higher levels of burnout intended to leave the profession due to family and childcare issues, sexism, discrimination and the glass ceiling effect (inequality) prevailed in the field. There existed significant differences between men and women in terms of burnout and life issues where women were given less organizational support to remain in the job (Reinardy, 2009).

For Burke and Lisa (2009), Norwegian journalists scored higher on passion registered greater work satisfaction. Passion and addiction were moderately and positively correlated with each other and the journalists were seemed to be more passionate than addicted. Both passionate and addicted journalists were more job invested by working longer hours. Yet, they faced more work-family conflict. Passionate journalists enjoyed higher levels of psychological well-being and produced more positive work outcomes whereas addicted ones registered lower levels in the same. Reporting higher levels of burnout components, addicted journalists suffered from exhaustion, cynicism and low accomplishment (Burke & Lisa, 2009).

Freelance women journalists, found Massey and Elmore (2011), seemed to enjoy the same level of job satisfaction with their male counterparts. Still, women freelance journalists were significantly younger and earned more than that of their male freelancers. They were satisfied with their work hours, earnings and time spent to meet familial obligations. Most likely journalists in prior, who were freelancing (especially for magazines or newspapers) for over 3.7 years on average, they valued the work freedom more than males and so were happier for working themselves (Massey & Elmore, 2011).

Celia and Francis (2012) illustrated the structural inequalities in Hong Kong in journalism and reported early burnouts of female journalists. It resulted from the

contradictory logics of success that was perceived to be earned by long hours' hard work, critical mindset and an uncompromising personality. These were in conflict with the gentle caretakers' role of the woman (woman's trajectory) in the gender field. Women journalists struggled with this conflict at different phases of life and with different credence. Experienced conflict varied depending on the journalist's personality, position within a news organization and the news organization's position in the news market and the social and economic classes the woman journalist belonged (Celia & Francis, 2012).

At the same time, Semary (2012) testified that Arab women journalists in governmental TV stations enjoyed higher levels of Job satisfaction but with lower expectations toward the job. Newswomen at decision-making position and a good working environment were reported to have more job satisfaction than TV anchors, editors and reporters along with their male counterparts. Female TV reporters who were effective and were recognized by supervisors for their achievements possessed higher levels of job satisfaction than their male counterparts. Newswomen in male-dominated workplaces preferred men in leading or decision making positions. Interestingly, the higher the education, the lesser the satisfaction women journalists had with the level of their income. To add, the more the income the more TV newswomen were satisfied in the profession. Working hours, decision making & promotional opportunities were found dissatisfactory. Yet, female journalists were likely to be more satisfied than their male colleagues in the existing working conditions and they tended to keep the job despite the problems they faced (Semary, 2012).

Thomas and Nellyullathil (2013) demonstrated that journalists in Kerala were in passion with their job. And this passion enabled them to be satisfied with their job. Significantly, demographic or professional variables reported no relation with the journalists' job satisfaction. Age, gender or education made no remarkable difference in their perceived satisfaction with the job. Likewise, job status, type of medium or field of work were not important predictors of job satisfaction of journalists in Kerala. In terms of the researchers, Kerala journalists were 'passion-led professionals' (Thomas & Nellyullathil, 2013).

Lucht (2015) analysed job satisfaction of journalists in Iowa quantitatively and qualitatively and found there was no significant gender difference in terms of

job satisfaction. Still, it is noticeable that male and female journalists differed regarding the issues they considered salient and in the discourses, they used to describe their perceptions and attitudes. Females tended to use language related to production and felt less secure in the workplace of which salary discrepancy related to income and financial status between the genders played a crucial role. Surprisingly, men different from previous studies seemed to be concerned more about work-family conflict and enjoyed a higher salary and financial security than females. The study emphasized the role of organizational factors as they play important role in deciding job satisfaction of journalists (Lucht, 2015).

Though not directly addressed the question of journalists' satisfaction, Subeesh (2016) reported that the employees in mass media in Kerala enjoyed a moderate level of quality of work life. Considering their workload, the compensation package for journalists was very low. Journalists found it difficult to balance work and life as the stress emerged out of these factors' interface. Further, the tight work schedule journalists were asked to follow also contributed to their increased occupational stress. Not surprising that women media employees were having high occupational stress than their male counterparts as they were affected badly by the home-work interface. Public sector employees found to have better work-life balance and compensation package while registering less occupational stress when compared to those in private sector.

Intrinsic Professional Satisfaction (IPS)

Journalists' job satisfaction is notably affected by newsroom policy changes reported Stamm and Underwood (1993) in a survey of 429 newsroom staffers at daily newspapers in the U.S.A. The higher journalist perceived newspaper quality the more was his/her job satisfaction. Whenever journalism was perceived as taking a back seat to business, job satisfaction lowered. Organization's emphasis on profit reduced journalists' job satisfaction whereas the emphasis on journalistic policies raised it. In addition, ownership structure was reported to be an influencing factor in deciding job satisfaction but the size of the newspaper was not (Stamm & Underwood, 1993).

Weaver and Wilhoit (1996) observed a gradual decline in the number of very satisfied journalists and increase in fairly satisfied journalists when compared with Johnstone et al. (1976) and authors' own study (1986) of job satisfaction. About one-fourth of the surveyed journalists were of the opinion that they intended to leave the field or planned to work outside the news media within five years. Regarding job satisfaction determinants, an editorial policy which curbed journalists' autonomy topped the list and 'helping people' spotted next. Perceived reduction in autonomy was attributed to rigorous news policies and to internal, organizational factors. Along with this, 'management policies, low salaries and inadequate advancement opportunities' also contributed to journalists' dissatisfaction with the job. The study also marked a shift from risk-liking generation to risk-disliking generation of journalists who preferred 'normal lives' (Weaver & Wilhoit, 1996).

According to Miloch et al. (2005), women sports journalists in media were reported to be happy with their assignments although the assignments were mainly to cover females. They acknowledged that there had been an improvement in the field and identified a considerable reduction in gender discriminations. Slowly but steadily sportspersons and sports administrators accepted women sports media persons and gave more access to them. Yet, the field had not given full access to the female gender in terms of entry and advancement. Younger journalists were more positive regarding career expectations. But balancing with familial obligations was challenging for those participating in the survey. The researchers concluded the study with a remark that daily editions relied more upon female journalists despite their job titles (Miloch, Pedersen, Smucker & Whisenant, 2005).

Martin (2010) assessed that Arab American journalists enjoyed high levels of professional efficacy, a predictor of job satisfaction. Regardless of the differences like gender, age, education, years of experience, or years at a current job and the streams of news outlets, almost all the journalists registered high levels of internal (reporting abilities) and external (responsiveness of the audience) efficacies. This, in turn, raised the confidence level of Arab American journalists that enabled them to 'produce valuable and influential news in the U. S.' (Martin, 2010).

Chang and Massey (2010) identified culture as a significant variable of job satisfaction using collectivism tendency index while studying work motivation of journalists from U. S. and Taiwan. Collectively, Taiwanese were less satisfied with

their job than Americans as they were more concerned about work stress. In turn, Americans valued autonomy, task significance, job security, promotion opportunities, and work schedule more than Taiwanese. But, they did not differ in terms of organizational commitment and turnover intentions. Collectivism tendency influenced job satisfaction significantly and positively on Taiwanese. In opposite, it insignificantly and negatively affected job satisfaction of the Americans. Thus, journalists of different nations assigned different levels of vitality to job satisfaction and its antecedents and numbered Individualism-collectivism cultural orientation as a determinant of the same (Chang & Massey, 2010).

On the other hand, Journalists in the twenty-first century from various nations experienced low satisfaction levels found Willnat, Weaver and Choi (2013). Most of the journalists from Chile, Hong Kong, South Korea, Taiwan, the UAE, Singapore and Slovenia were not very satisfied with their job whereas their colleagues in Colombia, Finland, and Israel were found satisfied in the profession. One-third of journalists from Australia, Canada, Sweden, and the United States were very satisfied. Journalists with higher perceived autonomy were satisfied with their job. For journalists from Finland, South Korea, Poland, and Russia 'perceived freedom' was the most important factor of job satisfaction. Journalists from Australia, Chile and Japan valued editorial policy, salary and the opportunity for journalists to use their abilities and knowledge and news organizations and their relationships with the government as the dominant predictors of job satisfaction. Unsatisfied journalists tended to be less competitive since job satisfaction was crucial in making an employee confident and loyal that might result in improved output (Willnat, Weaver & Choi, 2013).

When comes to online journalism, Lim (2013) reported that South Korean online journalists' emotional response to their competitors' coverage and scooping were significantly correlated with their job satisfaction, workload, and the perceived quality of their news website. When online journalists scooped their competitors, they perceived the quality of the news website positively which led to satisfaction with the job. But when they got scooped and were obliged to follow competitors' stories, it caused to feel more workload and more dissatisfaction with the job (Lim, 2013).

Analysing the conditions, problems, and challenges faced by U. S. Latino journalists, Flores and Subervi (2014) reported that advancement (preferred to continue the job), growth and work itself (amount and type of work along with their position) were the motivation factors that influenced the job attitudes of journalists. But, many of the Latino journalists were dissatisfied with the promotional opportunities. Regarding hygiene factors, salary and relation with peers were seen as most influential. And the news personnel were satisfied in their peer relations but felt dissatisfied with the payment. The new staff also shared racial discrimination they faced in the field (Flores & Subervi, 2014).

Extrinsic Professional Satisfaction (EPS)

Demonstrating a portrait of U. S. news people and their work, Weaver and Wilhoit (1986) unearthed the fact that job satisfaction of journalists diminished significantly after Johnstone et al. published their work a decade earlier. The prominent reason behind this was attributed to the perception of journalists on their organizations' commitment to inform the public. Autonomy in story selection and story element emphasis played at the centre in deciding younger journalists' job satisfaction. Salary stayed as a predictor of job satisfaction (in a weaker form) for older journalists. The study, in general, indicated that professionalism factors becoming strong predictors of job satisfaction (Weaver & Wilhoit, 1986).

Bramlett-Solomon (1992) reported that Black journalists of the U.S. were satisfied with their job in general. They felt that organizations were doing a good job of informing the public, and positive feedback they received from the supervisors seemed as important variables of job satisfaction. Pointing at the racial element, dissatisfied Black journalists were twice the numbers of white journalists, the researcher found (Bramlett-Solomon, 1992).

Furnham and Hughes (1999) found that there was a significant correlation between shift-work and job satisfaction of Television based journalists and creatives. Nightworkers were seemed to be less satisfied than day workers (scored higher in the extent of 'morningness') especially with intrinsic factors and attitude towards physical conditions. At the same time, internal locus of control correlated with job category (morning/evening type), time of day, career future and with other determining factors of job satisfaction positively. And night time journalists expressed more job satisfaction than nighttime creatives. In addition, rotation time

of day and night shifts also found as a predictor of job satisfaction. Journalists, the swift shiftwork rotators enjoyed more job satisfaction than creatives, the slow shiftwork rotators. In general, night shiftwork affected social and domestic relations negatively and made sleep deficits but it was rewarded with better salary, promotional opportunities and opportunity for solitary activities outside work (Furnham & Hughes, 1999).

Studying occupational stress and job satisfaction in media personnel assigned to the Iraq war of 2003, Greenberg et al. (2007) identified three categories of stressors: 'control over the situation, support from the management and grief from the death of colleagues.' The intensity of stressors was different among embedded and unilateral journalists. Unilateral concerned more of competitiveness, unsafe conditions and compelled to take the unnecessary risk while running after high profile stories. Unilateral got little management and co-worker support when compared with embeds. Also, unilateral reported more physical or emotional health problems and the majority of them were dissatisfied with their assignment and refused to return to Iraq. Meanwhile, embeds experienced less stress than unilateral and they remained content in their profession (Greenberg, Thomas, Murphy & Dandeker, 2007).

Beam and Spratt (2009) observed that experiences with violent and traumatic events had no direct link with journalists' job satisfaction, workplace morale and career commitment. Still, journalists desired support from the management to cope with trauma effectively. Journalists felt that they got support from the organizations during traumatic situations and it improved their job satisfaction and morale significantly. Perceived management care caused to increase the organizational commitment of the journalists. In contrary, journalists experiencing emotional stress who planned to leave the field considered their management as less supportive. At the same time, being in physical danger by the nature of work had no association with journalists' job satisfaction or perceived workplace morale as they dealt with traumatized sources or subjects more frequently. Journalists in danger viewed management as less caring (Beam & Spratt, 2009).

Reinardy (2009) reported that diminishing organizational support declined job satisfaction of U.S. journalists. Supporting Herzberg's theory, organizational and

social supports, the motivational factors played vital roles in deciding job satisfaction and when journalists experienced low levels of these elements they intended to leave the profession. And the dissatisfied journalists were reported to have high levels of hygiene factors like work-family conflict, job demands and role overload. Diminished journalistic standards that drove towards increased profit and readership also fuelled their dissatisfaction with the profession. He observed that it would not be 'workload, deadlines, or salary issue', but the collapsing foundation of journalism that would cause the journalists to quit the profession (Reinardy, 2009).

Along with this, Reinardy (2011) found that journalist's organizational commitment got a say in deciding their level of job satisfaction while studying journalism's lay off survivors in the U.S. They adapted to the changing situations in the field and its requirements and seemed to accumulate more resources trust, morale and perception of job quality. Meanwhile, journalists who experienced lower levels of job satisfaction reported to have low levels of trust, morale, perception of job quality and organizational commitment. Interestingly, journalists (surveyed when newspapers started making cuts and when desks were vacated) read the situation differently, exactly in the opposite, to become satisfied or dissatisfied with their job (Reinardy, 2011).

In another study, Reinardy and Crawford (2011) observed that specialization in sports and the management's commitment to its coverage helped the sportscasters to find great satisfaction in their jobs. Herzberg's hygiene factors like role overload and job demands showed no signs of influence on job satisfaction but work-family conflict did. Those who intended to leave feeling that the management was indifferent and unsupportive to the local sports coverage. Anyhow, being the most satisfied group of broadcast journalists, sportscasters' job satisfaction owe a lot to the autonomy, a kind of unadulterated freedom, they enjoyed at the workplace receiving minimal assistance from other departments (Reinardy & Crawford, 2011).

Gupta (2012) reported that the status of journalists from Madhya Pradesh was not enthusiastic in terms of professional qualification, working conditions and payment. Journalists in the Rewa division were in short of library facilities as well as mass communication-related collections in existing libraries. Journalists in this part of the country mostly had a diploma in journalism but lacked accreditation and were paid below Rs. 10000. Though they were not reluctant to visit libraries, their

exposures were mostly restricted to newspapers and research reports on their topic of coverage. However, the study found out that a maximum number of journalists was satisfied in their job (Gupta, 2012).

“Average” Flemish professional journalists were fairly satisfied with the various aspects of the journalistic job, found Deprez and Raeymaeckers (2012) based on surveys conducted in 2003 (N = 1,026) and in 2008 (N = 682). Journalists reported lower “average” job satisfaction in 2008 in comparison with 2003. They were not happy with the work pressure and the pay as journalists have to work more than an average number of working hours. The number of freelance journalists who were very satisfied in their statute increased over the years. Journalists with managerial function were more satisfied with the intellectual challenge, individual freedom, job security, and the pay connected with their job both in 2003 and 2008. On average both in 2003 and in 2008 female professional journalists were slightly more satisfied with the variation in the content of their job than their male colleagues. Flemish journalists were less satisfied with job-intrinsic aspects like working hours, work pressure, pay, and promotion prospects than job-extrinsic aspects like job autonomy, variation in content, and abundance of contacts. Researchers interpreted the negative shift in job satisfaction over the years as the falling of professional satisfaction in the field of journalism (Deprez & Raeymaeckers, 2012).

El-Nawawy and Strong (2012) found that journalists in Al-Arabiya TV channel of Saudi Arabian ownership compromised the news gathering limitations they faced as a trade-off for a secure job. Caring management and high public profile of the station provided job satisfaction to the journalists who considered the station as the best in the region. Those who perceived greater editorial freedom (freedoms enjoyed within the newsroom) and a greater appreciation of journalistic values by the employer seemed to be more satisfied with their job. A small number of (dissatisfied) journalists worried about the unqualified co-workers and evaluated the job as the one that was below their experience. Almost all the Al-Arabiya journalists were satisfied with their job despite their gender, nationality, age and (journalism) educational background (El-Nawawy & Strong, 2012).

Taking job satisfaction and station support as stored resources, Reinardy (2012) observed that resources could be depleted due to demands. Sportscasters

depended on these factors during the time of difficulty to protect themselves from being burned out. Though the majority of U.S. sportscasters did not experience burn out, they highlighted job demands, role overload and work-family conflict as predictors of exhaustion, an important variable in burnout. Job satisfaction was tested and recognised as a significant predictor of professional efficacy whereas organizational support was not. At the same time, organizational support and workload were counted as significant issues in determining burnout along with job satisfaction. Journalists who were not satisfied with their job and who felt unsupported by the organization suffered burnout. Reinardy concluded that resources like job satisfaction helped sports broadcasters to sideline the job stressors and most of them were non-burned out on the job (Reinardy, 2012).

According to Reinardy (2014), TV news workers' job satisfaction was correlated with perceptions of work quality, autonomy, organizational support and workload. All these factors had a significant, positive and moderate correlation with job satisfaction except workload that exerted a negative correlation. High levels of workload and low levels of organizational support led to low levels of job satisfaction. Regarding demographics, gender played a vital role and women expressed more job satisfaction than men. Professional experience also identified as an important predictor in deciding job satisfaction. Journalists reported to have low levels of job satisfaction indicated that they would leave the profession soon and raised issues related to salary, family and quality of work. In general, the study held the idea of Self Determination Theory (SDT) and proved that journalists who enjoyed their work are intrinsically motivated and had higher levels of satisfaction and those who sought tangible reward like pay and all, the extrinsic factors, hardly found it and reported lower levels of job satisfaction (Reinardy, 2014).

Two third of Nigerian journalists of the interviewed 320 journalists from South were dissatisfied with their job reported by Ofili et al. (2014). More than half of the journalists experienced job stress either in moderate or in a severe form and the majority of them was dissatisfied with their jobs in which gender and job title played vital roles. Journalists with high job stress (dissatisfaction from long shifts, work overload, performance pressure and perceived inadequate funding for the achievements) and less experience seemed to be the most dissatisfied category.

Regarding psychological morbidity and job stress, male gender, editor and manager groups suffered the most (Ofili, Tobin, Ilombu, Igbinosun & Iniomor, 2014).

Ternes, Peterlin and Reinardy (2017) found that job satisfaction varied across job titles in a survey of 1181 journalists in the United States. Desk-workers and sports journalists predicted better job satisfaction than their respective counterparts of non-desk workers and non-sports workers. For sports journalists online was a positive addition to the newsroom while it was a negative one for the desk workers. The decrease in job satisfaction was due to the increase in workloads and responsibilities with the emphasis on online publication. On the other hand, social responsibility helped the journalists to enter and remain in the profession. Whenever their social responsibility collided with that of organizational policies, job satisfaction of journalists decreased. Researchers also professed that the high job satisfaction of journalists was due to their commitment to the profession and the autonomy they enjoyed in the profession (Ternes, Peterlin, Reinardy & Job, 2017).

Journalists held contradictory logics of success (long hours' hard work, critical mindset and an uncompromising personality) and their JS depended on how journalists read the situations. It was newspaper journalists who were surveyed for digging out job satisfaction in the journalistic field for the first time. Gradually journalists from other media, especially TV journalists grabbed the attention as the medium grew fast and extensively than print. Job satisfaction of online journalists is rarely studied as they are comparatively employed in a new type of media.

Gender and Media: An Indian Perspective

Surprisingly, most of the studies on journalists in India concentrated on the gender disparity in the field. Traditional Indian society is rigid and highly patriarchal. Though an attitudinal change in this regard is in the Indian working atmosphere, the pace of change is not enthusiastic.

Journalism field in India is not devoid of male centred ideologies and attitudes of which demise can be effected from the due representation of female folk in media. Panya (2004) in her study found that the severity of challenges faced by women journalists in India as well as in Thailand faded over decades. Though the entry of women into the journalism field happened in the first stage of its

blooming in the country, women journalists were assigned to report soft news only. The trend was prominent in the last phase of colonialism and in the first phase of Independence. Later, the UN declaration of International Women Decade (1975-85) brought a drastic change in the history of journalism in India and in Thailand and many women journalists entered the field with great prominence. And their presence caused to change the social attitude and field attitude toward women-centred social issues (Panya, 2004).

Studying the status of working women journalists in Karnataka, Manjunath (2007) professed that women journalists were mostly young and educated and were not very experienced. Interestingly, the majority of women journalists were not coming from families with a journalism background. Though they were underpaid, majority journalists opined that they faced no discrimination in the profession. Strikingly, women journalists, in general, were not part of any employee organizations. However, what was interesting is that majority of women journalists planned to stay in the profession which would later bring an attitudinal change in the journalistic field in the country (Manjunath, 2007).

Bhardwaj (2014) sought the multi-dimensional factors of role conflict faced by women journalists in Delhi. Shocking were some of the observations made by the researcher. The society at large believed that not professionalism but sexual favours that gained exclusive stories for women journalists. Superiors and men interviewees harassed the women journalists at times. Even media organizations, especially TV channels, were more concerned about their physical appearance than that of their professional skills. Most of the newspaper offices were not women-friendly and lacked separate toilet facilities too. For a beginner, the things were harder than those who were experienced. Failures of the same kind by male and female journalists were treated discriminately with a remark that women were not made for this profession. The low status of women journalists and women, in general, was actually the reflection of patriarchal values reinforced by tradition, media and other socio-political institutions in India (Bhardwaj, 2014).

Similarly, journalists in cities were also not received justice in terms of gender in India. In a sociological study on changing the status of women journalists in Bangalore, Manjula (2015) opined that though the number of women entering

into the journalism field saw a considerable increase, they were still subordinates in decision making responsibility in the city of Bangalore. The male-dominated journalism field in the city hardly listened to the voices of women in general. Work-life imbalance they faced was mainly due to the stereotyped roles of gender. Further, gender inequality and discrimination prevailed in the field journalism. Though few in number, women journalists of this generation were reported to have the determination to stay in the field facing all adversaries they confronted, the researcher observed (Manjula, 2015).

Enquiring working women journalists' status in Karnataka, Naik (2016) found that female folk were under continuous pressure of proving oneself in the male-dominated Television media in the state. English media found to be more women-friendly in terms of working environment and remuneration than Kannada media. Still, there was some kind of gender disparity at the seniority level. However, in English media gender equality was visible in almost all realms of work. On the other hand, Kannada media that followed the patriarchal supremacy and rigidity treated women unequally in terms of freedom, respect, promotion, increment and the like. Though there were regional differences in degree of discrimination pertaining to specific culture and tradition, women journalists in Kannada media, in general, accepted the male supremacy without resistance (Naik, 2016).

Tomar (2017) studied the work experiences of women journalists in Hindi print journalism in Madhya Pradesh and recognized it as a field of gendered and caste-based relations. The feudal patriarchal state and the prevailing dominant order discouraged women from entering to the field. However, the women journalists chose the profession as it seemed to be powerful in the eyes of paternal authority that placed power and status over gender-equality. Again, women journalist's professional identity was not accepted within the family especially when they got married. The women journalists enjoyed the liberty and freedom the profession offered. But they had to face professional discriminations as they were not given official appointment letters, press cards, or salary slips. Further, the sexual division of work (news-beat allocation) led to a male-centric view of media. And their physical needs were ignored in workplaces as there were no proper washrooms and toilets as part of low-economy management. The researcher opined that things did not stay unchanged as women journalists were not part of

any employee organization nor they were unable to lobby as male journalists did. The way aged and experienced men and women journalists have treated also an epitome of gender discrimination. The aged men were identified with their supremacy of intellect and wise while aged women were identified with the deteriorated mind, professional worth and appearance. In addition to these, the study revealed that there existed caste discrimination even among women journalists (Tomar, 2017).

SUMMARY

Journalists held contradictory logics of success and their PS and PF depended on the personal, extrinsic and intrinsic factors that determined how journalists read the situations. Starting from newspaper journalists, TV journalists grabbed the momentum as the medium grew fast and now the attention is on the professional satisfaction of online journalists employed in new media, a convergent form of all conventional mass media.

Three decades-long research into the area of professional freedom threw light on one of the most debated issues of corporatized and privatized press freedom that curtail the freedom of real content makers, the journalists. Selection, preparation and presentation of news are influenced by the control centres like profession and organization on legal political and economic grounds. The profit-oriented media act as the fertile soil for the same that require more technical skills than individual journalist's autonomy. Studies on professional freedom of journalists reveal that naturalization of external and internal restrictions in the forms of news routines, superiors, editors, executives, owners, politicians, government officials, business, public relations and market research influence journalists' depiction of facts to a remarkable extent.

Five decades-long research on JS of journalists across the world generated the laudable amount of data. The most occurred factors that decided JS of journalists were: autonomy, gender, job experience, professional/journalistic standards, editorial policy, advancement opportunity, levels of pay, position, relation with co-workers, organizational commitment, management care/organizational support, work itself/work quality, role, job demands, workload/stress, and work-family conflict. All the above-mentioned factors in one way or other involved in deciding the journalist's job satisfaction with diverse intensities. The review

indicated the fact that different factors of JS of journalists had different significance in different individual, professional, and social contexts. Hence, JS of journalists varies over years and across nations as far as this review was concerned.

The researchers, in general, identified job autonomy/professional freedom as one of the most contributing determinants of job/professional satisfaction, the job attitude. The studies point to the fact that 'perceived' journalism, professional satisfaction and professional freedom along with press freedom should be analysed and understood in their 'domesticated forms' (Votmer & Wasserman, 2014) and their respective social contexts.

Professional freedom and satisfaction of journalists were sought eagerly by the communication researchers around the world, especially in democracies. Still, several nations lack a single study on professional freedom and satisfaction of journalists as such though there are related studies searching characteristics of journalists. Asian and African countries lead the list in this regard except for a few countries like Indonesia, Bangladesh and Nigeria. U.S journalists continue to be the most researched group of media persons around the world. However, professional freedom is the prevailing trend in the field of journalism research when compared to the professional satisfaction of journalists.

Though Indian researchers hardly studied professional freedom and professional satisfaction of journalists as such if not as the part of a related study, their characteristics will not, in fact, contrast to their colleagues in media across the world. Anyhow, the working atmosphere for journalists in the country seemed to be curtailed on many grounds. Indian journalists spread across different linguistic and state atmospheres unanimously reported that their working conditions and compensation packages were not up to the standard. Further, they faced discrimination in terms of gender and caste that were rooted in the very culture and tradition of India.

The third chapter details the study objectives and methodology.

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CHAPTER III

STUDY OBJECTIVES AND METHODOLOGY

Professional freedom and job satisfaction are credited with a rich research tradition, especially in the post-industrialized world premised on the assumption that both are closely related to the quality of production and finer aspects human life. The body of research literature on the professional freedom and satisfaction in the media industry professes that they are the established proofs of a healthy democracy and freedom of expression.

From research trends in the field, it is evident that 20th-century media researchers followed both of these concepts ardently and discerned the issues and challenges faced by journalists in various socio-political contexts. Yet, there is a dearth of such studies in Indian scenario compared to other developing and developed nations that too when India being the largest democracy and one of the vibrant media markets in the world. Moreover, the fact that the professional characteristics of journalists in India so as in Kerala are matching with that of their counterparts elsewhere increases the significance of such enquiries.

Pointing to the need for a contextual enquiry into the problem, Voltmer and Wasserman (2014) rightly observed that 'perceived' professional freedom and professional satisfaction along with press freedom (of media professionals) should be analyzed and understood in their 'domesticated forms' and in their respective social contexts (Irerri, 2015). Recognizing the knowledge gap in the area in the Indian context, and imbibing cues from the research traditions in the field the present study tries to examine the professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons in Kerala, India.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Below detailed are the theories and indices that create a theoretical background for the constructs of professional freedom and professional satisfaction used in the present study.

Grounding Concepts of Professional Freedom

Constructs of press freedom filters that indirectly pointed at the restrictive measures on

it, Herman and Chomsky's propaganda model (1988), Freedom of the Press Index and World Press Freedom Index and the domains of influences on news content proposed by Shoemaker and Reese (1996) and Thomas Hanitzsch et. al. (2010) are taken as critiquing and measurement bases of the professional freedom in the present study. PF was mostly studied as part of professional satisfaction and at times considered as a major factor of the same. On the other hand, there were many. Following are those theories and indices of which conceptions helped the researcher to envisage the ten factors of PF used in the study.

Herman and Chomsky's Propaganda Model

Critiquing filters of media content proposed by Herman and Chomsky's propaganda model (1988) as they actually are the restrictive measures on the professional freedom of the journalists who are at the receiving end, the researcher developed professional freedom (EPF) factors like freedom from threats, freedom to criticize the government, and freedom from economic pressures.

Size, ownership and profit orientation of the mass media, advertising and sourcing mass media news are the first three filters in the propaganda model. Stories that favour the major funding agencies and 'newsworthy' content producers like corporations and governments are aired or published while stories that these agents do not want the public to know are killed or buried. For Chomsky, the fourth filter of 'flak and enforces' and 'Anticommunism', the final filter, refer to the negative feedbacks on mass media contents. Interestingly, these flak enforces are mostly from the corporations and those in power to keep themselves 'safe and sound' (Herman & Chomsky, 2002).

Bourdieu's Field Theory

According to Bourdieu's Field Theory, journalistic field retains some kind of autonomy even when influenced by external pressures. After the formation of the field, it tends to be reigned by 'implicit rules' producing internal homogeneity (Bourdieu, 1998). Further, the rate at which external pressures influence the individual media organizations is decided by their own internal homogeneity. Thus the internal homogeneity, governed by their own rules, at the microcosm level play vital role in deciding the journalist's professional freedom and satisfaction. But this should be analyzed within the macro level/external factors of press freedom and profit-oriented media industry in the country.

PF Indices

Following are two of the major press freedom indices along with two important studies that identified important domains of influences or restrictive factors of news content from which cues to design the present study are gauged.

Freedom of the Press Index

The Freedom of the Press Index published annually by the Freedom House uses a number of predictors to measure national press freedom. These indicators of press freedom refer mainly to the three broad categories of legal environment, political environment and economic environment (as cited in Reich & Hanitzsch, 2013).

World Press Freedom Index

World Press Freedom Index published annually by Reporters Without Borders measures press freedom under six distinct domains like accounting for human rights violations, the status of media, the status of journalists, pluralism and editorial independence, legal doctrine and practice, and the internet and technical resources (Deloire, 2013).

Other Indices

Professional freedom of a journalist is further measured independently by researchers. Without taking professional freedom of a journalist in advance, Shoemaker and Reese (1996) proposed four kinds of perceived influences on content that restrict journalistic freedom including the influence of individual media workers, the influence of media routines, organizational influences, and influences from outside of media organization (Shoemaker & Reese, 1996).

Thomas Hanitzsch et. al. (2010) identified six distinctive domains of influences on the news: political influences, economic influences, organizational influences, procedural influences, professional influences and influences of reference groups (Reich & Hanitzsch, 2013).

Theories of Professional Satisfaction

Professional Satisfaction (PS), generally referred as job satisfaction, is one of the most extensively probed areas in the field of Psychology (Judge & Church, 2000). The theoretical tradition in this domain has been branched out into two: Job satisfaction as a source of work motivation and job satisfaction as a cause of professional

development. Following are the theories from which the researcher imbibed the cues to design the present study.

Herzberg's Two-Factor (Motivator-Hygiene) Theory (1968)

Herzberg's two-factor theory is one of the most applied JS theories while studying journalists (Smucker, Whisenant, & Pedersen, 2003; Reinardy & Crawford, 2011; Deprez & Raeymaeckers, 2012; Semary, 2012; Flores & Subervi, 2014). Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are produced by motivator (pay and benefits, recognition and achievement) and hygiene (deteriorated working conditions, company policies and structure, job security, interaction with colleagues and quality of management act) factors, two separate and unrelated types, respectively. For Herzberg, "The opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction but, rather, no job satisfaction; and similarly, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction, but no job dissatisfaction" (Herzberg, 1966).

Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Model (JCM, 1976)

Job satisfaction is a work outcome produced when the job dimensions of skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback are gratified to impact psychological states like experienced meaningfulness, the experienced responsibility of outcomes and knowledge of the actual results. A mixture of these factors that predict JS could be measured with Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) (Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R., 1975; Chang & Massey, 2010).

Situational Occurrences Theory (1992)

Quarstein, McAfee, and Glassman (1992) posited the idea that situational characteristics like pay, supervision, working conditions, promotional opportunities, and company policies as evaluated by the employee as a job seeker and situational occurrences (both positive and negative) that happen after taking up the job, determine the JS of an employee (Quarstein, McAfee, & Glassman, 1992).

Self Determination Theory (SDT)

Satisfaction is determined by the individual's goal-oriented behaviour influenced by intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. Basic human needs are competence (to be effective in dealing with the environment), autonomy (to control the course of life) and relatedness (to have close and affectionate relationships with others). People who find

enjoyment and interest from the activity itself are intrinsically motivated and those who find satisfaction from the consequences to which the activity leads are extrinsically motivated (Gagne & Deci, 2005).

Job satisfaction theories have a strong overlap with theories explaining human motivation. Though the proposed JS theories do not fully explain job satisfaction, together they account for a significant portion of job satisfaction as observed by Ewen (1964), Judge and Bono (2001) and Maher (2002).

PS Indices

The present study formulated indices to measure freedom and satisfaction. While developing measurement tools for job satisfaction the researcher has depended on some well-known job satisfaction indices in operation. They are:

Job Descriptive Index (JDI)

The Job Descriptive Index is a “facet” measure of satisfaction of professionals with their jobs. Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969), proponents of the measure, developed 72 items to assess five facets of job satisfaction; work, pay, promotions, supervision, and co-workers. Updating the JDI, Roznowski (1989) added the facets of work atmosphere, job content and work technology (Smucker, Whisenant, & Pedersen, 2003; Arts and Sciences, 2015).

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

Here, 20 subscales with a total of 100 questions, JS is measured with “ability, utilization, achievement, activity, advancement, authority, company policies and practices, compensation, co-workers, creativity, independence, moral values, recognition, responsibility, security, social service, social status, supervision-human relations, supervision-technical variety, and working conditions” (Fields, 2002, p.7). Subscales for intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction are used in MSQ and a short version is available with 20 items.

Job Satisfaction Survey

Spector (1985) developed this measure containing 36 items categorised in nine facets of JS; pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work and communication. It was initially developed specifically to analyse JS in human service, non-profit and public organizations.

Professional satisfaction of Kerala journalists is thus measured basing on the possible intrinsic and extrinsic factors inspired from the Herzberg's Two-factor theory, Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Model, Situational Occurrences Theory, and Self Determination Theory. In addition to that, the PS indices like Job Descriptive Index (JDI), Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, and Job Satisfaction Survey were also made use of.

To summarize, Grounding on the factors of professional freedom identified by the propaganda model and press freedom indices, the present study tries to elicit professional freedom index of journalists on the basis of ten factors under the components of internal professional freedom (IPF) and external professional freedom (EPF). In addition to that professional satisfaction is measured basing on the possible intrinsic and extrinsic factors inspired from the Herzberg's Two-factor theory, Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Model, Situational Occurrences Theory, and Self Determination Theory along with the PS indices like Job Descriptive Index (JDI), Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, and Job Satisfaction Survey.

STUDY OBJECTIVES

Professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons are inseparable ingredients of 'fourth estate' in a democratic country like India. Both professional satisfaction and professional freedom are essential for the efficiency of journalists as well as the media organizations. Researcher finds that there exists a knowledge gap in the field of journalism research in Kerala, the most literate state with highest media-density in the world's largest democracy (India). Against this background, the study seeks to examine the nature of professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons in Kerala and the reciprocity between them. To meet this main objective, following specific objectives were set.

- To determine the level of professional freedom and satisfaction of journalists in Kerala.
- To find out the nature of the linkage between professional freedom of media persons in Kerala and their personal and professional characteristics.
- To learn the nature of the association between professional satisfaction of journalists in Kerala and their personal and professional characteristics.
- To assess the nature of the relationship between professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons in Kerala.

STUDY HYPOTHESES

Grounding concepts, theories and previous studies in the fields of professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons across the globe revealed that the socio-demographic variables of journalists had a significant association with their perceived PF and PS. Exploration of such relations will throw light on the nature of the association between personal and professional characteristics of journalists and their professional freedom and satisfaction along with their components. Assuming the presence of such relations, the researcher formulated the following research hypotheses:

Research Hypothesis I (H1): Professional freedom of journalists in Kerala is likely to be associated with their personal and professional characteristics.

- **H1.a:** IPF of journalists in Kerala will be interconnected with their personal characteristics.
- **H1.b:** IPF of journalists in Kerala will be linked with their professional characteristics.
- **H1.c:** EPF of journalists in Kerala will be related to their personal characteristics.
- **H1.d:** EPF of journalists in Kerala will be connected with their professional characteristics.
- **H1.e:** PF of journalists in Kerala will be related to their personal characteristics.

- **H1.f:** PF of journalists in Kerala will be interrelated with their professional characteristics.

Research Hypothesis II (H2): Professional satisfaction of journalists in Kerala is likely to be associated with their personal and professional characteristics.

- **H2.a:** IPS of journalists in Kerala will be interconnected with their personal characteristics.
- **H2.b:** IPS of journalists in Kerala will be related to their professional characteristics.
- **H2.c:** EPS of journalists in Kerala will be associated with their personal characteristics.
- **H2.d:** EPS of journalists in Kerala will be linked with their professional characteristics.
- **H2.e:** PS of journalists in Kerala will be connected with their personal characteristics.
- **H2.f:** PS of journalists in Kerala will be interrelated with their professional characteristics.

Research Hypothesis III (H3): Professional freedom of journalists in Kerala is likely to be positively correlated with their professional satisfaction.

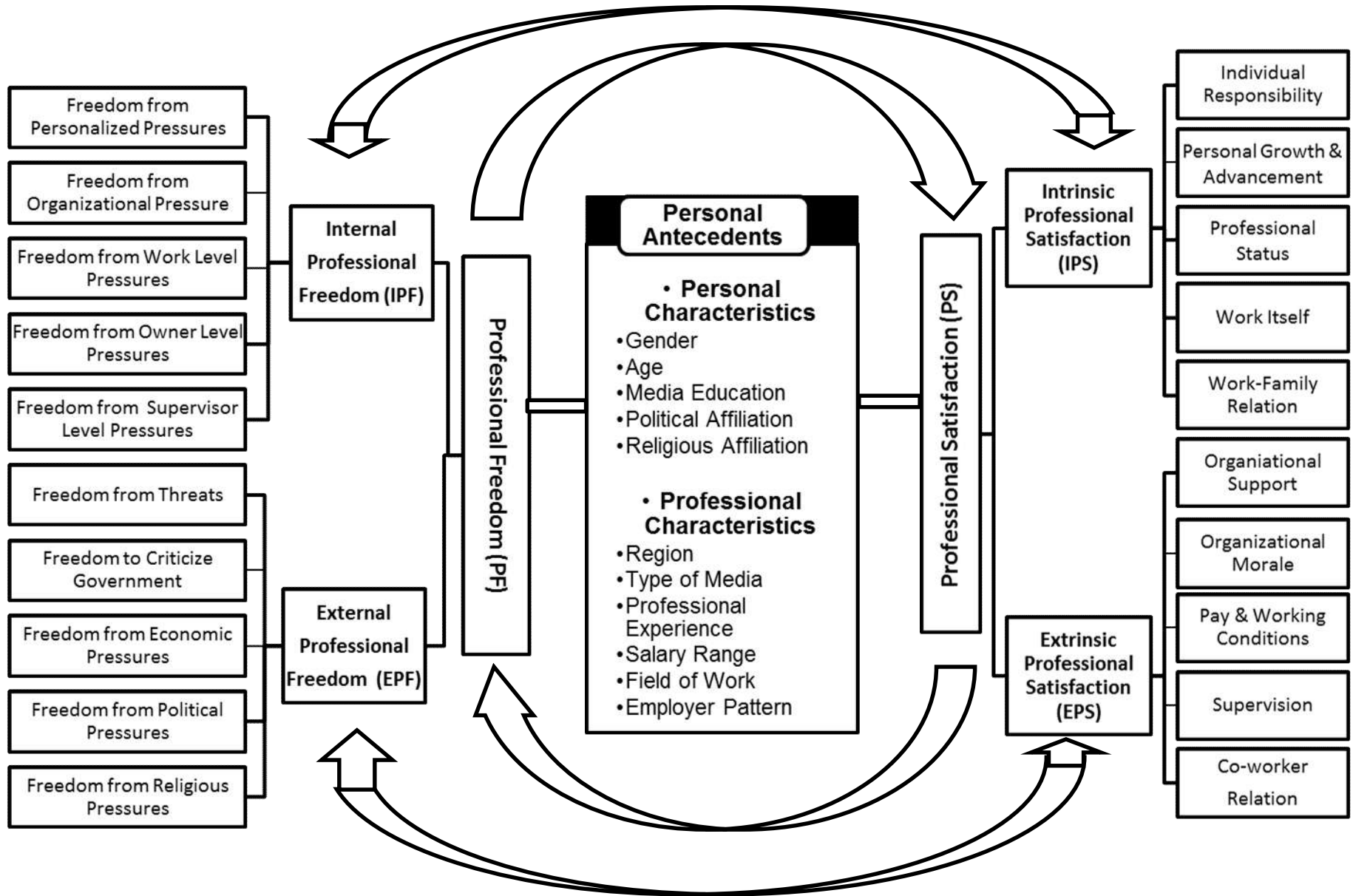
- **H3.a:** IPF of journalists in Kerala will positively correlate with their IPS
- **H3.b:** EPF of journalists in Kerala will positively correlate with their EPS.
- **H3.c:** PF of journalists in Kerala will positively correlate with their PS.

STUDY DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

To realize the objectives, the survey was conducted among media persons enlisted in the PRD directory, Govt. of Kerala that constituted the population of the study. No other report is reliable than that of self-reporting when feelings such as satisfaction and freedom that are subjective by nature are under investigation. Yet the possibility for personal bias under certain circumstances cannot be fully neglected.

The study design was to determine the professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons in Kerala by conducting a survey among the population. To understand the study better, the researcher advanced the following conceptual model.

Figure 3.1: Professional Freedom and Satisfaction (Conceptual Model)



As shown in the model (Figure 3.1), professional freedom (PF) is conceived to have two components: internal professional freedom (IPF) and external professional freedom (EPF) with their respective contributing factors. Factors of IPF under investigation were freedom from personalized pressures, freedom from organizational pressures, freedom from work level pressures, freedom from owner level pressures, and freedom from supervisor level pressures. EPF has measured on the factors of freedom from threats, freedom to criticize the government, freedom from economic pressures, freedom from political pressures and freedom from religious pressures.

Similarly, professional satisfaction (PS) is envisaged as the culmination of two components: intrinsic professional satisfaction (IPS) and extrinsic professional satisfaction (EPS) with their respective contributing factors. Contributing factors to IPS were work itself, personal growth & advancement, individual responsibility, professional status and work-family relation. Pay & working conditions, organizational morale, organizational support, supervision and co-worker relation were the extrinsic factors of professional satisfaction.

The study so as the conceptual model was designed to understand the influence of various personal and professional characteristics of journalists on PF and PS along with their components. Further, the study investigated the interrelations between PF and PS and between their components of IPF and IPS and EPF and EPS respectively.

Measurement and Questionnaire

An 80-question survey instrument was developed and administered to measure professional freedom and professional satisfaction of media persons in Kerala. The first section of the questionnaire enquired the respondents about their personal characteristics (gender, age, professional education, political affiliation and religious affiliation) and professional characteristics (region, type of media, salary range, experience, the field of work and ownership pattern).

The second section of professional satisfaction scale/index consisted of 10 factors (most reported influencing factors through various studies and nations across the globe) – five each from intrinsic and extrinsic categories spread across 40 items.

And the final section of the questionnaire investigated 'professional freedom' (PF) comprising ten contributing factors under the dichotomous components of internal professional freedom (IPF) and external professional freedom (EPF) and was spread across 40 items.

Four item scales were used to extract each factor of both PF and PS. In total, 40 items across 10 factors each under both PF and PS were measured on a 5-point Likert-like scale with item-wise scores ranging from -2 (strongly disagree/dissatisfied) to 2 (strongly agree/satisfied) assuming that the 'neither agree/satisfied nor disagree/dissatisfied' position as neutral/valueless. As a result, IPF and EPF in PF and IPS and EPS in PS were calculated on a scale ranging from -40 to 40 with three levels (-40 to -13.01 = low; -13 to 13 = moderate; 13.01 to 40 = high). Understandably, professional freedom/satisfaction was measured on a scale ranging from -80 to 80 with three levels (-80 to -26.01 = low; -26 to 26 = moderate; 26.01 to 80 = high). The ranges of scores of the components/factors/items on the scale were equally divided into three to determine the range of freedom/satisfaction scores such as low, moderate and high.

POPULATION PROFILE

The population of this study is the journalists enlisted in the directory published in 2014 by the Public Relations Department, Government of Kerala. The total number of journalists in Kerala is 3,104. Approximately, there is one journalist per ten thousand people in the state.

Traditional media incorporating print and broadcast continue to have their supremacy in the field of journalism in developing nations like India. Further, Kerala is a rare Indian state where sex ratio of the population is feminine. Researchers observed that the dominant gender in the media field tends to shape the content. Hence, the news - a social construct - relied more upon dominant male concerns that reinforce legitimated values and power structures, is disseminated through the traditional media (Martin-Kratzer & Gao, 2011; Weaver & Willnat, 2012). In addition to this, media houses in India are reluctant to employ women journalists (Press Institute of India & National Commission for Women). Medium and gender-wise distribution of journalists

in Kerala goes in hand with the world trend of continuing dominance of traditional media and of male journalists.

Table 3.1: Gender wise Distribution of Kerala Journalists by Medium

Media	Gender		Total
	Female	Male	
Online	12 (21.05%)	45 (78.95%)	57 (100%)
Print	159 (8%)	1840 (92%)	1999 (100%)
Radio	10 (13%)	67 (87%)	77 (100%)
Television	108 (11.1%)	863 (88.9%)	971 (100%)
Total	289 (9.3%)	2815 (90.7%)	3104 (100%)

Source: PRD directory

Journalists working in print media constitute the majority (64.4%) followed by those in Television (31.3%), radio (2.5%) and online media (1.8%). Journalists working in Radio are less in number as the news is permitted to broadcast only by the publicly owned All India Radio (AIR). Journalists working in online media - the latest addition to media type - are not present in the mainstream media though there is hasty growth in digital dissemination of information.

Hardly one-tenth (9.3%) is the female penetration to the field of journalism in the state. Proportionately most female journalists were accommodated in online media (21.05%) whereas the least were in print (8%). In short, the media in Kerala is still traditional in nature as marked by the dominance of print media (64.4%) as well as the male journalists (90.7%).

SAMPLING

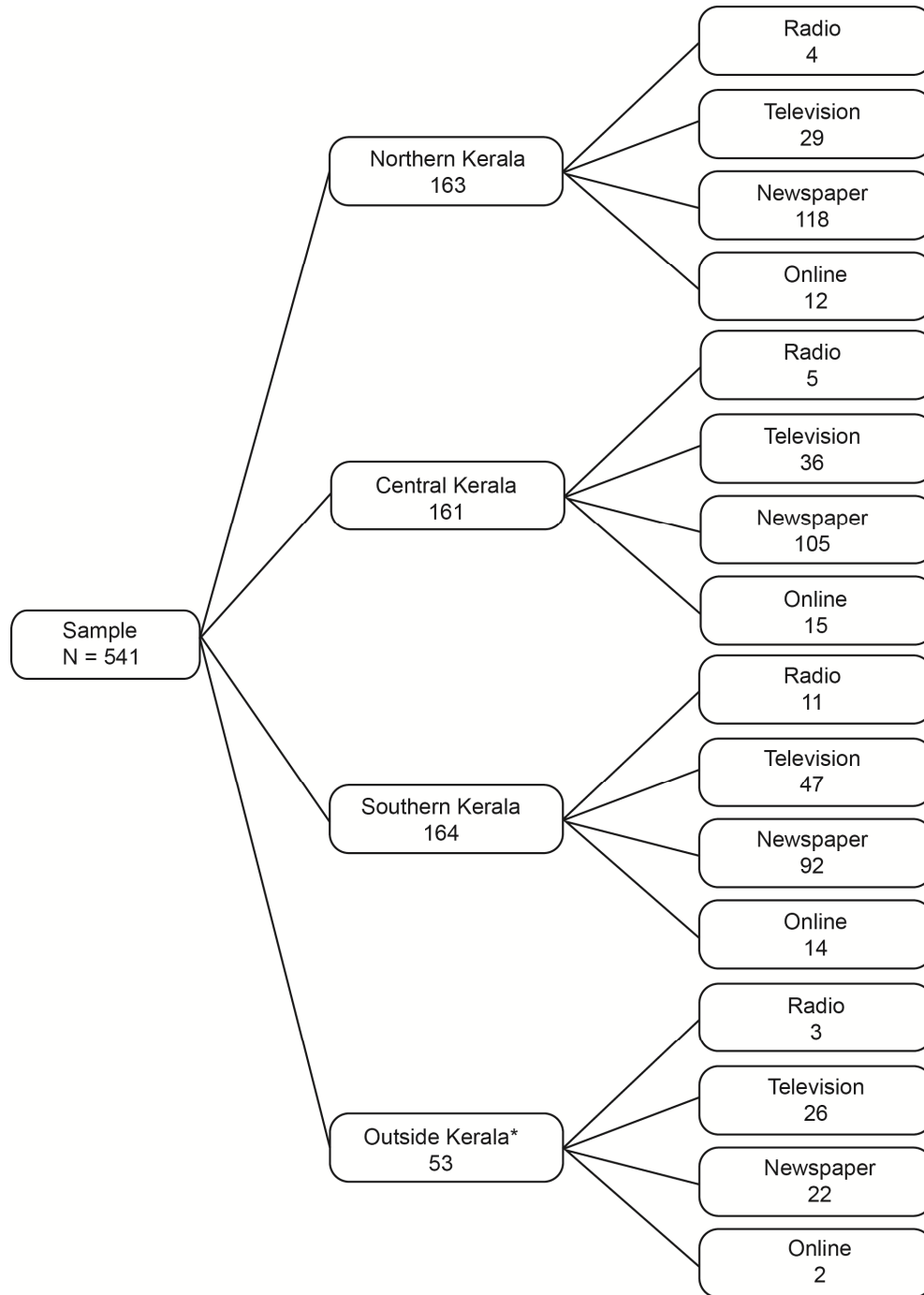
The sample is a subset of a population selected through various measures to represent the population and sampling, in turn, is the way the sample was collected to represent the characteristics of the study population. When the population is known, it is easy to decide the sample size using Morgan's table and to accommodate samples with heterogeneous characteristics of the population.

Multi-stage stratified random sampling was used to ensure the representation of three regions – North, Central, and South – of Kerala and major metros in India where Kerala journalists have a visible presence. Though the majority of the sampled

journalists were from Kozhikode, Ernakulam, and Trivandrum cities to represent the South Central and North regions inside the state and Delhi representing the regions outside the state, journalists distributed across 14 districts and major metros in India were included in the study. In the next stage, care was taken to ensure the proportionate representation of the type of media – Print, Radio, Television, and Online – from each region (Figure 3.2). Similarly, within each type of media, adequate representation of various possible variables including gender, age, education, and income was ensured.

The sample taken for the study is 541 out of 3104 of the journalists enlisted in the PRD directory. The proportion of the sample meets more than the sampling requirement proposed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) in which the base is calculated as 346 for a population of 3500. The sample (N = 541) constitutes one-sixth of the population (N = 3104) and it proportionally represents major demographic variables like gender, age, education, region, media, and income. It is expected that a typical Kerala journalist could be the best representation and the ‘central tendency’ of Kerala media culture. The survey was conducted in between 1st November 2015 to 30th June 2016. Journalists were surveyed in person by the researcher. The sample design of the study is given below.

**Figure 3.2: Sample Design
(Sample Dissemination across Regions and Types of Media)**



**'Outside Kerala' represents media persons from Kerala working in the major metros in other Indian states*

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

The study was envisaged under the two major constructs of professional freedom (PF) and professional satisfaction (PS), the researcher operationalized the key terms. PF was further divided into IPF and EPF which were spread across five factors each. Likewise, PS was the culmination of IPS and EPS which were having five factors each. Key terms and important constructs used to measure PF and PS are defined below to understand the study better.

Journalists outside Kerala

Kerala journalists who are working in major metros in various Indian states other than Kerala for media institutions which have their head offices in Kerala.

Professional Freedom (PF)

Professional freedom of journalists refers to the news decision autonomy or the degree of freedom journalists enjoy in their professional jurisdiction without being limited by internal or external influences like interference, domination and regulation on journalistic practice.

Internal Professional Freedom (IPF)

Internal professional freedom denotes the absence of internal constraints that prevent content objectivity and is recognized as an amalgamation of freedom from personalized pressures, freedom from organizational pressures, freedom from work level pressures, freedom from owner level pressures and freedom from supervisor level pressures.

Personalized Pressures

Personalized pressures signify the financial and material influences, collective views, resource constraints and personal bias based on personal characteristics, beliefs and attitudes, the journalist undergoes while processing news content.

Organizational Pressures

Organizational pressures denote the influence of organizational structure, policy, ideological leaning and market orientation, the journalist face while processing media content.

Work Level Pressures

Work level pressures refer to the pressures of a deadline, work schedule, target and the patterned sets of expectations and constraints evolved as part of the journalistic routine that influences content objectivity.

Owner Level Pressures

Owner level pressures mean the owner's interferences on media content in terms of compromises on news values, editorial guidelines, policies and profit orientation that adversely affect content objectivity.

Supervisor Level Pressures

Chief's or editor's personal bias and compromise on news values and compulsion to follow news manager's editorial policy and decision on the angle of the story are commonly referred as supervisor level pressures.

External Professional Freedom (EPF)

External professional freedom is the sum of freedom from threats, freedom to criticize the government, freedom from economic pressures, freedom from political pressures, and freedom from religious pressures.

Freedom from Threats

Freedom from threats denotes the journalistic freedom to report and publish news stories without limiting sources/angles of news or practising self-censorship - fearing repercussions from vested interest persons/groups, interventions of crime groups and threats of fundamentalists.

Freedom to Criticize Government

Freedom to criticize government refers to the professional environment where governmental interventions on media content using ownership pattern, economic pressure, and political censorship are absent and criticisms of the government and its policies are not restricted.

Freedom from Economic Pressures

Freedom from economic pressures denotes the absence of economic pressures on news content generated from advertisers, corporates, business moguls and profit-oriented media policies.

Freedom from Political Pressures

Freedom from political pressures refers to the journalist's freedom to present political news stories, especially on political parties and leaders, impartially and yet untouched by the political stand of the organization.

Freedom from Religious Pressures

Freedom from religious pressures indicates the neutrality of stories of religious implication without being affected by pressures from religious groups, religious leaders, and ideological leaning of the organization.

Professional Satisfaction (PS)

Professional satisfaction (PS) is the content in journalistic profession depending on feelings of satisfaction toward the profession (intrinsic) and the feelings of satisfaction from professional environment factors (extrinsic).

Intrinsic Professional Satisfaction (IPS)

Intrinsic Professional Satisfaction (IPS) refers to the internal enjoyment or satisfaction of the professional contingent upon the factors like work itself, personal growth and advancement, individual responsibility, professional status and work-family relation.

Work Itself

Work itself is the contentment journalist gets from the very profession in terms of variety, meaningfulness, and quality of the profession and from chances to be of service to the society.

Personal Growth & Advancement

Personal growth and advancement refer to the fulfilment journalists perceive concerning the chances for career advancement, personal development through career, opportunities for skill development, and chances to grow as an ideal journalist.

Individual Responsibility

Satisfaction with Individual responsibility means the gratification a journalist gets from individually discharging his/her duties in various capacities in the media organization.

Professional Status

Journalists' satisfaction with the social status of their profession and recognition of their organization is encapsulated in the term professional status.

Work-Family Relation

Satisfaction with work-family relations means how journalists are comfortable in balancing life between family and work spending meaningful time with family without compromising professional responsibilities.

Extrinsic Professional Satisfaction (EPS)

Extrinsic Professional Satisfaction (EPS) refers to the satisfaction journalists perceive on external professional environment contingent upon the factors like pay and working conditions, organizational morale, organizational support, supervision and co-worker relation which may include tangible rewards.

Pay & Working Conditions

Satisfaction with pay and working conditions of journalists means the contentment journalist has in their current working environment with all its aspects including salary.

Organizational Morale

Organizational morale is perceived as the attitude journalist forms considering the organization's commitment to the society, journalistic objectivity, editorial policy and its openness to criticism.

Organizational Support

Organizational support indicates the institutional policy that values the personal and collective life of journalists.

Supervision

Satisfaction with supervision is the fulfilment and conformability journalists enjoy when they are monitored and directed by higher-ups during their work hours.

Co-Worker Relation

Co-worker relations encapsulate the relation of journalists with their colleagues by all means.

DATA ANALYSIS

The data analysis followed standard procedures to meet the study objectives starting from sample description to the analysis of nature of the association between professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons in Kerala. Chi-square was used to determine the significance of distributions of nominal data in terms of journalists' type of media and the significance of variance of mean scores among groups of personal and professional characteristics of media persons was tested using independent sample t-Test and ANOVA as the number of categories may be.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Though the study will provide certain insights into the nature and relation of professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons in Kerala, there are limitations to it. A multi-approach/method can extract better results in the study. Yet another important limitation of the study is that the self-reporting strategy used in the survey. Asking perspectives seems to be complicated as the respondents tend to provide 'correct' answers. But it is, at times, considered as the best way to extract one's

feelings and attitudes. Again, an in-depth analysis of PF and PS factor wise association with journalists' personal and professional characteristics could be done which is restricted to the components of PF and PS in the present study. However, care was taken to control the possible limitations by sorting out the duly filled data and to by delimiting the analysis strictly to the objectives. Malayalee journalists working for foreign media and Malayalam/Indian ethnic media among various Indian diasporas, like Malayalam media in the Gulf and USA, are not included in the study. This may also be considered as a limitation considering the presence of a relatively high number of Kerala journalists in global media.

The forthcoming chapter deals with the analysis, findings and discussion following objectives of the study.

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CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Apparently, media in Kerala as well as in India evolved through four stages; the ideological apparatus of the missionaries under British colonialism (1781-1857), the flag bearer of Indian nationalism during the struggle for independence (1857-1947), the catalyst for nation building as well as a crusader of democracy particularly during the Emergency (1947-1991), and the present market-driven stage during globalization and liberalization (1992-). Undoubtedly, journalistic objectives and contents are varied along with public service and self-serving visions and the political atmospheres in the country as well as in the state.

Kerala, a state with 3.69 million population and highest literacy rate in the country, ranked first in terms of daily media exposure of the people in the National Family Health Survey (NFHS, 2015-16). N Ram rightly observed that “Kerala is the classic Indian case of politicization spreading to large sections of the population and creating a newspaper-reading culture” (Ram, 2011). Perceived professional freedom and satisfaction of journalists in Kerala is vital, in this respect, as they process the content to keep such a society informed and critically aware. To cater to media requirements of such a vast audience, there are 75 dailies including tabloids, 65 Television channels, 7 radio stations and 10 news websites in Malayalam (Govt of Kerala, 2015).

The present study is to have a general understanding of the personal and professional variables of journalists in Kerala, to trace out the levels of professional freedom of media persons in Kerala in terms of their personal and professional characteristics, to dig out the levels of professional satisfaction of journalists in Kerala in relation to their personal and professional characteristics, and to examine the relation between professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons in Kerala.

SAMPLING

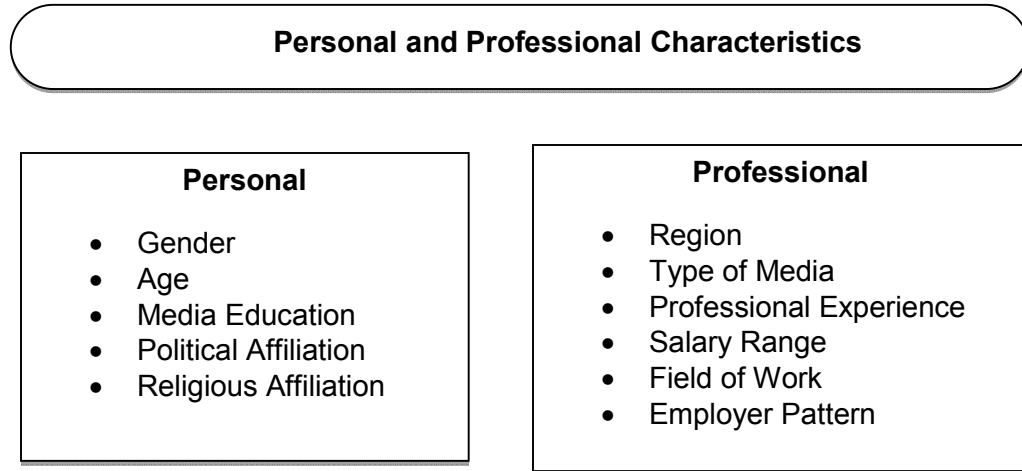
The sample taken for the study is 541 out of 3104 of the journalists enlisted in the PRD directory. The proportion of the sample meets more than the sampling requirement proposed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) in which the base is calculated as 346 for a population of 3500. The present size of the sample (N=541) constitutes one-sixth of the population (N=3104) and it proportionally represents major demographic variables like gender, age, education, region, medium, and income. It is expected that a typical Kerala journalist could be the best representation and the 'central tendency' of Kerala media culture. The survey was conducted in between 1st November 2015 to 30th June 2016. Most of the journalists were surveyed in person by the researcher and a few of the friends in the field.

Multi-stage stratified random sampling was used to ensure the representation of three regions – North, Central, and South – of Kerala and major metros in India where Kerala journalists have a visible presence. As part of this process, Kozhikode, Ernakulam, and Trivandrum were identified as the cities representing the regions inside the state and Delhi representing the regions outside the state. In the next stage, care was taken to ensure the proportionate representation of the type of media – Print, Radio, Television, and Online – from each region. Similarly, within each type of media, adequate representation of various possible variables including gender, age, education, and income was ensured. Sample description in detail is given in the following section.

PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Media scholars across the globe eagerly studied the personal and professional characteristics, as those assisted in creating national portraits of the journalistic folk. For Weaver, reasons behind this enquiry is important; firstly, as journalists have multiple characteristics, attitudes, and behaviors that depend on the specific setting; secondly, as journalists have similarities that cut across the boundaries of geography, culture, language, society, religion, race, ethnicity; and thirdly, as journalists are generally more demographically representative of their own societies (Weaver, 2005).

Figure 4.1: Personal and Professional Characteristics of the Journalists (Conceptual Model)



Personal characteristics contained in the study were gender, age, education, marital status, economic status, and political and religious affiliation. Professional characteristics were working region, type of media, experience, professional education, the field of work, employer pattern, monthly income, beat specialization, inspiration, competency, organizational ID, promotion, inequality experience, professional organization membership and institutional change.

Personal Characteristics

Data regarding the personal characteristics of journalists across nations showed their influence on the way journalists engage with news stories (Weaver & Willnat, 2012). Determinants of professional freedom and satisfaction found to vary according to the personal characteristics of journalists (Thomas & Nellyullathil, 2013). Personal characteristics like gender, age, education, marital status, economic status, and political and religious affiliation get more attention as these roles are getting redefined as they can improve balanced coverage of ethnic, gender, class, caste, political and religious minorities.

Gender

Gender has the power to decide the perspectives of news stories and male professionals dominate the field of journalism across the world (Martin-Kratzer & Gao, 2011; Weaver & Willnat, 2012). Gender distribution of journalists in different media in Kerala may reveal the response of the state to this global trend. Gender, in the present study, includes LGBT in addition to the traditional classification of male and female.

Table 4.1: Gender Distribution of the Journalists by Media

Media	Gender			Total
	Male	Female	LGBT	
Radio	18 (78.3%)	4 (17.4%)	1 (4.3%)	23 (100%)
Television	108 (78.3%)	29 (21%)	1 (0.7%)	138 (100%)
Newspaper	289 (85.8%)	42 (12.5%)	6 (1.8%)	337 (100%)
Online	34 (79.1%)	9 (20.9%)	0	43 (100%)
Total	449 (83%)	84 (15.5%)	8 (1.5%)	541 (100%)

Pearson chi-square = 9.053^a, p-value = .171

The sample includes 83 percent of male journalists and 15.5 percent of female journalists. What is notable is that 1.5 percent of the sample reported that they belong to LGBT, the gender minorities. In terms of gender equity, Television housed proportionally most female journalists (21%) followed by Online (20.9%) and Radio (17.4%). LGBT journalists got commendable representation in Radio (4.3%), Print (1.8%) and Television (0.7%) but not in Online. Proportionate representation of women and LGBT in all media will definitely contribute to journalistic objectivity and gender equality. Clearly, media in Kerala is dominated by male journalists (83%), underrepresented by women journalists (15.5%) and represented unexpectedly by LGBT (1.5%). But the difference in the gender-wise distribution of journalists across media is not statistically significant (p-value = .171).

Age

Journalists around the world likely to be younger and the news stories might be laden with age-specific attitudes. Young people joined the media to gain adequate experience to look for more lucrative jobs (Weaver & Willnat, 2012). And so the dominant age group among Kerala journalists may influence the way news is

processed and published. Journalists were categorized under four age-groups - below 30, 30-39, 40-49 and 50 & above – for the convenience of the study.

Table 4.2: Age of the Journalists by Media

Media	Age				Total
	Below 30	30-39	40-49	50 & Above	
Radio	3 (13.0%)	8 (34.8%)	8 (34.8%)	4 (17.4%)	23 (100%)
Television	69 (50%)	57 (41.3%)	10 (7.2%)	2 (1.4%)	138 (100%)
Newspaper	111 (32.9%)	126 (37.4%)	69 (20.5%)	31 (9.2%)	337 (100%)
Online	18 (41.9%)	19 (44.2%)	4 (9.3%)	2 (4.7%)	43 (100%)
Total	201 (37.2%)	210 (38.8%)	91 (16.8%)	39 (7.2%)	541 (100%)

Pearson chi-square =40.362^a, p-value = .000

Most of the journalists (76%) were young and belonged either to 30-39 group (38.8%) or to below 30 group (37.2%). Nearly one-fourth of the journalists (24%) were in their middle ages and belonged to the age categories of 40-49 (16.8%) or of 50 & above (7.2%). Young journalists (below the age of 40) were mostly distributed in Television (91.3%) followed respectively by Online (86.1%) and Newspaper (70.3%). At the same time, the majority of the Radio journalists (52.2%) were in their middle ages of 40-49 (34.8%) and 50 & above (17.4%). In general, there is resemblance across types of media except in radio that young people dominate journalism in the state. And the differences of age wise distribution of journalists in different media is highly significant (p-value = .000).

Education

Education proved to be a predictor of quality of journalism and so is analyzed in various studies. Mainstream journalists across the world including Asian countries were reported to have college degree other than in journalism (Weaver & Willnat, 2012). The better the education, the better will be the quality of the story. Education wise analysis of Kerala journalists is expected to reveal whether this trend is prevalent in this part of the world.

Table 4.3: Education of the Journalists by Media

Media	Education		Total
	Up to Degree	PG & Above	
Radio	2 (8.7%)	21 (91.3%)	23 (100%)
Television	61 (44.2%)	77 (55.8%)	138 (100%)
Newspaper	111 (32.9%)	226 (67.1%)	337 (100%)
Online	14 (32.6%)	29 (67.4%)	43 (100%)
Total	188 (34.8%)	353 (65.2%)	541 (100%)

Pearson chi-square =12.903^a, p-value = .005

The majority of the journalists in Kerala (65.2%) were holding PG degree or above and the rest (34.8%) were graduates. Most proportionate media that employed journalists with a PG degree was Radio (91.3%) followed respectively by Online (67.4%), Newspaper (67.1%) and Television (55.8%). Journalists in Kerala were most likely Post Graduates (65.2%) and were less likely Graduates (34.8%) as most journalists across the globe. And the differences in education wise dissemination of journalists across media is very significant (p-value = .005).

Marital Status

Marital status of professionals is interlinked with their workplace characteristics. Also, family responsibilities may constrain the performance of married journalists than that of the unmarried. Handling journalistic profession along with family found difficult especially for women journalists at times (Martin-Kratzer & Gao, 2011).

Table 4.4: Marital Status of the Journalists by Media

Gender	Marital Status			Total
	Unmarried	Married	Divorced/Separated	
Radio	2 (8.7%)	20 (87%)	1 (4.3%)	23 (100%)
Television	54 (39.1%)	82 (59.4%)	2 (1.4%)	138 (100%)
Newspaper	90 (26.7%)	245 (72.7%)	2 (0.6%)	337 (100%)
Online	11 (25.6%)	32 (74.4%)	0	43 (100%)
Total	157 (29%)	379 (70.1%)	5 (0.9%)	541 (100%)

Pearson chi-square =16.676^a, p-value = .011

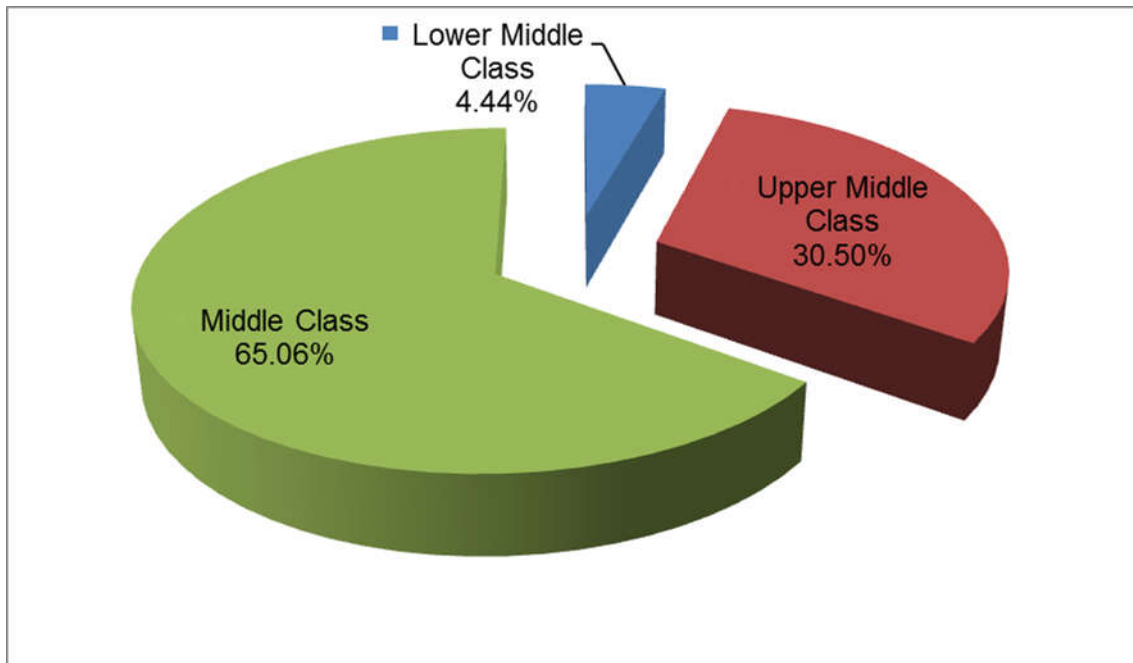
The majority of journalists in Kerala (70.1%) were married while more than one-fourth of them (29%) were unmarried and a few were divorced or separated (0.9%). Radio journalists were more likely to be married (87%) than that of their online (74.4%) and newspaper counterparts (72.7%). Interestingly, most unmarried journalists were employed in Television (39.1%) followed by the newspaper (26.7%) and online journalists (25.6%). None of the online journalists was divorced/separated though such

cases were reported in traditional media. In general, Kerala journalists (70.1%) were more likely to be married and less likely to be unmarried (29%). Anyhow, gender-wise distribution of journalists across different medium is significant. It may be attributed to the gender friendly characteristics of a medium and to the medium type wise inclination of the individual journalist basing on their gender.

Economic Status

Class interests of journalists will be well reflected in their news stories too. The economic class a journalist represents may be a deciding factor in terms of story selection, the angle of the story and so on. Journalists were asked to mark the economic status of their family under three domes; lower middle class, middle class, and upper middle class.

Figure 4.2: Economic Class wise Distribution of the Journalists



The majority of the media persons in Kerala were from middle-class families (65.1%) followed by journalists from lower-middle-class families (30.5%) whereas only a few (4.4%) belonged to upper-middle-class families. Culture and values of Kerala media persons seemed to be more or less middle class by nature.

Religious Status

Journalists' religious interests might influence their news management processes including gatekeeping, framing and priming. Evidence for this was found in the case studies about the selection of news (White, 1997). As per the data collected, journalists in Kerala belong to three major religions – Hinduism, Islam, and Christianity.

Table 4.5: Religious Affiliation of the Journalists

Religious status			Frequency	Percent
Religious Affiliation	Hindu	263 (48.6%)	458	84.7
	Muslim	96 (17.7%)		
	Christian	83 (15.3%)		
	Other	16 (3%)		
No Religious Affiliation			83	15.3
Total			541	100

While 48.6 percent of journalists reported being Hindus, 17.7 percent represented Islam and 15.3 percent Christianity, somewhat proportionate representation of the religious population in the state. Overall, the vast majority of the journalists (84.7%) affiliated with any of the religion in the state and the rest (15.3%) had no religious affiliation. Thus journalist in Kerala is religiously affiliated and was most probably a Hindu, Muslim or Christian.

Political Status

Political orientation may prevent journalists from being a watchdog of democracy. Politically unbalanced stories found space commonly in countries with less political freedom. On the other hand, political interests of journalists may have an influence on the news stories, especially political stories. But being a part of the democratic nation, journalists from Kerala ought to have balanced political views for the smooth functioning of the political system in the country.

Table 4.6: Political Affiliation of the Journalists

Political status			Frequency	Percent
Political Affiliation	UDF	185 (34.2%)	397	73.6
	LDF	65 (12%)		
	NDA	25 (4.6%)		
	Other	122 (22.6%)		
No Political Affiliation			144	26.6
Total				

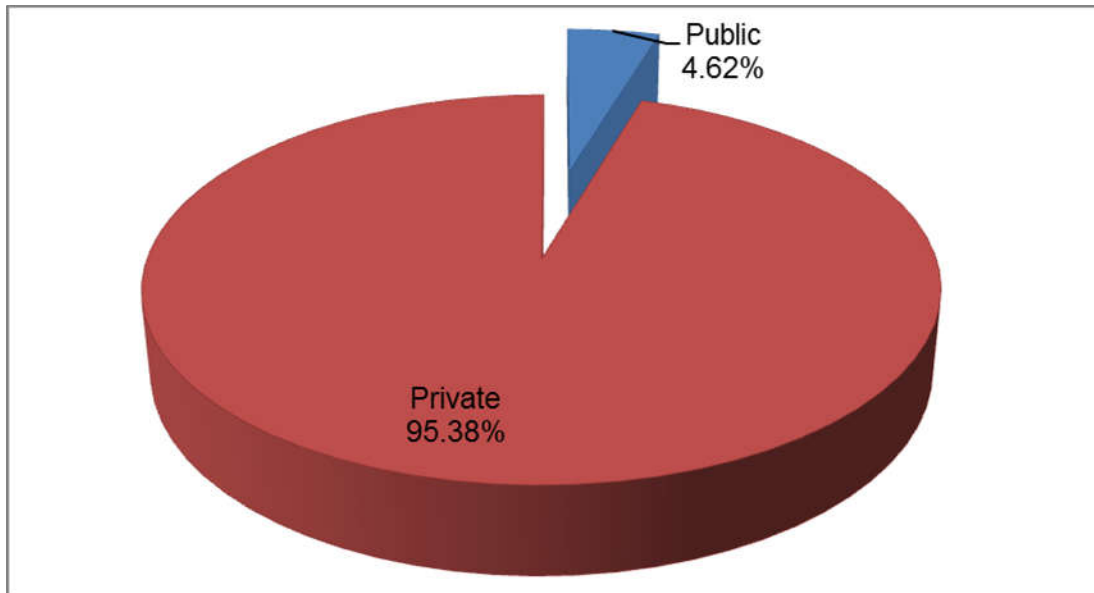
Politically affiliated journalists (73.4%) constitute the majority of the sample and a one-fourth of the journalists (26.6%) affirmed that they had no political affiliation. In terms of political fronts, most journalists were affiliated with UDF (34.2%) followed by other (22.6%), LDF (12%) and NDA (4.6%). Overall, journalists in Kerala were more likely to be politically affiliated (73.4%) with a remarkable affinity towards UDF (34.2%) while more than one-fourth of the journalists were independent (26.6%).

Professional Characteristics

Professional characteristics like ownership pattern, working region, type of medium, salary range, professional education, media experience and level of competency have remained as the central variables of journalistic studies as they are indicators of professionalization. Essentially, they are likely to have a far-reaching effect on news content especially on what is selected and how it is reported (Shoemaker & Reese, 1991). The present study sought professional characteristics including working region, type of media, media experience, professional education, the field of work, monthly income, beat specialization, the inspiration for work, competency, willingness to disclose the organizational identity, promotion, the experience of inequality, professional organization membership and institutional change. Professional character of a journalist in Kerala will definitely reflect how far media in the state is professionalized by the time of the study.

Employer Pattern

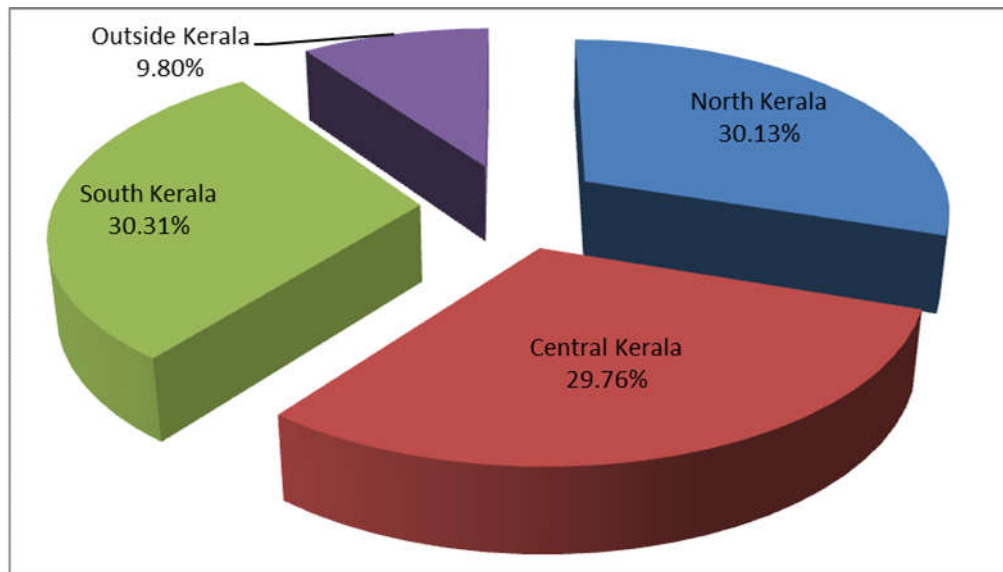
Most of the news media in Kerala as well as in India are under the ownership of private companies or trusts. On the other hand, news broadcast via Radio is monopolized by All India Radio (AIR), the government-owned Radio. And Doordarshan (DD), the government-owned TV, employed a small fraction of journalists in comparison with other news broadcasting news channels. Taken this into account, most of the samples were collected from private owned news media and most of the samples from the public sector were gathered from the AIR and the DD.

Figure 4.3: Employer Pattern wise Distribution of the Journalists

The sample (N=541) collected from Kerala giving proportionate representation to the journalists from public and private owned news media. In this way, most of the media persons in Kerala were from privately owned media (95.38%) and a small number of journalists from public owned media (4.62%). Unsurprisingly, news media in Kerala is in the hands of private owners.

Region

Media in Kerala, including print and broadcast, is concentrated mainly in three major cities in the state namely Thiruvananthapuram, the state capital, Ernakulam, the economic capital, and Kozhikode, the central city in Malabar. They also represent southern, central and northern regions of the state respectively. Historically and culturally, the traditions of these three regions are distinct while southern Kerala was under the Travancore Kingdom, the central part was dominated by Cochin Dynasty and Northern Kerala was a part of Madras Presidency under the British. Consequently, they still represent different socio-political and dialectic traditions that may have an influence on the journalistic practices. In addition to this, Kerala journalists have a visible presence outside Kerala, where workplace situation is totally different. Given this, the sample was collected from all the four regions.

Figure 4.4: Region-wise Distribution of the Journalists

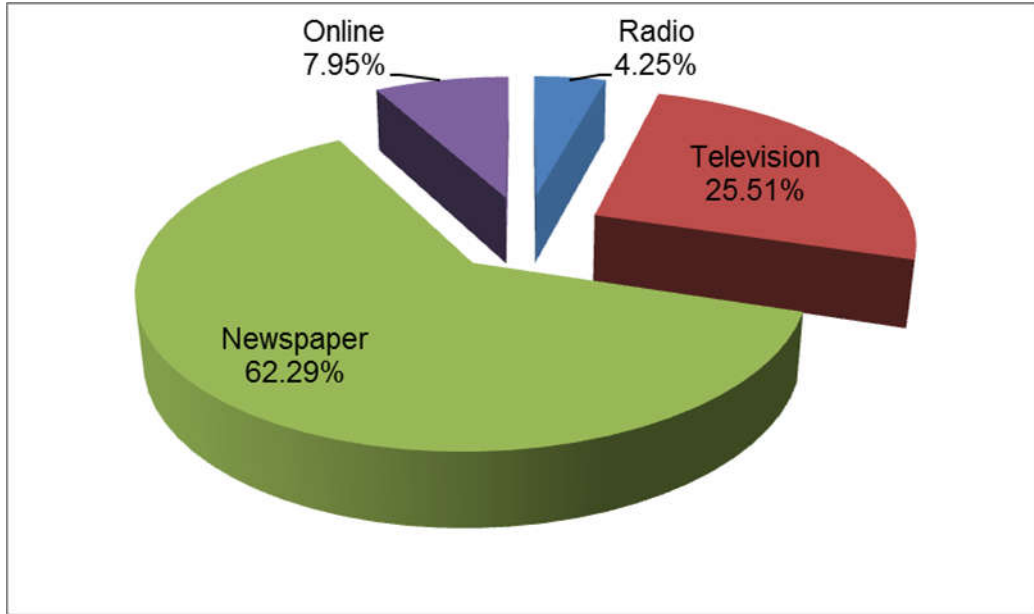
The sample (N=541) collected from three regions in Kerala with almost equal representation – (North = 163, Central = 161, South = 164). In addition to this, considering the presence of Kerala journalists in Indian metros outside the state, data were collected from 53 journalists. Consequently, journalists from South (30.31%), Central (29.76%) and North (30.13%) regions of Kerala along with a fair number of journalists from outside Kerala (9.8%) were included in the study. From each region, the majority of samples were taken from regional journalistic centers/districts; Kozhikode (41.72%) from North, Ernakulam (52.8%) from Central, and Thiruvananthapuram (50.6%) from South whereas most of the samples from outside Kerala was collected from Delhi (84.9%), the national capital.

Type of Media

Print journalists dominated the media world throughout the history of journalism. But with the advent of online journalism, the trend faced threat and many of the print media houses shrunk their journalistic force to focus their online edition. As a result, the number of print media journalists tends to shrink especially in the developed nations. At the same time, print journalists' dominance in the media field tends to continue in the developing nations like India (Ram, 2011). The present study is conducted among

news persons working with Radio, Television, Daily Newspaper and Online news websites and portals.

Figure 4.5: Media-wise Distribution of the Journalists



In proportionate with journalists' population in media, Print journalists (62.29%) constituted the majority of the sample followed respectively by Television (25.51%), Online (7.95%) and Radio (4.25%).

Region, Media and Sample Distribution

Multistage stratified randomization of data firstly concerned with four regions in and outside the state and then four different media. Researcher managed to collect a somewhat proportionate number of journalists from each media within a region.

Table 4.7: Region-wise Distribution of Journalists by Media

Media	Region				Total
	South	Central	North	Outside Kerala	
Radio	11 (47.8%)	5 (21.7%)	4 (17.4%)	3 (13%)	23 (100%)
Television	47 (34.1%)	36 (26.1%)	29 (21%)	26 (18.8%)	138 (100%)
Newspaper	92 (27.3%)	105 (31.2%)	118 (35%)	22 (6.5%)	337 (100%)
Online	14 (32.6%)	15 (34.9%)	12 (27.9%)	2 (4.7%)	43 (100%)
Total	164 (30.3%)	161 (29.8%)	163 (30.1%)	53 (9.8%)	541 (100%)

Pearson chi-square = 3.160^a, p-value = .000

Though most journalists in Radio (47.8%), Television (34.1%) and Online (32.6%) were from South and Print journalists (35%) from North, medium wise distribution of journalists within the region is more or less in proportion with their population. These varied in accordance with the region-wise concentration of media in Kerala and the difference is significant (p-value = .000).

Income

Income might have strong relation with quality of media content. Researchers found that unethical journalism in one way or other related to poor pay. Journalists with poor pay and high workload and family responsibilities tended to compromise over the objectivity of news. It also adversely affected journalist's commitment and urged them to migrate from one institution to another (Irerri, 2015). Journalists under study were grouped into five - Up to Rs.10000, Rs.10001-20000, Rs.20001-30000, Rs.30001-40000 and Above Rs. 50000 - on the basis of their monthly income.

Surprisingly, a significant portion of the journalists (15%) was not even paid the monthly salary of more than Rs. 10,000. Though one-seventh of the journalists (14.6%) was moderately paid an amount of Rs. 30001-50000, they are just at the payment level of a Lower Division Clerk in the state. To be specific, most of the journalists in Television (84%), Online (83.7%) and Newspaper (78.3%) were poorly paid whereas in Radio more than half of the journalists were either moderately or well paid (52.2%). In general, the vast majority of the journalists in Kerala (78.9%) were poorly paid, one-seventh of journalists was (14.6%) moderately paid and just a few journalists (6.5%) were well paid.

Table 4.8: Salary Range of the Journalists by Media

Media	Salary Range					Total
	Upto Rs.10000	Rs.10001 -20000	Rs.20001- 30000	Rs. 30001- 50000	Above Rs.50000	
Radio	1 (4.3%)	7 (30.4%)	3 (13%)	4 (17.4%)	8 (34.8%)	23 (100%)
Television	25 (18.1%)	54 (39.1%)	37 (26.8%)	18 (13%)	4 (2.9%)	138 (100%)
Newspaper	47 (13.9%)	130 (38.6%)	87 (25.8%)	52 (15.4%)	21 (6.2%)	337 (100%)
Online	8 (18.6%)	16 (37.2%)	12 (27.9%)	5 (11.6%)	2 (4.7%)	43 (100%)
Total	81 (15%)	207 (38.3%)	139 (25.7%)	79 (14.6%)	35 (6.5%)	541 (100%)

Pearson chi-square =37.500^a, p-value = .000

Again, journalists in Radio (52.2%) received better payment of Rs. 30001 and above followed by journalists in the newspaper (21.6%), online (16.3%) and Television (15.9%). Salary range wise difference of journalists across media found to be highly significant (p-value = .000).

Experience

The more one works for an organization the more he/she will adapt to the ideology and policy of the same and will normally prefer not to change the institution. Since the generations of journalists face varying challenges from one another, their priorities may change by time and that will ultimately result in job attitudes they preserve (White, 1997).

Table 4.9: Experience of the Journalists

Media	Professional Experience					Total
	Up to 5 Years	6-10 Years	11-15 Years	16-20 Years	Above 20 years	
Radio	3 (13%)	4 (17.4%)	4 (17.4%)	2 (8.7%)	10 (43.5%)	23 (100%)
Television	70 (50.7%)	41 (29.7%)	15 (10.9%)	9 (6.5%)	3 (2.2%)	138 (100%)
Newspaper	109 (32.3%)	81 (24%)	65 (19.3%)	41 (12.2%)	41 (12.2%)	337 (100%)
Online	19 (44.2%)	11 (25.6%)	7 (16.3%)	2 (4.7%)	4 (9.3%)	43 (100%)
Total	201 (37.2%)	137(25.3%)	91 (16.8%)	54 (10%)	58 (10.7%)	541 (100%)

Pearson chi-square =56.778^a, p-value = .000

More than one-third of journalists (37.2%) were having up to five years of experience and one fourth were with 6-10 years of experience (25.3%). Merely, one-tenth of the journalists was on the field for more than two decades (10.7%). Again, one-tenth of the journalists (10%) was experienced 16-20 years whereas a simple minority of journalists (16.8%) was moderately experienced (11-15 years). When comes to media, most of the radio journalists (79.6%) held more than 10 years of experience whereas most of the Television journalists (81.8%) followed by the majority of journalists in Online (72.1%) had up to 10 years of experience. The newspaper had a comparatively balanced proportion of journalists in terms of experience through the experience categories. Majority of journalists in Kerala (63%), in general, and Television (81.8%), Online (72.1%) and Print (56.3%) journalists in particular were having less than a decade of experience when the majority of the radio journalists (69.6%) had more than 10 years of experience. Professional experience of journalists significantly varied across media (p-value = .000).

Field of Work

Field of work of a journalist may have an influence on his/her professional variables like job satisfaction, freedom etc. For this study, journalists' fields of work were identified as reporting, editing, news management and photo/videography.

Table 4.10: Field of Work of the Journalists

Field of Work	Frequency	Percent
Reporting	308	56.9
Editing	145	26.8
News Management	29	5.4
Photo/Videography	59	10.9
Total	541	100

The majority of the samples (56.9%) were from the reporting field. One-fourth of the journalists were from editing (26.8%) and photo/videography journalists constituted the third majority (10.9%) and the least number of media persons were from news management field (5.4%). Reporting continues to be the glamorous and most desired field in the profession as far as its social status and recognition are concerned.

Professional Education

The more the journalists are professionally educated the more will be the spread of professionalization in the journalism field. Not majority of journalists across nations reported having a professional education so far despite two or three nations like Chile and Brazil. Majoring in journalism gradually becomes vital to enter the profession in Kerala as the study indicated which was different from other parts of Asian continent as previous studies reported (Weaver & Willnat, 2012).

Table 4.11: Professional Education of the Journalists

Media	Professional Education				Total
	No Media Education	Certificate/ Diploma Course	Degree	PG & Above	
Radio	2 (8.7%)	10 (43.5%)	5 (21.7%)	6 (26.1%)	23 (100%)
Television	32 (23.2%)	60 (43.5%)	13 (9.4%)	33 (23.9%)	138 (100%)
Newspaper	63 (18.7%)	166 (49.3%)	14 (4.2%)	94 (27.9%)	337 (100%)
Online	5 (11.6%)	27 (62.8%)	2 (4.7%)	9 (20.7%)	43 (100%)
Total	102 (18.6%)	263 (48.6%)	34 (6.3%)	142 (26.2%)	541 (100%)

Pearson chi-square =21.123^a, p-value = .012

The majority of journalists hold a diploma/certificate course (48.6%) followed by those who completed professional PG (26.2%) or degree (6.3%). And a remarkable portion of the journalists was not professionally educated (18.9%). Overall, the vast majority of journalists (81.1%) were professionally educated and others were not (18.9%). When comes to media, Television (23.2%) followed by the newspaper (18.7%) tended to accommodate more journalists with no professional education whereas more or less than nine-tenths of journalists in Radio (91.3%) and online (88.4%) were having a professional education. Of professionally educated journalists, majority in all media (radio=43.5%; television=43.5%; newspaper=49.3%; online=62.8%) tended to have certificate/diploma in journalism. About half of journalists in Radio (47.8%) and nearly one-third of journalists in Television (33.3%) and newspaper (32.1%) and more than one-fourth of online journalists (25.4) secured at least a degree or PG in journalism. The difference in the dissemination of journalists

with or without media education across media yielded statistical significance (p-value = .012). Professional training in journalism is a prerequisite for being hired as a journalist as far as media in Kerala is concerned.

Additional Characteristics

Data on journalists in Kerala also elicited some additional characteristics though those were not taken for further analysis. But these may help us to draw a picture about the characteristics of journalists in this part of the world. Although not identified as key variables for further analysis, following section explores some additional characteristics of journalists including organizational ID, professional organization membership, perceived competency, perceived equity, inspiration, beat specialization, institutional change and promotion.

Professional Organization

Professional organizations are the sources of the power of negotiation of employees in the field. The researcher identified four professional unions of working journalists in Kerala. This may be due to the constraints to become a member or lack of interest/trust in such associations.

Table 4.12: Professional Organizational Membership and the Journalists

Media	Member/Organization				No Membership	Total
	KUWJ	KJU	KNEF	DUJ		
Radio	8 (34.8%)	1 (4.3%)	1 (4.3%)	0	13 (56.5%)	23 (100%)
Television	41 (29.7%)	2 (1.4%)	3 (2.2%)	3 (2.2%)	89 (64.5%)	138 (100%)
Newspaper	175 (51.9%)	11 (3.3%)	7 (2.1%)	0	144 (42.7%)	337 (100%)
Online	13 (30.2%)	1 (2.3%)	0	0	29 (67.4%)	43 (100%)
Total	237 (43.8%)	15 (2.8%)	11 (2%)	3 (0.6%)	275 (50.8%)	541 (100%)

Pearson chi-square = 37.129^a, p-value = .000

Surprisingly, a simple majority of the journalists (50.8%) were not members of any organization of working journalists. Most of the journalists who are part of an employee organization belonged to Kerala Union of Working Journalists (43.8%).

Others belonged respectively to Kerala Journalists Union (2.8%), Kerala News Employees Forum (2%), and DUJ (.6%). Journalists in newspapers (57.3%) were more likely to be unionized while their counterparts in online (67.4%), television (64.5%) and radio (56.5%) were less likely to be unionized. And unionization tendency of journalists differed significantly across media (p -value = .000).

Inspiration

Inspiration to become a journalist may act as a decisive factor of satisfaction. Journalists inspired by passion were seemed to be more satisfied than that of journalists who were not. Passion-led journalists also reported more commitment towards the profession than others (Thomas & Nelliullathil, 2010).

Table 4.13: Inspiration of the Journalists by Media

Media	Inspiration			Total
	Passion	Coincidence	Other	
Radio	17 (73.9%)	3 (13%)	3 (13%)	23 (100%)
Television	65 (47.1%)	34 (24.6%)	39 (28.3%)	138 (100%)
Newspaper	136 (40.4%)	108 (32%)	93 (27.6%)	337 (100%)
Online	24 (55.8%)	13 (30.2%)	6 (14%)	43 (100%)
Total	242 (44.7%)	158 (29.2%)	141 (26.1%)	541 (100%)

Pearson chi-square =15.640^a, p-value = .016

The majority of the journalists in Kerala was inspired by passion (44.7%) followed by those inspired by coincidence (29.2%). And the others (26.1%) were likely to be inspired by social status, eminent journalists, and teachers. Interestingly, the largest proportion of passion-led journalists was found in Radio (73.9%), followed by Online (55.8%), Television (47.1%) and Newspaper (40.4%). At the same time, remarkable portions of Newspaper (32%), Online (30.2%) and Television (24.6%) journalists were in the profession by coincidence. And the differences in relation to a source of inspiration and type of media journalists work for were significant (p -value = .016). In general, journalists in Kerala are more likely to be passion-led professionals and less likely to be media professionals by chance.

Beat Specialization

Researcher's interest was put on specialized journalists as they were allowed to follow the work they loved the most. They were impressed by the finding that journalists with

special beat tended to have more satisfaction than their unspecialized counterparts. The role of beat specialization of journalists in Kerala may have the same effect as it had on journalists across the world. A total number of journalists specialized in a particular beat may show the importance of that beat in this part of the country.

Table 4.14: Beat Specialization and the Journalists by Media

Media	Special Beat		Total
	Special Beat	General	
Radio	7 (30.4%)	16 (69.6%)	23 (100%)
Television	39 (28.3%)	99 (71.7%)	138 (100%)
Newspaper	100 (29.7%)	237 (70.3%)	337 (100%)
Online	12 (27.9%)	31 (72.1%)	43 (100%)
Total	158 (29.2%)	383 (70.8%)	541 (100%)

Pearson chi-square = .147^a, p-value = .986

More than one-fourth of the journalists were given special beat (29.2%) and others (70.8%) covered news in general. Journalists across media reported not much difference in terms of specialization as more or less than 30 percent of them in every media (radio = 30.4%; television = 28.3%; newspaper = 29.7%; online = 27.9%) were having specialization in one or in another beat. Expectedly, the difference was not statistically significant (p-value = .986).

Further analysis of the data shows that most journalists specialized in politics (N=66) followed by arts (N=35), region (N=34), sports (N=32), court & crime (N=14), science (N=12), and religion (N=7). Some of them covered two or three special beats as they were asked for. A number of journalists assigned to special beat indicated that the media in Kerala is more concentrated on politics, arts, sports, region, crimes & court, science and religion.

Perceived Competency

Person's belief in one's own competence is very much related to performance. The more the perceived competency the more will be professionals' self-confidence in fulfilling one's duties and responsibilities (Bandura, 1997). In this respect, perceived competency of Kerala journalists may indirectly point at their confidence level as well as one's content in his/her performance. Perceived competency of journalists was recorded as slightly competent, moderately competent and highly competent.

Table 4.15: Perceived Competency of the Journalists

Media	Level of Competency			Total
	Slightly Competent	Moderately Competent	Highly Competent	
Radio	0	14 (60.9%)	9 (39.1%)	23 (100%)
Television	7 (5.1%)	94 (68.1%)	37 (26.8%)	138 (100%)
Newspaper	14 (4.2%)	235 (69.7%)	88 (26.1%)	337 (100%)
Online	0	24 (55.8%)	19 (44.2%)	43 (100%)
Total	21 (3.9%)	367 (67.8%)	153 (28.3%)	541 (100%)

Pearson chi-square =9.861^a, p-value = .131

The majority of journalists perceived themselves as moderately competent (67.8) while more than one fourth reported that they were highly competent (28.3%) and just a few journalists (3.9%) as slightly competent. Surprisingly, none of the online and radio journalists belonged to the slightly competent group. Moreover, online journalists (44.2%) and then radio journalists (30.1%) were more likely to be highly competent. Among moderately competent journalists, Newspaper (69.7%) and Television (68.1%) journalists topped the list. But the differences were not statistically significant (p-value = .131). Perceived competency of journalists in Kerala was generally moderate (67.8%) whereas more than one-fourth of them (28.3%) were highly competent.

Experience of Inequality at Workplace

A just and balanced workplace is a prerequisite for professional freedom and satisfaction. Studies found that journalists who faced inequality may show lower satisfaction and autonomy in their profession (Rivas-Rodriguez, Subervi-Vélez, Bramlett-Solomon, & Heider, 2004). Data were elicited on the various types of inequality journalists encountered in their profession based on gender, politics, region, religion, education, economic status, caste and so on. The data demonstrates the status of the journalistic workplace in Kerala in this regard.

The majority of the journalists (54.2%) experienced some kind of inequality based on gender, politics, region, religion, education, economic status and caste in the field. Gender discrimination was the most identified inequality (20.4%) among journalists (N=293).

Table 4.16: Inequality Experience of the Journalists

Inequality		Frequency	Percent
Experienced Inequality	Inequality Type	Percent (N=293)	
	Gender	20.4	293
	Politics	18.6	
	Regionalism	14.8	
	Religion	12.6	
	Education	10.7	
	Economic	10.4	
	Caste	9.4	
	Other	3.1	
No Inequality Experience		248	
Total		541	100

In addition, the journalists (N=293) also faced inequalities on the ground of politics (18.6%), region (14.8%), religion (12.6%), education (10.7%), economic status (10.4%), and caste (9.4%) reasons. In contradiction to this, 45.8 percent of the total sample (N=541) rejected inequality of any kind in the field. In total, more than half of journalists in Kerala (54.2%) faced inequality of some kind and less than half of them (45.8%) had no inequality experience throughout their career.

Willingness to Disclose Organizational Identity

Masking, at times, may provide journalists more confidence to uncover the reality as it is. So the journalists were given the choice to reveal or not to reveal their organization identity. However, it was academically interesting to know whether the journalists under study were free to respond to the status of their professional freedom and satisfaction keeping their organizational identity disclosed since it as such indicates the level of freedom the journalists enjoy internally or how flexible their organizational ambience is.

Table 4.17: Willingness to Disclose Organizational Identity

Media	Type of Disclosure		Total
	Disclosed	Not Disclosed	
Radio	16 (69.6%)	7 (30.4%)	23 (100%)
Television	64 (46.4%)	74 (53.6%)	138 (100%)
Newspaper	137 (40.7%)	200 (59.3%)	337 (100%)
Online	26 (60.5%)	17 (39.5%)	43 (100%)
Total	243 (44.9%)	298 (55.1%)	541 (100%)

Pearson chi-square =12.445^a, p-value = .006

The majority of journalists (55.1%) were reluctant to reveal their organizational identity when others (44.9%) revealed it. This might be due to the concern over job security and the personal and organizational questions that included in the questionnaire. Further, Majority of Radio (69.6%) and Online (60.5%) journalists revealed their organizational identity while the majority of journalists in Newspaper (59.3%) and Television (53.6%) refused to reveal the identity.

Institutional Change vs. Cross Media Experience

Newspersons tend to change their organization seeking better pay, status, promotion and may be of familial responsibilities (Smucker, Whisenant, & Pedersen, 2003). Change of institution by journalists in Kerala may reveal the pressure and insecurity they met in the past.

Table 4.18: Institutional Change vs. Cross Media Experience

Institutional Change	Cross Media Experience		Total
	Yes	No	
Changed Institution	110 (55.3%)	89 (44.7%)	199 (100%)
No Institutional Change	4 (1.2%)	338 (98.8%)	342 (100%)
Total	114 (21.1%)	427 (78.9%)	541 (100%)

Little more than one-third of the journalists (36.8%) changed their institution on the grounds of better job expectations while the majority (63.2%) continued to work at the organization where they started their career. More than one-fifth of journalists (21.1%) in Kerala changed their institution at least once. Most of those journalists who changed the institution (96.5%) had migrated from one type of media to another.

Promotion

Upward mobility in the profession is one of the most desirable factors of satisfaction in a profession. Journalism is not an exception to this. Promotional opportunities may tempt people to change their organization (Smucker et al., 2003). Hence, the researcher found it is relevant to enquire the promotional status of journalists in Kerala as it may predict their satisfaction with the same.

Table 4.19: Job Promotion and the Journalists by Media

Media	Promotion		Total
	Promoted	Not Promoted	
Radio	16 (69.6%)	7 (30.4%)	23 (100%)
Television	70 (50.7%)	68 (49.3%)	138 (100%)
Newspaper	198 (58.8%)	139 (41.2%)	337 (100%)
Online	17 (39.5%)	26 (60.5%)	43 (100%)
Total	301 (55.6%)	240 (44.4%)	541 (100%)

Pearson chi-square =9.000^a, p-value = .029

The majority of the journalists (55.6%) in the field stated that they were promoted at least once in their career while others (44.4%) were not. Most proportionate promotional opportunities were enjoyed by journalists in Radio (69.6%), followed by Newspaper (58.8%), Television (50.7%) and Online (39.5%). The difference across media in terms of promotion was significant (p-value = .029). Lack of an adequate number of experienced journalists especially in minor media organizations might have contributed to this disparity in promotion across media.

The analysis of personal and professional characteristics of sampled journalists helped the researcher to construct a portrait of typical Kerala journalist. In general, journalists (N=541) participated in the study were mostly male (83%), the vast majority were less than 40 years of age (76%), the large majority were married (70.1%), the majority were Post Graduates (65.2%), belonged to middle class families (65.1%), and they were more likely to have political (73.4%) as well as religious (84.8%) affiliation. Professionally speaking, the majority of the sample (N=541) belonged to print media (62.3%), with below 10 years of experience (53%) hailing from reporting field (56.9%), professionally educated (81.1%) having no membership in working journalists' unions (50.8%) and are inspired by passion (44.7%) with a moderate level of perceived competency (67.8%). Strikingly, they experienced inequality (54.2%) of some kind in the profession. Further, the journalists in the study hesitated to reveal their organizational identity (55.1%), never changed their institution (63.2%) and received a promotion at least once in their career (55.6%).

PROFESSIONAL FREEDOM (PF)

Professional freedom (PF) of journalists refers to the autonomy they enjoy in their professional jurisdiction without being limited by internal or external influences like an individual or collective interference, personal or social domination, and organizational or political regulations. In this era of globalization media organizations function under public and private ownerships most often as a profit-oriented business putting professional freedom more at risk than ever before. Shoemaker and Reese (1996) observed that pressures on media content are mainly from a media organization, individual journalists, and media routines and from outside pressure/interest groups.

As the watchdog of the legislature, executive, and judiciary, media adore the status of the Fourth Estate and journalists play a big role in creating an informed citizenry to make the regimes positively responsive to the public will. Hence, professional freedom of journalists is often taken as the core idea of democracies, though not fully realized. For this failure, India, the largest democracy in the world, is the best example with her 136th rank in Press Freedom Index (Reporters Without Borders, 2017). Reporters Without Borders puts journalistic freedom in India in a danger zone marking in red colour in its Press Freedom Map (Reporters Without Borders, 2017).

Freedom House (2017) attributed the deterioration of legal, political, and economic environments of press freedom in India to the exercise of politicized interference in editorial content and staffing decisions. Further, they observed, “while India’s vibrant media remains the freest in South Asia, journalists in the country continue to face an array of obstacles” (Freedom House, 2017). It is not the case of India alone, the situation is similar elsewhere. Given this alarming situation, researchers caution that “we have reached the age of post-truth, propaganda, and suppression of freedoms – especially in democracies” (Reporters Without Borders, 2017). Democracy without press freedom/professional freedom of journalists is self-destructive.

The present chapter seeks to map the professional freedom of journalists in Kerala, a state in India, well known for its high development indices, 100 percent

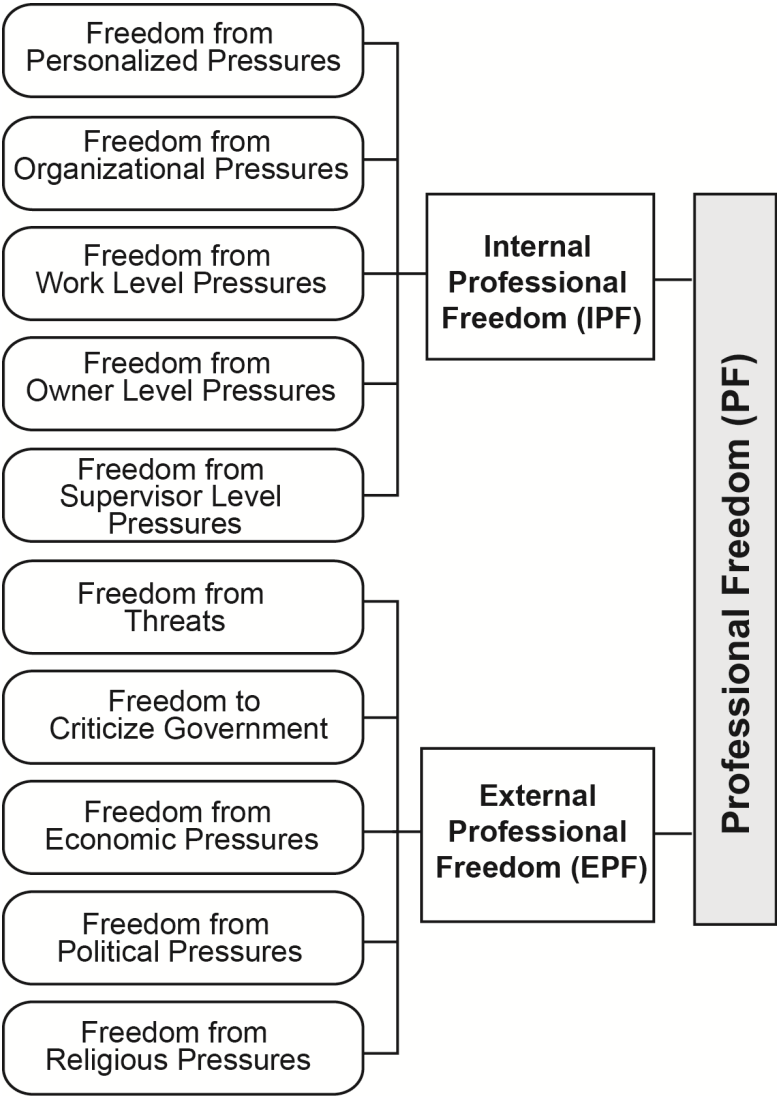
literacy and increased rate of media penetration. Such an analysis, taking Kerala as a case, invariably will explore how far the media in the country is free and objective despite the socio-political and economic interests of owners/organizations as well as the consumers of media and how far the journalists are free from hierarchical interventions and personal interests on media content.

One of the objectives of this study was to analyze the degree of professional freedom (PF) perceived by the media persons in Kerala. In the study, PF of journalists is a multidimensional construct based on certain internal and external factors. A comprehensive tool was developed to collect data taking cues from Press Freedom Index by Reporters Without Borders (2015) and Noam Chomsky's five filters of media theorized in the propaganda model. As observed by Reich and Hanitzsch (2013) PF is subjective and is not directly accessible, and so "cannot be investigated with regard to its objective nature and quality, only with respect to the way it is perceived by journalists" (p. 136). The study also investigated the role of personal and professional characteristics in defining PF of journalists in Kerala.

Conceptual Model of Professional Freedom of Journalists

As an important construct of the study Professional Freedom (PF) is conceived to have two components: internal professional freedom (IPF) and external professional freedom (EPF) with their respective contributing factors. Factors of IPF under investigation were freedom from personalized pressures, freedom from organizational pressures, freedom from work level pressures, freedom from owner level pressures, and freedom from supervisor level pressures. EPF has measured on the factors of freedom from threats, freedom to criticize the government, freedom from economic pressures, freedom from political pressures and freedom from religious pressures. Based on this conceptualization, a research model was developed to guide further elaboration.

Figure 4.6: Professional Freedom (Conceptual Model)



As mentioned professional freedom (PF) was measured using the dichotomous components: internal professional freedom (IPF) and external professional freedom (EPF). As seen in the model there are five factors each under internal and external components. 40 items across five factors under each component were measured on a 5-point Likert-like scale with item-wise scores ranging from -2 (strongly disagree) to 2 (strongly agree). Thus, IPF and EPF were calculated on a scale ranging from -40 to 40 with three levels (-40 to -13.01 = low; -13 to 13 = moderate; 13.01 to 40 = high).

Obviously, professional freedom was measured on a scale ranging from -80 to 80 with three levels (-80 to -26.01 = low; -26 to 26 = moderate; 26.01 to 80 = high). The ranges of scores of the components/factors/items on the scale were equally divided into three to determine the Low, Moderate and High range of freedom scores. Reported below is the result of data analysis of the degree of Professional Freedom (PF) enjoyed by the sampled journalists in Kerala.

Professional Freedom (PF)

To determine the range of professional freedom of journalists in Kerala is part of the first objective of the study. Data in Table 4 shows that the mean score of professional freedom of journalists in Kerala is at a moderate level (M = -2.84, SD = 18.40). In confirmation with journalists across the world, Kerala journalists enjoyed a moderate level of freedom and perceived that they were partly free to take the news decisions (Weaver, Beam, Brownlee, Voakes, & Wilhoit, 2007). Kerala journalists enjoyed more external professional freedom (M = 1.87, SD = 11.35) than internal professional freedom (M = -4.70, SD = 10.92) although both fell in the moderate range of freedom scores (-13 to 13).

Table 4.20: Professional Freedom of the Journalists

Type of freedom	Mean*	Std. Error	Std. Deviation
Internal Professional Freedom	- 4.70	.46	10.92
External Professional Freedom	1.87	.48	11.35
PF in general	-2.83	.79	18.40

* Range of score in IPF and EPF is from -40 to 40 with three levels (-40 to -13.01 = low; -13 to 13 = moderate; 13.01 to 40 = high) & Range of score in PF is -80 to 80 with three levels (-80 to -26.01 = low; -26 to 26 = moderate; 26.01 to 80 = high).

In a wider perspective, the status of professional freedom of journalists in Kerala is not in a safer position for all the positive aspects of intellectual and physical indices that the state claims in the name of the well acclaimed Kerala model. And, it is also to be noted that journalists' freedom is more curtailed, as they perceive, internally than externally pointing at the organizational motives that betray the very concept of press freedom. This may be due to the direct and indirect effect on PF of journalists

from both internal and external components respectively. Immediate constraints on PF of journalists are imposed by the organization and by the immediate authorities as perceived by the journalists. On the other hand, journalists may not feel directly affected by external factors like governmental, economic, political and religious pressures. Pressure from external factors mostly affects those who are in higher positions in the editorial hierarchy unlike those in lower positions. In a larger spectrum, this finding seems to back the argument that media content is more influenced by external –social- factors than internal – organizational - factors. A detailed account of the degree of internal and external professional freedoms is given in the coming sections.

Internal Professional Freedom (IPF)

Press freedom faces threats not only from the external factors alone but also from within the journalistic culture (Lloyd, 1988). News processors, news managers, owners and the very work culture of journalists are identified as the sources of challenges of internal professional freedom. The end result is the decline or total absence of objectivity of journalistic practices. Hence, freedom can be conceptualized as a guarantor of objectivity.

Internal professional freedom guarantees freedom from personalized pressures, freedom from organizational pressures, freedom from work level pressures, freedom from owner level pressures, and freedom from supervisor level pressures and so IPF is measured on these five factors. Each factor consisted of four items marked on a 5-point Likert-like scale. Thus, the IPF was calculated on a scale ranging from -40 to 40 with three levels (-40 to -13.01 = low; -13 to 13 = moderate; 13.01 to 40 = high) consisting of five contributing factors measured on a scale ranging from -8 to 8 with three levels (-8 to -2.01 = low; -2 to 2 = moderate; 2.01 to 8 = high) spreading across 20 items computed on a scale ranging from -2 to 2 with three levels (-2 to -.70 = low; -.69 to .69 = moderate; .70 to 2 = high). The ranges of scores of the component/factor/item on the scale were equally divided into three to denote low, moderate and high levels of freedom.

Table 4.21: Contributing Factors to IPF

Contributing Items to Factors	Mean*	SD
Contributing Factor 1: Freedom from Personalized Pressures	-1.47	3.27
<i>Free from the influence of collective views</i>	-.55	.91
<i>Free from financial and material influence</i>	-.39	1.13
<i>Free from time and resource constraints</i>	-.16	1.10
<i>Free from personal bias</i>	-.37	1.06
Contributing Factor 2: Freedom from Organizational Pressures	-1.82	3.75
<i>Free from organizational / ideological leaning</i>	-.42	1.08
<i>Organization's commitment to content quality</i>	-.40	1.05
<i>Free from constraints of organizational policy</i>	-.42	1.08
<i>Free from audience's /market interests</i>	-.57	.10
Contributing Factor 3: Freedom from Work Level Pressures	-1.52	3.17
<i>Free from deadline pressure</i>	-.41	1.07
<i>Free from routine boredom</i>	-.29	1.10
<i>Free from facilities/target pressure</i>	-.56	.91
<i>Free from work schedule pressure</i>	-.25	1.12
Contributing Factor 4: Freedom from Owner Level Pressures	-.95	3.71
<i>Free to criticize the management</i>	-.15	1.08
<i>Free from owner's compromise on news values</i>	-.21	1.04
<i>Free from owner's intervention on editorial policy</i>	-.39	1.02
<i>Free from profit-oriented news coverage</i>	-.20	1.02
Contributing Factor 5: Freedom from Supervisor Level Pressures	1.05	3.49
<i>Free from new manager's personal bias</i>	.30	1.08
<i>Free from news manger's compromise on news values</i>	.35	1.04
<i>Free to select news stories</i>	.15	1.02
<i>Free to decide angle of the story</i>	.24	1.02
Internal Professional Freedom (Sum of scores of five contributing factors)	- 4.71	10.92

*Range of score in each contributing factor of IPF is -8 to 8 with three levels (-8 to -2.01 = low; -2 to 2 = moderate ; 2.01 to 8 = high) & Range of score in each item is -2 to 2 with three levels (-2 to -.70 = low; -.69 to .69 = moderate; .70 to 2 = high).

Media professionals in Kerala enjoy a moderate level ($R = -13$ to 13) of internal professional freedom ($M = -4.71$, $SD = 10.92$) as the mean scores of all the five contributing factors – freedom from personalized pressures ($M = -1.47$, $SD = 3.27$), freedom from organizational pressures ($M = -1.82$, $SD = 3.75$), freedom from work level pressures ($M = -1.52$, $SD = 3.17$), freedom from owner level pressures ($M = -.95$, $SD = 3.71$), and freedom from supervisor level pressures ($M = 1.05$, $SD = 3.49$) - are found to be in the moderate range of -2 to 2 . Of the five internal professional freedom factors, freedom from organizational pressures was the lowest contributing factor of IPF followed by freedom from work level pressures while freedom from supervisor level pressures recorded as the highest contributing factor as perceived by journalists in Kerala. In the forthcoming sessions, detailed analysis of the performance of each contributing factor is given:

Freedom from Personalized Pressures

Freedom from personalized pressures is associated with the autonomy journalists have while processing news content without being affected by financial and material influences, collective views, resource constraints and personal bias based on personal characteristics, beliefs, and attitudes. The perspective of the individual media professional may influence the content prepared and so the objectivity of the journalist is a prerequisite for news objectivity as identified by Thurman, Cornia, and Kunert (2016).

Freedom from personalized pressures was measured by a four-question set to be answered on the 5-point Likert-like scale. The statements included in the scale were: 'Free from the influence of collective news;' 'Free from financial and material influence;' 'Free from time and resource constraints;' and 'Free from personal bias.' The scale ranged from -8 to 8 . The Cronbach alpha for personalized pressures is 0.776 .

Journalists in Kerala are moderately free from personalized pressures ($M = -1.47$, $SD = 3.27$). Item wise mean scores of freedom from different constraints such as collective views' pressures ($M = -.55$, $SD = .91$) financial and material influences ($M = -.39$, $SD = 1.13$), personal bias ($M = -.37$, $SD = 1.06$), and time and resource constraints

($M = -.16$, $SD = 1.10$) adversely affected freedom from personalized pressures respectively though they fell within the moderate range of $-.70$ to $.70$.

Freedom from Organizational Pressures

Freedom from organizational pressures denotes the freedom that journalists hold while processing media content without being affected by organizational structure, policy, ideological leaning and market orientation.

A four-statement scale was developed to measure freedom from organizational pressures. The statements were: 'Free from organizational ideological leaning'; 'Organization's commitment to content quality'; 'Free from constraints of organizational policy;' and 'Free from audience's /market interests.' Hence the total score ranged from -8 to 8 . The Cronbach alpha for organizational pressure is 0.914 .

Media professionals in Kerala enjoy moderate level of freedom from organizational pressures ($M = -1.82$, $SD = 3.75$) as the influences of contributing items like audience interests ($M = -.57$, $SD = .10$), ideological leaning ($M = -.42$, $SD = 1.08$), organizational policy ($M = -.42$, $SD = 1.08$), and organization's compromise on content quality ($M = -.40$, $SD = 1.05$) were in the moderate range of $-.70$ to $.70$.

Freedom from Work Level Pressures

Freedom from work level pressures refers to the lack of stresses like a deadline, work schedule, target and the patterned sets of expectations and constraints evolved as part of a routine.

To measure freedom from work level pressures, a 4-statement scale was developed: 'Free from deadline pressure;' 'Free from routine boredom;' 'Free from facilities/target pressure;' and 'Free from work schedule pressure.' And the total score ranged from -8 to 8 . The Cronbach alpha for freedom from work level pressures is 0.745 .

Freedom from work level pressures ($M = -1.52$, $SD = 3.17$) of media professionals in Kerala is moderate resulting from the moderate levels of contribution (between $-.70$ to $.70$) from the respective items including facilities/target pressure ($M =$

-.56, SD = .91) deadline pressure (M = -.41, SD = 1.07), routine boredom (M = -.29, SD = 1.10) and work schedule pressure (M = -.25, SD = 1.12).

Freedom from Owner Level Pressures

Freedom from owner level pressures refers to the lack of owner's restrictions on media content in the form of compromises on news values, editorial guidelines, policies and profit orientation.

The scale developed to measure freedom from owner level pressures included four statements: 'Free to criticize organizational policies;' 'Free from owner's compromise on media ethics;' 'Free from owner's influence on news content;' and 'Free from the profit-orientated policies.' The scale ranged from -8 to 8. The Cronbach alpha for freedom from owner level pressures is 0.857.

Kerala journalists perceived moderate level of freedom from owner level pressures (M = -.95, SD = 3.71) as this was moderately contributed by the items including owner's influence on editorial policy (M = -.39, SD = 1.02), owner's compromise on media values (M = -.21, SD = 1.04), profit oriented news coverage (M = -.20, SD = 1.02) and freedom to criticize the management (M = -.15, SD = 1.08) within the range of -.70 to .70.

Freedom from Supervisor Level Pressures

Journalists may face pressures from various sources at supervisor level that restrict their free discharge of duty. Such pressures will force journalists to follow editorial policy and fix the angle of the story compromising on news values.

'Free from editor's personal bias;' 'Free from Chief's or editor's compromise on news values;' 'Free to follow editorial policy;' and 'Free to decide angle of the story' were the items used to measure the freedom from supervisor level pressures. Its scale ranged from -8 to 8. The Cronbach alpha for freedom from supervisor level pressures is 0.863.

Data shows that media professionals in Kerala enjoyed moderate level freedom from supervisor level pressures (M = 1.05, SD = 3.49) as the items like news manager's compromise on news values (M = .35, SD = 1.04), freedom from news

manager's personal bias ($M = .30$, $SD = 1.08$), freedom to decide angle of the story ($M = .24$, $SD = 1.02$), and freedom to select news stories ($M = .15$, $SD = 1.02$) contributed to the news manager's objectivity within the moderate range of $-.70$ to $.70$.

External Professional Freedom (EPF)

So far we discussed how challenges from various internal/organizational freedoms that determine the professional freedom of journalists and at the end their content objectivity. Journalists also face challenges from external sources that limit their freedom of work and expression. The EPF includes freedom from personalized pressures, freedom from organizational pressures, freedom from work level pressures, freedom from owner level pressures, and freedom from supervisor level pressures. The level of such external professional freedom factors on media content, for Shoemaker and Reese (1996), may vary and will automatically affect the perceived professional freedom of journalists.

A journalist enjoys external professional freedom when living in a society that guarantees him or her absence of physical threats, extra-constitutional interventions, economic and political pressures and threats from religious sources. In this study, hence, External Professional Freedom (EPF) was measured using five factors such as freedom from threats, freedom from economic pressures, freedom to criticize the government, freedom from political pressures, and freedom from religious pressures. Each factor consisted of 4 items on a 5-point Likert-like scale. Item score was gauged using a scale ranging from -2 to 2 with three levels (-2 to $-.70$ = low; $-.69$ to $.69$ = moderate; $.70$ to 2 = high), while the factor scores were measured using a scale ranging from -8 to 8 with three levels (-8 to -2.01 = low; -2 to 2 = moderate; 2.01 to 8 = high). Thus, the EPF was calculated on a scale ranging from -40 to 40 with three levels (-40 to -13.01 = low; -13 to 13 = moderate; 13.01 to 40 = high). Levels of freedom were determined by equally dividing the concerned range of score of the component/factor/item scale into three.

Table 4.22: Contributing Factors to EPF

Contributing Items to Factors	Mean *	SD
Contributing Factor 1: Freedom from Threats	-.25	3.46
<i>Free to report crimes fearlessly</i>	-.05	1.17
<i>Free from crime groups' interventions</i>	-.22	.99
<i>Free from threats of fundamentalists</i>	-.03	1.13
<i>Free to publish investigative stories on crimes</i>	.05	1.15
Contributing Factor 2: Freedom to Criticize Government	1.10	3.29
<i>Free to criticize the Government</i>	.61	1.20
<i>Free to criticize the Government policies</i>	.61	1.12
<i>Free from compulsory citation of governmental sources</i>	-.31	1.09
<i>Free from media censorship</i>	.19	.96
Contributing Factor 3: Freedom from Economic Pressures	-.12	3.74
<i>Free to criticize advertising clients</i>	-.31	1.15
<i>Free to criticize corporate firms</i>	.15	1.12
<i>Free to criticize business persons</i>	.02	1.12
<i>Free from profit orientation of media</i>	.21	1.84
Contributing Factor 4: Freedom from Political Pressures	1.83	3.70
<i>Free to criticize political parties</i>	.58	1.13
<i>Free to criticize political leaders</i>	.48	1.13
<i>Free from political stand of the organization</i>	.37	1.15
<i>Free to prepare political stories objectively</i>	.40	1.03
Contributing Factor 5: Freedom from Religious Pressures	-.70	3.53
<i>Free to criticize religious groups</i>	-.01	1.16
<i>Free to criticize religious leaders</i>	-.05	1.16
<i>Free from religious stance of the organization</i>	-.30	1.13
<i>Free to prepare religious stories objectively</i>	-.33	1.00
External Professional Freedom (Sum of scores of five contributing factors)	1.87	11.35

*Range of score in each contributing factor of EPF is -8 to 8 with three levels (-8 to -2.01 = low; -2 to 2 = moderate ; 2.01 to 8 = high) & Range of score in each item is -2 to 2 with three levels (-2 to -.70 = low; -.69 to .69 = moderate; .70 to 2 = high).

Journalists in Kerala enjoys a moderate level (R = -13 to 13) of external professional freedom (M = -4.71, SD = 11.35) as the mean scores of all the five contributing factors – freedom from religious pressures (M = -.70, SD = 3.53), freedom from threats (M = -.25, SD = 3.46), freedom from economic pressures (M = -.12, SD = 3.74), freedom to criticize government (M = 1.10, SD = 3.29), and freedom from political pressures (M = 1.83, SD = 3.70) - were also found to be in the moderate range of -2 to 2.

Freedom from Threats

Freedom from threats can be defined as the journalistic freedom to report and publish news stories without limiting or practice of self-censorship - fearing repercussions from vested interest persons/groups, interventions of crime groups and threats of fundamentalists.

Freedom from threats scale included four concerns: 'Free to report crimes fearlessly;' 'Free from crime groups' interventions;' 'Free from threats of fundamentalists'; and 'Free to publish investigative stories on crimes.' And the scale ranged from -8 to 8. The Cronbach alpha for freedom from treats is 0.782.

Journalists in Kerala professed to have moderate level of freedom from threats (M = -.25, SD = 3.46) as means of the items of professional safety like free from crime group's interventions (M = -.22, SD = .99), free to report crimes fearlessly (M = -.05, SD = 1.17), free from threats of fundamentalists (M = -.03, SD = 1.13), and free from threats to publish investigative crime stories (M = .05, SD = 1.15) fell within the moderate range of -.70 to .70.

Freedom to Criticize Government

Freedom to criticize the government is the lack of governmental interventions on media content in various ways such as economic pressures, political censorship and restrictions on criticism of the government and its policies. Thus freedom to criticize the government is referred to the absence of state intervention of any kind in the package of media content.

The scale of Freedom to criticize government included items: 'Freedom to criticize the government;' 'Free to criticize the Government policies;' 'Free from the compulsory citation of governmental sources;' and 'Free from media censorship.' And the scale ranged from -8 to 8. The Cronbach alpha for the freedom to criticize the government is 0.742.

Freedom to criticize government ($M = 1.10$, $SD = 3.29$) perceived by journalists in Kerala was moderate as its items such as free to criticize the government ($M = .61$, $SD = 1.20$), free to criticize the government policies ($M = .61$, $SD = 1.12$), free from censorship ($M = .19$, $SD = .96$), free from compulsory citation of governmental sources ($M = -.31$, $SD = 1.09$) fell within the moderate range of $-.70$ to $.70$.

Freedom from Economic Pressures

Freedom from economic pressures refers to the absence of commercial burdens on media content generating from advertisers, corporates, business moguls, and profit-oriented media policies.

Freedom from economic pressures of journalists was examined with a four statement scale. The statements were: 'Free to criticize advertising clients;' 'Free to criticize corporate firms;' 'Free to criticize business persons;' 'Free from profit orientation of media.' And the scale ranged from -8 to 8. The Cronbach alpha for freedom from economic pressures is 0.857.

Perceived economic objectivity ($M = -.12$, $SD = 3.74$) by the media professionals in Kerala was moderate as all its items including criticism on profit orientation of the media ($M = .21$, $SD = 1.84$), criticism on corporates ($M = .15$, $SD = 1.12$) and criticism on business persons ($M = .02$, $SD = 1.12$), and criticism on advertisement clients ($M = -.31$, $SD = 1.15$) were limited within the range of $-.70$ to $.70$.

Freedom from Political Pressures

Freedom from political pressures refers to the impartial presentation of news stories on political parties and political leaders and is untouched by the political stand of the

organization. In other words, freedom from political pressures presupposes the fairness of political news and the absence of political influences on media content. Political players always try to influence the content of media using various tactics and agenda-building strategies and they take advantage of profit-making objectives of media organizations.

Freedom from political pressures was measured on a four statement scale. Items in the scale were: 'Free to criticize political parties;' 'Free to criticize political leaders;' 'Free from the political stand of organization' and 'Free to prepare political stories objectively.' And the scale ranged from -8 to 8. The Cronbach alpha for freedom from political pressures is 0.852.

Journalists in Kerala perceived a moderate level of Freedom from political pressures ($M = 1.83$, $SD = 3.70$) as the items such as free to criticize political parties ($M = .58$, $SD = 1.13$), free to criticize political leaders ($M = .48$, $SD = 1.13$), free to prepare political stories objectively ($M = .40$, $SD = 1.03$), and free from the political stand of the working organization ($M = .37$, $SD = 1.15$) contributed to the freedom from political pressures within the moderate range of $-.70$ to $.70$.

Freedom from Religious Pressures

Freedom from religious pressures refers to the objective preparation of religious stories without being affected by pressures of religious groups and religious leaders. Further, it refers to the absence of religious influences on media content, especially of religious stories. Studies found that religious composition in a nation can be a predictor of press freedom. Connolly-Ahern and Golan (2007) opined that press freedom in a country is affected either positively or negatively by the very 'nature of dominant religion in the nation.'

Four-item scale was employed to observe the religious objectivity. The items were: 'Free to criticize religious groups;' 'Free to criticize religious leaders;' 'Free from the religious stance of the organization;' and 'Free to prepare religious stories objectively.' The scale ranged from -8 to 8. The Cronbach alpha for freedom from religious pressures is 0.797.

Freedom from religious pressures ($M = -.70$, $SD = 3.53$) perceived by media professionals in Kerala was moderate as all the items including objectivity in the preparation of religious stories ($M = -.33$, $SD = 1$), religious stance of the organization ($M = -.30$, $SD = 1.13$), criticism of religious leaders ($M = -.05$, $SD = 1.16$), and criticism of religious groups ($M = -.01$, $SD = 1.16$) contributed within the moderate range $-.70$ to $.70$.

In general, journalists in Kerala enjoyed a moderate range of professional freedom ($M = -2.84$, $SD = 18.40$). Yet, they professed a higher external professional freedom ($M = 1.87$, $SD = 11.35$) than that of internal professional freedom ($M = -4.70$, $SD = 10.92$). Journalists' freedom is more curtailed, as they perceive, internally than externally pointing at the organizational motives that betray the very concept of press freedom. West (2011) rightly observed that the sources that shrink journalists' professional freedom are mostly of internal than external and so journalists having more internal control obviously enjoyed more satisfaction in their jobs.

In terms of internal professional freedom, freedom from supervisor level pressures ($M = 1.05$, $SD = 3.49$) was the highest contributor of IPF followed respectively by freedom from owner level pressures ($M = -.95$, $SD = 3.71$), freedom from personalized pressures ($M = 0-1.47$, $SD = 3.27$), and freedom from work level pressures ($M = -1.52$, $SD = 3.17$), and freedom from organizational pressures ($M = -1.82$, $SD = 3.75$) was the lowest contributor. Media content is mostly affected by organization's interests than anything else.

When comes to external professional freedom, freedom from political pressures ($M = 1.83$, $SD = 3.70$) was the highest contributor of EPF followed by freedom to criticize government ($M = 1.10$, $SD = 3.29$), freedom from economic pressures ($M = -.12$, $SD = 3.74$), freedom from threats ($M = -.25$, $SD = 3.46$) respectively and freedom from religious pressures ($M = -.70$, $SD = 3.53$) was the lowest contributor. Influence of religious beliefs on individuals in all means of life - as it said to be a source of authority, moral guidance and meaning - causes ideological bias and deteriorates content objectivity as observed by Schmalzbauer (2002), and Yigal and Zvi (2013).

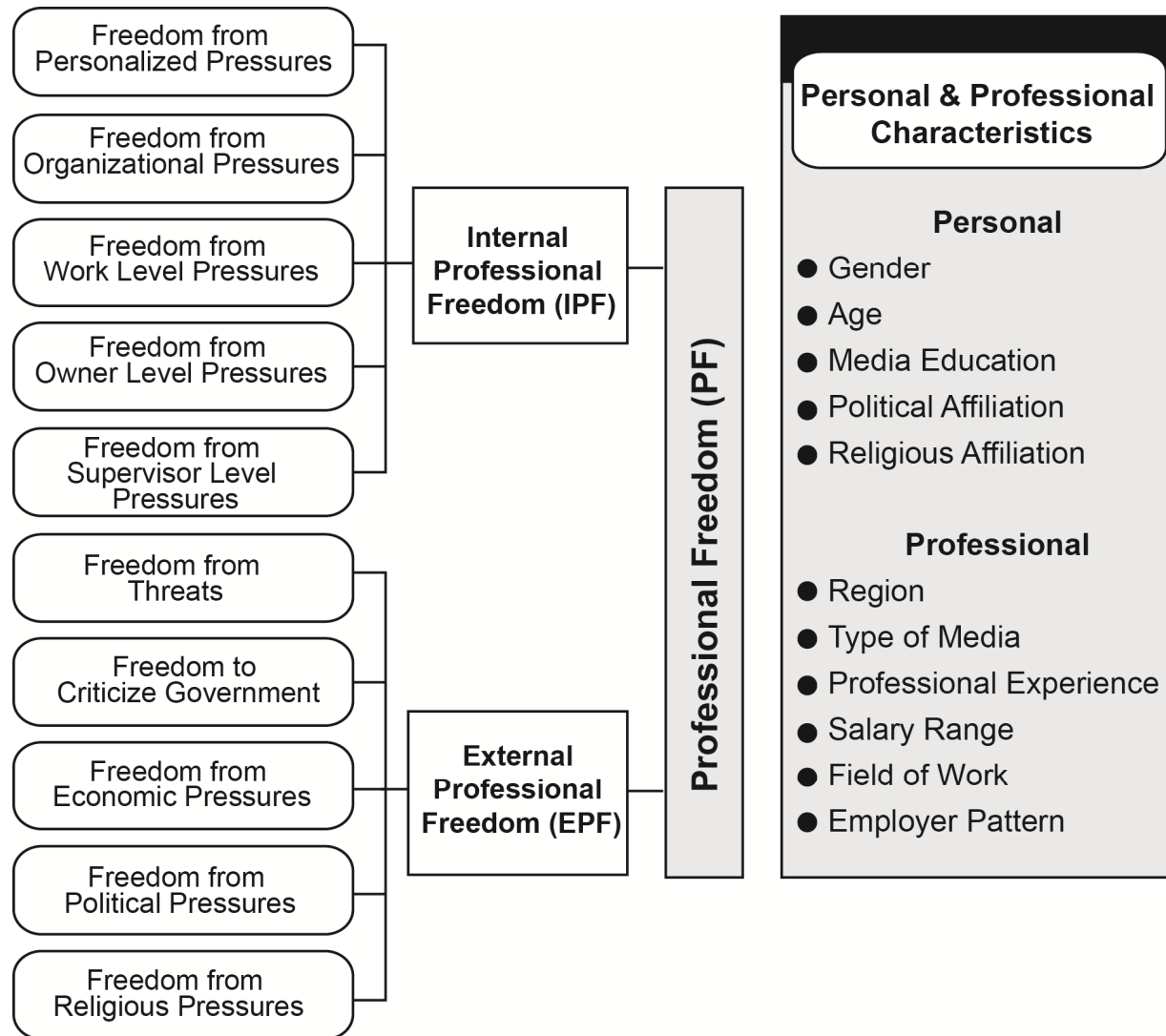
Having seen the 40 item wise means and identifying important contributing factors of the two components of PF, the researcher focuses on the nature of the relationship between professional freedom and personal and professional characteristics of journalists in Kerala.

Professional Freedom and Personal & Professional Characteristics

Yet another interesting question, following the second objective of the study, is how personal and professional variables of the sampled journalists interact with their mean scores of Professional Freedom (PF) and its components: Internal Professional Freedom (EPF) and External Professional Freedom (EPF). The personal antecedents are envisaged as 'content gates' in earlier studies (Weaver, Beam, Brownlee, Voakes, & Wilhoit, 2007). Such a discussion will yield more insights into the personal factors that define the sense of freedom enjoyed by journalists in Kerala in discharging their professional responsibilities. Integrating the personal and professional variables, the Conceptual Model of Professional Freedom has been revised as given in Figure 4.5.

As seen in the graphical model, personal and professional characteristics together constituted the personal antecedents of journalists in Kerala. Personal characteristics included: gender (male, female, and LGBT), age (below 30, 30-39, 40-49, and 50 & above), media education (educated & not educated), political affiliation (affiliated & not affiliated), and religious affiliation (affiliated & not affiliated). Professional characteristics taken for this study consisted of: employer pattern (public & private) region (south, central, north, & outside Kerala), type of media (Radio, Television, Newspaper, & Online), professional experience (upto 5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years, & above 20 years), monthly salary range (below Rs. 10000, Rs. 10001-20000, Rs. 20001-30000, Rs. 30001-50000, & above 50000), and field of work (reporting, editing, news management, & photography/videography).

Figure 4.7: Professional Freedom and Personal & Professional Characteristics



Internal Professional Freedom and Personal Characteristics

Influence of personal characteristics of the sampled journalists on their mean scores of professional freedom is an important aspect of this study. Personal characteristics, especially communicator's own personality and self-image, can be considered as content moderators as envisaged by Gerhard Maletzke (1988).

To find out the difference in mean score of IPF of journalists with various personal characteristics such as gender, age, media education, political affiliation, and religious affiliation statistical tests such as One-Way ANOVA and Independent sample t-Test as the case may be were run in the respective data sets. The results are reported below (Table 4.23).

Table 4.23: Mean Scores of IPF by Personal Characteristics

Group Statistics						One-Way ANOVA Results				
Personal Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	Between/ Within Groups	Sum of Squares	DF	F	Sig.
Gender	Male	449	-4.99	11.07	.52	Between Groups	206.89	2	.867	.421
	Female	84	-3.19	10.16	1.11	Within Groups	64172.97	538		
	LGBT	8	-4.63	9.71	3.43					
Age	Below 30	201	-4.41	10.90	.77	Between Groups	1080.37	3	3.055	.028*
	30-39	210	-6.17	11.02	.76					
	40-49	91	-2.12	11.05	1.16	Within Groups	63299.48	537		
	50 & above	39	-4.41	9.16	1.47					
Total		541	-4.71	10.92	.47	Total	64379.86	540		
Group Statistics						T-Test Results				
Personal Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	DF		T	Sig. (2-tailed)	
Media Education	Educated	439	-4.92	11.25	.54	539		-.948	.343	
	Not educated	102	-3.78	9.37	.93					
Political Affiliation	Affiliated	397	-5.48	11.02	.55	539		-2.733	.006*	
	Not Affiliated	144	-2.59	10.38	.87					
Religious Affiliation	Affiliated	458	-4.55	11.07	.52	539		.789	.430	
	Not Affiliated	83	-5.58	10.07	1.11					

*p < 0.05

Data showed that female journalists had higher mean score of IPF (M = -3.19, SD = 10.16) compared to their male and LGBT counterparts, but this difference was

not significant ($F(2, 538) = .867, p = .421$). The reason for the higher level of IPF score among women journalists warrants further study especially when they are facing multiple challenges of work-life balance that may influence their internal professional freedom.

ANOVA revealed that the differences in IPF scores among journalists belonging to different age groups as significant ($F(3, 537) = 3.055, p = .028$). The youngest group of below 30 years ($M = -4.41, SD = 10.90$) and the eldest group of 50 & above years ($M = -4.41, SD = 9.16$) had equal IPF mean scores whereas the 30-39 years group ($M = -6.17, SD = 11.02$) and 40-49 years group ($M = -2.12, SD = 11.05$) recorded lowest and highest mean scores of IPF respectively. This inverted N-shaped IPF score of journalists of different age categories points at the news decision autonomy they enjoyed and the understanding of professional freedom concept they acquainted with at different ages of their professional career.

Interestingly, journalists without professional education reported higher IPF score ($M = -3.78, SD = 9.37$) than those professionally educated ($M = -4.92, SD = 11.25$). But the difference was not statistically significant ($t(539) = -.948, p = .343$). Their acquaintance with the ideal and wider concept of media freedom they learned as part of their media education may influence their very concept of professional freedom.

Yet another variable that had a significant bearing on the IPF score was political affiliation of journalists ($t(539) = 2.733, p = .006$). The independent-sample t-test indicated that the journalists who were not politically affiliated ($M = -2.59, SD = 10.38$), had significantly lower IPF score than the politically affiliated journalists ($M = -5.48, SD = 11.02$). The reason for this significant difference between the IPF scores of those who are politically affiliated and those who are not can be attributed to the former's chances of disagreement with the management policy and other such factors that define media content and workplace environment.

In the similar way religiously affiliated journalists perceived better IPF score ($M = -4.55, SD = 11.07$) than those who are not religiously affiliated, though the difference was not statistically significant ($t(539) = .789, p = .430$). Such a difference in IPF score can be due to the way by which religious news was covered. Religion-friendly

coverage of related news might be counted as a breach of objectivity by the religiously not affiliated journalists whereas the religiously affiliated ones might see it as natural.

Internal Professional Freedom and Professional Characteristics

Like personal characteristics, professional traits also play as predictors of IPF as evidenced by various scholars like Samuelson (1962), Weaver and Wilhoit (1986), Smucker, Whisenant, and Pedersen (2003), Massey and Elmore (2011), El-Nawawy and Strong (2012), Reinardy (2014), and Ofili et al. (2014). Detailed in this section is the nature of the influence of professional characteristics on internal professional freedom of the sampled journalists. IPF mean scores were cross-matched with professional characteristics such as employer pattern, region, and type of media, professional experience, salary range and field of work using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Independent sample t-Test as the case may be.

ANOVA determined (see Table 4.24) that difference of mean scores of IPF among journalists belonging to four working regions was statistically significant ($F(3, 536) = 2.784, p = .040$). Journalists working Outside Kerala ($M = -2.09, SD = 10.43$) and South Kerala ($M = -3.46, SD = 11.48$) had higher IPF scores than that of journalists working in Central ($M = -5.86, SD = 10.88$) and North ($M = -5.67, SD = 10.34$) regions of Kerala. From this finding, it can be concluded that socio-cultural features and geopolitical nature of the region where journalists work are determining factors with regard to their internal professional freedom. In this specific case, the significant difference among the regions in relation to IPF of journalists is found to be between those regions where centres of power (i.e. State or National Capitals) locate and those far from such centres.

When it comes to the type of media, journalists in radio ($M = .35, SD = 10.01$) had very higher IPF score than those in television ($M = -3.90, SD = 10.81$) online media ($M = -5.63, SD = 12.75$) and newspapers ($M = -5.27, SD = 10.71$), though the difference was not significant ($F(3, 537) = 2.309, p = .075$). Most of the sampled respondents were from All India Radio, the sole public sector radio in India where journalists are bound to follow official guidelines and regulatory measures in content

creation and dissemination. Such a restrictive policy normally influences their concept of freedom.

Table 4.24: Mean Scores of IPF by Professional Characteristics

Group Statistics						ANOVA Results				
Professional Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	Between/ Within Groups	Sum of Squares	DF	F	Sig .
Region	South	164	-3.46	11.48	.90	Between Groups	985.87	3	2.784	.040*
	Central	161	-5.86	10.88	.86					
	North	163	-5.67	10.34	.81	Within Groups	63393.99	537		
	Outside Kerala	53	-2.09	10.43	1.43					
Media	Radio	23	.35	10.01	2.09	Between Groups	820.05	3	2.309	.075
	Television	138	-3.90	10.81	.92	Within Groups	63559.81	537		
	Newspaper	337	-5.27	10.71	.58					
	Online	43	-5.63	12.75	1.94					
Professional Experience	Upto 5 years	201	-4.36	10.73	.76	Between Groups	1203.49	4	2.553	.038*
	6-10 years	137	-6.91	11.12	.95	Within Groups	63176.37	536		
	11-15 years	91	-3.98	11.39	1.19					
	16-20 years	54	-4.70	10.90	1.48					
	Above 20 years	58	-1.86	9.70	1.27					
Salary Range	Upto Rs.10000	81	-6.65	9.78	1.09	Between Groups	2098.43	4	4.515	.001*
	Rs.10001-20000	207	-4.78	11.41	.79	Within Groups	62281.42	536		
	Rs.20001-30000	139	-5.56	10.57	.90					
	Rs.30001-50000	79	-4.06	10.97	1.23					
	Above Rs.50000	35	2.17	9.45	1.60					
Field of Work	Reporting	308	-4.38	11.18	.64	Between Groups	163.07	3	.455	.714
	Editing	145	-5.34	10.90	.91	Within Groups	64216.79	537		
	News Mgt.	29	-3.55	9.24	1.72					
	Photo/ Videography	59	-5.44	10.43	1.36					
Total		541	-4.71	10.92	.47	Total	64379.86	540		
Group Statistics						T-Test Results				
Professional Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	DF		T	Sig. (2-tailed)	
Employer Pattern	Public	25	-.32	9.87	1.97	539		2.064	.040*	
	Private	516	-4.92	10.93	.48					

*p < 0.05

On the contrary, the difference in mean scores of journalists with varying periods of experience was found to be statistically significant ($F(4, 536) = 2.553, p = .038$). The data showed that journalists with the longest experience, i.e. above 20 years, had highest IPF score ($M = -1.86, SD = 9.70$) and this score is two or three times higher when compared to the scores of those with a lower period of experience. From this finding, it can be concluded that with their years of experience seasoned journalists are becoming more familiar with the limits of freedom practically available in their professional settings.

The higher the salary range the higher was the perceived IPF score of journalists and so the journalists with a lower salary range of up to Rs.10000 had the lowest IPF mean score ($M = -6.65, SD = 9.78$) while journalists with the upper salary range of above Rs.50000 had the highest mean score of IPF ($M = 2.17, SD = 9.45$). The difference among five salary categories with regard to IPF score was found to be statistically significant ($F(4, 536) = 4.515, p = .001$) as revealed by ANOVA. With this result it can be deduced that internal professional freedom is closely related to economic freedom of journalists since the better financial condition helps them to manage many issues like life work conflict, conveyance problem etc. that may contribute to limiting their IPF indirectly.

Did nature of work have an influence on the perceived IPF of journalists? To explore this, the field of journalist profession of the sampled media persons was categorized as 'Reporting', 'Editing', 'News Management', and 'Photo/Videography'. Of these four categories, those in news management positions reported more IPF score ($M = -3.55, SD = 9.24$) than their counterparts in other fields. Though the difference among the scores was very slight, it was an indication to the fact that higher news decision autonomy enjoyed by those journalists working in the field of news management had an influence on their perception of IPF. However, this difference in IPF among the fields of work was not established with ANOVA result ($F(3, 537) = .455, p = .714$).

Expectedly, employer pattern had a significant bearing on the journalists' mean score of IPF as evidenced by independent t-test result ($t(539) = 2.064, p = .040$). Journalists working in public owned media ($M = -.32, SD = 9.87$) reported higher than

their counterparts in corporate/private owned media ($M = -4.92$, $SD = 10.93$). This difference may be due to the contrast work environments in private and public media. While journalists in private media work under various types of job-related pressures due to severe commercialization and profit orientation, their counterparts in public media enjoy a lesser level of owner intervention and a higher level of job security in public owned media. This dichotomy is surely reflected in their perception of internal professional freedom.

External Professional Freedom and Personal Characteristics

As done in the case of IPF, the influence of personal characteristics on EPF was also measured comparing the mean scores among the sampled journalists on the basis of their gender, age, media education, political affiliation, and religious affiliation using Independent sample t-test and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) as the case may be.

As in IPF, gender had no significant interaction with EPF of the journalists (see Table 4.25) as the result yielded by ANOVA ($F(2, 538) = .743$, $p = .476$). But, EPF scores were found to be higher than IPF scores in all the three gender categories, with a remarkably higher score of 6.63 among journalists belonging to LGBT. It indicates that LGBT journalists enjoy a comfortable work environment in Kerala, one of the pioneering states in India having welfare policy for the transgender community triggered by the changing mindset of the society.

Elder journalists belonging to the age group of 40-49 years ($M = 3.79$, $SD = 10.77$) and 50 & above years ($M = 2.54$, $SD = 10.57$) had better EPF scores than that of younger journalists belonging to the age groups of below 30 years ($M = 1.56$, $SD = 11.04$) and of 30-39 years ($M = 1.21$, $SD = 11.99$). But this interaction between age and EPF was not found to be significant ($F(3, 537) = 1.200$, $p = .309$). But it is to be noted here that age was found to have a highly significant bearing on the IPF (See Table). This difference in the nature of the interaction of age between the two types of professional freedom (IPF and EPF) indicates the contrast in the contributing factors of journalists' professional freedom exist in the workplace and social environment.

Table 4.25: Mean Scores of EPF by Personal Characteristics

Group Statistics						ANOVA Results				
Personal Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	Between/ Within Groups	Sum of Squares	DF	F	Sig.
Gender	Male	449	1.75	11.06	.52	Between Groups	191.60	2	.743	.476
	Female	84	2.08	12.30	1.34	Within Groups	69347.35	538		
	LGBT	8	6.63	16.85	5.96					
Age	Below 30	201	1.56	11.04	.78	Between Groups	463.27	3	1.200	.309
	30-39	210	1.21	11.99	.83	Within Groups	69075.67	537		
	40-49	91	3.79	10.77	1.13					
	50 & above	39	2.54	10.57	1.69					
Total		541	1.87	11.35	.49	Total	69538.94	540		
Group Statistics						t-Test Results				
Personal Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	DF		T	Sig. (2-tailed)	
Media Education	Yes	439	1.36	11.60	.55	539		-2.189	.029*	
	No	102	4.08	9.93	.98					
Political Affiliation	Yes	397	1.82	11.60	.58	539		-.160	.873	
	No	144	2.00	10.67	.89					
Religious Affiliation	Yes	458	2.28	11.20	.52	539		1.983	.049*	
	No	83	-.36	11.94	1.31					

*p < 0.05

Interestingly, as seen in the case of IPF, journalists having no professional education (M = 4.08, SD = 9.93) reported having higher EPF score than that of professionally educated journalists (M = 1.36, SD = 11.60). Independent t-test revealed that the difference in mean score of EPF between the groups with and without media education was statistically significant ($t(539) = -2.189, p = .029$), which was not significant in the case of IPF. As observed by Godler and Reich (2013), professional education might have given the journalists the yardstick to measure objectivity with more precision and thus they identified the breach of objectivity more efficiently than their professionally uneducated journalists. It also indicates that prescribing media education for journalists will ensure creative and positive conceptualization of media

freedom among journalists in the country. Resultantly, such a situation will lead to increased demand for the more functional free environment for media that in turn will foster democratic values of the nation.

Journalists having no political affiliation ($M = 2$, $SD = 10.67$) had better EPF score than those without affiliation, but the difference was not statistically significant. The same trend in score difference was found in the case of IPF (See Table), but with lower scores in both the categories. Also, unlike EPF, the differences in IPF mean score between politically affiliated and not affiliated groups was significant ($t(539) = -.160$, $p = .873$). Traditionally, in Kerala journalism was seen as an extension of political activism and most of the media there, except for AIR and Doordarshan, had some sort political lineage explicitly claimed by them or implicitly attributed by the audience. This popular perception of media in Kerala has all the possibility to influence the perception of media freedom of the sampled journalists, especially those who are politically affiliated, who are more sensitive to the sources that restrict professional freedom in both social and organizational contexts. It can also be deduced from the data that media persons in Kerala, at least in their perception of freedom, both IPF and EPF, was highly influenced by their political affiliation. Such an influence conflicts with the wider interests of the media industry in the state that recently started to develop a professional workforce to meet its corporatized objectives.

In contrast to political affiliation, religious orientation of journalists ($M = 2.28$, $SD = 11.20$) positively contributes to their perception of EPF when compared to those who are not affiliated with any religion ($M = -.36$, $SD = 11.94$), perfectly following the trend found in IPF. The t-test result showed that type of religious affiliation had a significant bearing in determining the EPF of the journalists ($t(539) = 1.983$, $p = .049$).

External Professional Freedom and Professional Characteristics

After probing the variances in the mean scores of EPF among categories of personal characteristics, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Independent sample t-Test were employed to know the nature of differences among categories of professional characteristics including region, type of media, professional experience, salary range, the field of work, and employer pattern in terms of external professional freedom (EPF).

Of these five characteristics, only two, region and type of media were found to have a significant bearing on determining the EPF.

Table 4.26: Mean Scores of EPF by Professional Characteristics

Group Statistics						ANOVA Results				
Professional Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Std Error Mean	Between /Within Groups	Sum of Squares	DF	F	Sig.
Region	South	164	1.71	10.50	.82	Between Groups	1099.13	3	2.875	.036*
	Central	161	1.23	11.73	.92					
	North	163	1.28	11.45	.90	Within Groups	68439.82	537		
	Outside Kerala	53	6.15	11.79	1.62					
Media	Radio	23	5.00	12.14	2.53	Between Groups	1580.67	3	4.163	.006*
	Television	138	4.14	10.54	.90					
	Newspaper	337	1.15	11.19	.61	Within Groups	67958.27	537		
	Online	43	-1.44	13.33	2.03					
Professional Experience	Upto 5 years	201	1.84	11.04	.78	Between Groups	30.39	4	.059	.994
	6-10 years	137	1.67	12.91	1.10					
	11-15 years	91	1.70	10.83	1.14	Within Groups	69508.56	536		
	16-20 years	54	2.26	9.75	1.33					
	Above 20 years	58	2.36	10.98	1.44					
Salary Range	Upto Rs.10000	81	3.04	11.47	1.27	Between Groups	558.36	4	1.085	.363
	Rs.10001-20000	207	.69	11.17	.78					
	Rs.20001-30000	139	2.44	11.91	1.01	Within Groups	68980.58	536		
	Rs.30001-50000	79	1.99	11.03	1.24					
	Above Rs.50000	35	3.66	10.42	1.76					
Field of Work	Reporting	308	1.52	11.32	.65	Between Groups	511.98	3	1.328	.265
	Editing	145	1.60	11.32	.94					
	News Mgt.	29	1.28	11.63	2.16	Within Groups	69026.96	537		
	Photo/Videography	59	4.64	11.31	1.47					
Total		541	1.87	11.35	.49	Total	69538.94	540		
Group Statistics						T-Test Results				
Professional Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	DF	T	Sig. (2-tailed)		
Employer Pattern	Public	25	3.44	13.17	2.63	539	.708	.479		
	Private	516	1.79	11.26	.50					

*p < 0.05

The region has a significant influence on determining the perception of both IPF and EPF of journalists in Kerala. ANOVA results ($F(3, 537) = 2.875, p = .036$) showed that the difference in EPF scores among journalists of different regions found to be statistically significant. Journalists from outside Kerala ($M = 6.15, SD = 11.79$) had higher EPF than journalists across three regions in Kerala like South ($M = 1.71, SD = 10.50$), Central ($M = 1.23, SD = 11.73$), and North ($M = 1.28, SD = 11.45$). Interestingly the score distribution pattern among regional categories was also the same as in both EPF and IPF. The first and second highest means scores were distributed among the journalists from outside Kerala and South Kerala respectively. Both these regions include national and state capitals and most of the sampled journalists in these categories are from New Delhi and Trivandrum. National and state capital cities are the places of origin of most of the news items in news media as they are the centre of major political and governmental events. This position of capital cities assigns an upper hand to the journalists there in news programming of mother organizations. That, in turn, makes them feel freer than their counterparts in other geographical areas.

Likewise, ANOVA revealed that EPF score of journalists belonging to different types of media was statistically highly significant ($F(3, 537) = 4.163, p = .006$). Journalists in radio ($M = 5.00, SD = 12.14$) and television ($M = 4.14, SD = 10.54$) professed higher EPF than that of their counterparts in newspapers ($M = 1.15, SD = 11.19$) and online ($M = -1.44, SD = 13.33$). The pattern of mean score distribution is found to be same in EPF and IPF still the categorical difference of IPF mean scores was not significant. Job security and higher financial rewards of journalists in publicly owned radio and the lesser level of external pressure in television where media content is less moderated might have prompted them to perceive higher EPF than their counterparts in print and online media.

The data showed that the longer the duration of experience the higher was EPF score of journalists with journalists having above 20 years of experience reporting the highest EPF score ($M = 2.36, SD = 10.98$) although the difference was not statistically significant ($F(4, 536) = .059, p = .994$). The score pattern was same in both IPF and EPF, but the categorical difference in EPF was not statistically significant as seen in IPF.

When it comes to financial benefits, journalists in highest (above Rs, 50000) and lowest salary (upto Rs. 10000) ranges reported to have highest ($M = 3.66$, $SD = 10.42$) and second highest ($M = 3.04$, $SD = 11.47$) EPF mean scores respectively. Those in the middle ranges of salary report very low scores of EPF: Rs. 10001 – 20000 ($M = .69$, $SD = 11.17$); Rs. 20001 – 30000 ($M = 2.44$, $SD = 11.91$); Rs. 30001 – 50000 ($M = 1.99$, $SD = 11.03$). The categorical difference of scores was not statistically significant ($F(4, 536) = 1.085$, $p = .363$). But, this difference was statistically significant in the case of IPF.

Comparative analysis of EPF means scores of four fields of work such as Reporting, Editing, News Management and Photo/Videography yielded a result that editors enjoyed more EPF ($M = 1.60$, $SD = 11.32$) than their counterparts. Yet the difference was not statistically significant as evidenced by ANOVA ($F(3, 537) = 1.328$, $p = .27$). Here it can be noted while editors reported highest EPF score (See Table 4.), news managers claimed highest IPF score (See Table 4.). From this, it can be deduced that content gatekeepers (Editors and News Managers) are freer than content generators (Reporters and Photographers/ Videographers). This result substantiates the finding that journalists in capital cities score higher EPF and IPF as they have an influence on news programming. In short, nature of work has a vital role in determining the professional freedom of journalists.

Who enjoys more EPF score - journalists in public owned media or privately owned media? The t-test result showed that employer pattern had no significant influence on the EPF score on journalists ($t(539) = .708$, $p = .479$) though those in public media has two times higher EPF score ($M = 3.44$, $SD = 13.17$) than that of their counterparts in private media ($M = 1.79$, $SD = 11.26$). Notably, journalists belonging to the public sector ($M = 3.44$, $SD = 13.17$), professed higher mean score of EPF than journalists in the private/corporate sector. This can be attributed to the fact that journalists in government sector faceless commercial and economic pressures when compared with their counterparts in the other sector.

Professional Freedom and Personal Characteristics

After analyzing the components - IPF and EPF - in terms of personal and professional variables, the researcher tested the significance of differences among categories of various personal and professional variables of PF itself. Firstly, personal characteristics like gender, age, media education, political affiliation, and religious affiliation were tested in relation to the Professional Freedom (PF) using both Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Independent sample t-Test as the case may be and the result is reported in the table below.

Table 4.27: Mean Scores of PF by Personal Characteristics

Group Statistics						ANOVA Results				
Personal Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	Between / Within Groups	Sum of Squares	DF	F	Sig.
Gender	Male	449	-3.25	18.16	.86	Between Groups	514.09	2	.758	.469
	Female	84	-1.11	19.41	2.12	Within Groups	182383.60	538		
	LGBT	8	2.00	23.68	8.37	Between Groups	2829.08	3		
Age	Below 30	201	-2.85	17.60	1.24	Between Groups	180068.61	537	2.812	.039*
	30-39	210	-4.96	19.64	1.36	Within Groups	182897.69	540		
	40-49	91	1.67	17.73	1.86	Between Groups	180068.61	537		
	50 & above	39	-1.87	15.62	2.50	Within Groups	182897.69	540		
Total		541	-2.84	18.40	.79	Total	182897.69	540		
Group Statistics						T-Test Results				
Personal Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	DF	T	Sig. (2-tailed)		
Media Education	Yes	439	-3.56	18.99	.91	539	-1.912	.056		
	No	102	.29	15.34	1.52					
Political Affiliation	Yes	397	-3.65	18.93	.95	539	-1.713	.087		
	No	144	-.59	16.74	1.40					
Religious Affiliation	Yes	458	-2.28	18.21	.85	539	1.672	.095		
	No	83	-5.94	19.25	2.11					

*p < 0.05

Data shows that LGBT journalists had highest PF score (M = 2, SD = 23.68) among genders though the difference was not statistically significant (F (2, 538) = .758, p = .469). A Higher level of PF of LGBT journalists among genders warrants further study and can be attributed to the fact that the Kerala society becomes more inclusive and it is well reflected in media sector as well.

Differences across four age categories of journalists in Kerala had a significant influence on their mean score of PF ($F(3, 537) = 2.812, p = .039$). The two higher age groups of 40-49 years ($M = 1.67, SD = 17.73$) and above 50 years ($M = 1.87, SD = -15.62$) of journalists reported to have more PF mean scores when compared to the two lower age groups of below 30 ($M = -2.85, SD = 17.60$) and 30-39 years ($M = -4.96, SD = 19.64$) of age. In short, this result points that young journalists feel lack of enough media freedom in the state. This may be attributed to the journalists' adaptation of organizational/professional conditions and their continuously modified understanding of PF over the years.

The journalists without professional education ($M = .29, SD = 15.34$) had higher PF score than that of professionally educated journalists ($M = -3.56, SD = 18.99$). Yet the difference was not significant ($t(539) = -1.912, p = .056$). Media education expands journalists' nose for news and intensifies their commitment to journalistic values. Resultantly, professionally educated journalists encounter the conflict between the practical environment in the organization and ideological understanding of professional freedom they imbibed from journalism education.

Remarkably, journalists who are not affiliated to political ideologies had better PF score ($M = -.59, SD = 16.74$) than their counterparts ($M = -3.65, SD = 18.93$). Though not statistically significant ($t(539) = -1.713, p = .09$), the reason for this difference can be the increasing chances of politically affiliated journalists' disagreement with the policy of their organizations. And this finding supports Reich and Hanitzsch (2013)'s conclusion that political orientation of journalists controls their professional freedom. In contrast to this, religiously affiliated journalists reported more PF score ($M = -2.28, SD = 18.21$) than that of their counterparts ($M = -5.94, SD = 19.25$) although the difference was not statistically significant ($t(539) = 1.672, p = .095$).

Professional Freedom and Professional Characteristics

After analyzing PF in terms of personal characteristics, professional freedom (PF) of journalists in Kerala was tested to decide the nature of differences among categories of professional characteristics like employer pattern, region, type of media, professional experience, salary range and field of work using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and independent sample t-Test as the case may be.

The results reported in the Table 4.28 showed that difference in PF scores among journalists of various regions was statistically significant ($f(3, 537) = 3.624, p = .013$). Journalists from outside Kerala ($M = 4.06, SD = 18.94$) had a greater mean score of PF than their counterparts in Kerala. Among journalists in Kerala, media persons from South Kerala ($M = -1.75, SD = 18.21$) reported higher freedom when compared to their counterparts in North Kerala ($M = -4.40, SD = 17.92$) and Central Kerala ($M = -4.63, SD = 18.47$). Greater PF score reported by journalists from outside Kerala can be attributed to their geographical distance from headquarters and resultant higher level of autonomy over the content.

Also, the difference in mean scores of professional freedom was statistically significant in the type of media ($F(3, 537) = 4.174, p = .006$). Journalists in Radio ($M = 5.35, SD = 19.476$) and then journalists in Television ($M = .24, SD = 17.80$) reported to have significantly higher PF scores than journalists in online media ($M = -7.07, SD = 21.64$) and newspapers ($M = -4.12, SD = 17.87$). The reason for this difference can be attributed to the public ownership and less direct intervention in reporting for Radio. Television journalists perceive more PF than the journalists in online media and newspaper whose stories are more likely to be moderated by copy desk and more regulated by legal provisions like IT Act. The chance for content moderation is lesser in television due to live-streaming and similar practices.

Table 4.28: Mean Scores of PF by Professional Characteristics

Group Statistics						ANOVA Results				
Professional Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	Between/ Within Groups	Sum of Squares	DF	F	Sig.
Region	South	164	-1.75	18.21	1.42	Between Groups	3629.65	3	3.624	.013*
	Central	161	-4.63	18.47	1.46					
	North	163	-4.40	17.92	1.40	Within Groups	179268.04	537		
	Outside Kerala	53	4.06	18.94	2.60					
Media	Radio	23	5.35	19.48	4.06	Between Groups	4168.08	3	4.174	.006*
	Television	138	.24	17.80	1.52	Within Groups	178729.60	537		
	Newspaper	337	-4.12	17.87	.97					
	Online	43	-7.07	21.64	3.30					
Professional Experience	Upto 5 years	201	-2.53	17.60	1.24	Between Groups	1489.10	4	1.100	.356
	6-10 years	137	-5.23	20.36	1.74	Within Groups	181408.59	536		
	11-15 years	91	-2.27	18.93	1.98					
	16-20 years	54	-2.44	16.62	2.26					
	Above 20 years	58	.50	16.85	2.21					
Salary Range	Upto Rs.10000	81	-3.62	17.21	1.91	Between Groups	3063.05	4	2.282	.059
	Rs.10001-20000	207	-4.10	18.96	1.32	Within Groups	179834.64	536		
	Rs.20001-30000	139	-3.12	18.68	1.59					
	Rs.30001-50000	79	-2.08	17.71	1.99					
	Above Rs.50000	35	5.83	16.69	2.82					
Field of Work	Reporting	308	-2.85	18.59	1.06	Between Groups	374.35	3	.367	.777
	Editing	145	-3.74	18.52	1.54	Within Groups	182523.34	537		
	News Mgt.	29	-2.28	18.53	3.44					
	Photo/ Videography	59	-.80	17.33	2.26					
Total		541	-2.84	18.40	.79	Total	182897.69	540		
Group Statistics						T-Test Results				
Professional Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	DF	T	Sig. (2-tailed)		
Employer Pattern	Public	25	3.12	20.36	4.07	539	1.660	.098		
	Private	516	-3.13	18.28	.81					

*p < 0.05

Though the journalists belonging to the highest professional experience group (those with 20 plus years) had a greater mean score of PF (M = .50, SD = 16.85). But,

no correlation between age and perception of freedom was found. As per the ANOVA result, the difference between experience and perception of professional freedom was not statistically significant ($F(4, 536) = 1.100, p = .356$).

Meanwhile, higher salary range groups of above Rs. 50000 ($M = 5.83, SD = 16.69$), Rs. 30001-50000 group ($M = -2.08, SD = 17.71$), and Rs. 20001-30000 group ($M = -3.12, SD = 18.68$) had proportionately greater mean score of PF than lower salary range groups of below Rs.10000 ($M = -3.62, SD = 17.21$) and Rs. 10001-20000 group ($M = -4.10, SD = 18.96$) had. Though not statistically significant ($F(4, 536) = 2.282, p = .059$) the difference is to be reckoned with since the confidence level indicates the close association between the range of salary and level of professional freedom.

Considering the field of work, photo/video journalists reported to have higher PF score ($M = -.80, SD = 17.33$) than their counterparts. But the difference was not statistically significant ($F(3, 537) = .367, p = .777$). Nature of work and limited instructions from the organization can be the reasons that lead to better PF score of photo/video journalists. This can be explained by the observation made by Albuquerque and Gagliardi (2011) while studying Brazilian journalists that modern day journalism valued technical skills of journalists than that of their autonomy.

When it comes to the employer pattern, journalists working with public media had more PF score ($M = 3.12, SD = 20.36$) than journalists employed in the private/corporate sector ($M = -3.13, SD = 18.28$). Though not statistically significant ($t(539) = 1.660, p = .098$) the association is close as indicated by higher confidence level. This can be attributed to the government salary and policy adaptation of journalists in public media - radio journalists in particular - along with the financial dependency of private media on advertisers that might shrink their freedom. Further, conflict or consonance concerning goals and values of the control centre i.e. the organization and the journalists themselves might have effected in such a result.

Understanding the nature of the influence of personal and professional variables of professional freedom (PF) and its components of internal professional freedom (IPF) and external professional freedom (EPF) of media persons in Kerala

was one of the objectives of the present study. The analysis deduced that personal characteristics of age and political affiliation had a significant bearing on their IPF score whereas in EPF score the difference was significant only in media education. But only the differences in age categories of journalists significantly differed in terms of professional freedom (PF) of journalists in Kerala. Of the professional characteristics, differences in the mean scores of IPF between the groups of the region, professional experience, salary range, and employer pattern were significant while the type of media and region had the bearing on EPF.

This way, personal and professional variables of age, region, as well as the type of media, clearly showed its influence on professional freedom along with the journalists across the world as already proved by Weaver et al., (2007) and West (2011). In contradiction to earlier studies of Shoemaker and Reese (1996), and Reich and Hanitzsch (2013), journalists in Kerala belonging to diverse employer pattern, salary range, professional experience, and field of work predicted no significant differences in the professional freedom they enjoyed. This can be attributed to the difference in nationality and thus underline the presence of such a factor which further inspired by diverse legal, political, economic, cultural, and social dimensions that determine the very subjective concept of professional freedom. The forthcoming section analyzes professional satisfaction of journalists in Kerala, another important construct in the present study.

Clarifying Research Hypothesis 1

Research Hypothesis I (H1): Professional freedom of journalists in Kerala is likely to be associated with their personal and professional characteristics

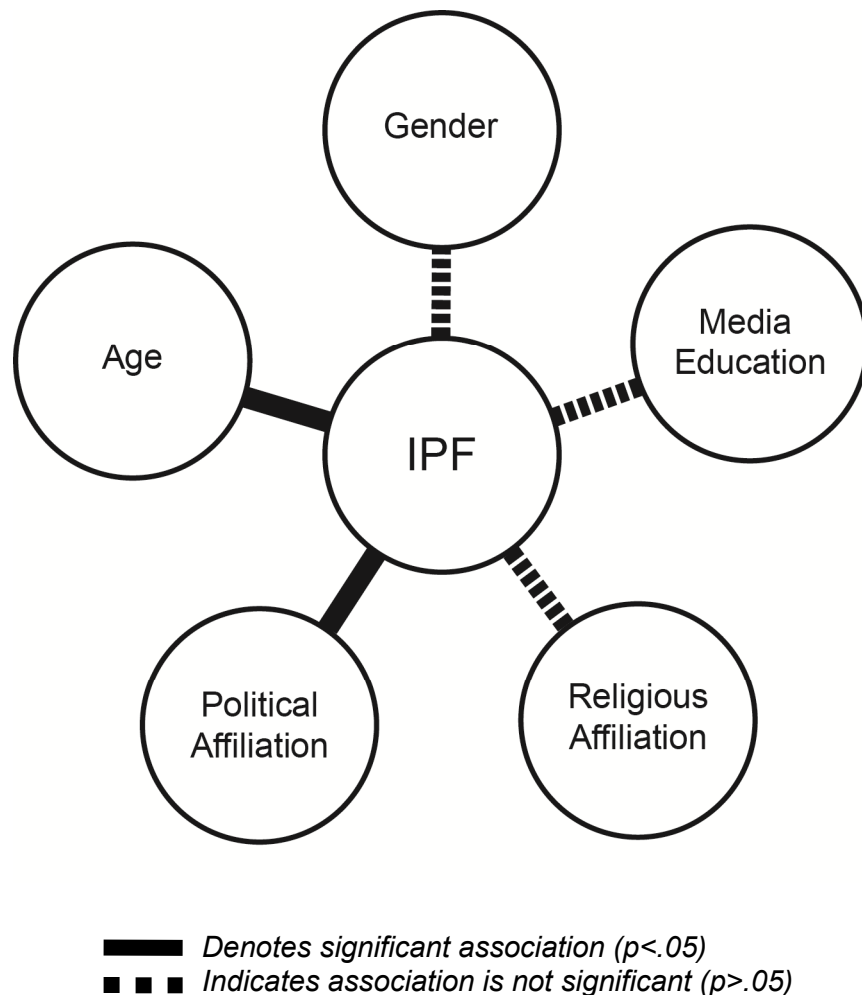
Professional freedom of journalists in Kerala is tested for its association with journalists' personal and professional characteristics. Below are the results and the tenability of the respective subdivisions of research hypothesis 1.

H1.a: IPF of journalists in Kerala will be interconnected with their personal characteristics.

IPF mean scores of all the categories of the five personal characteristics under study are apparently in a similar range. However, two characteristics – age and political

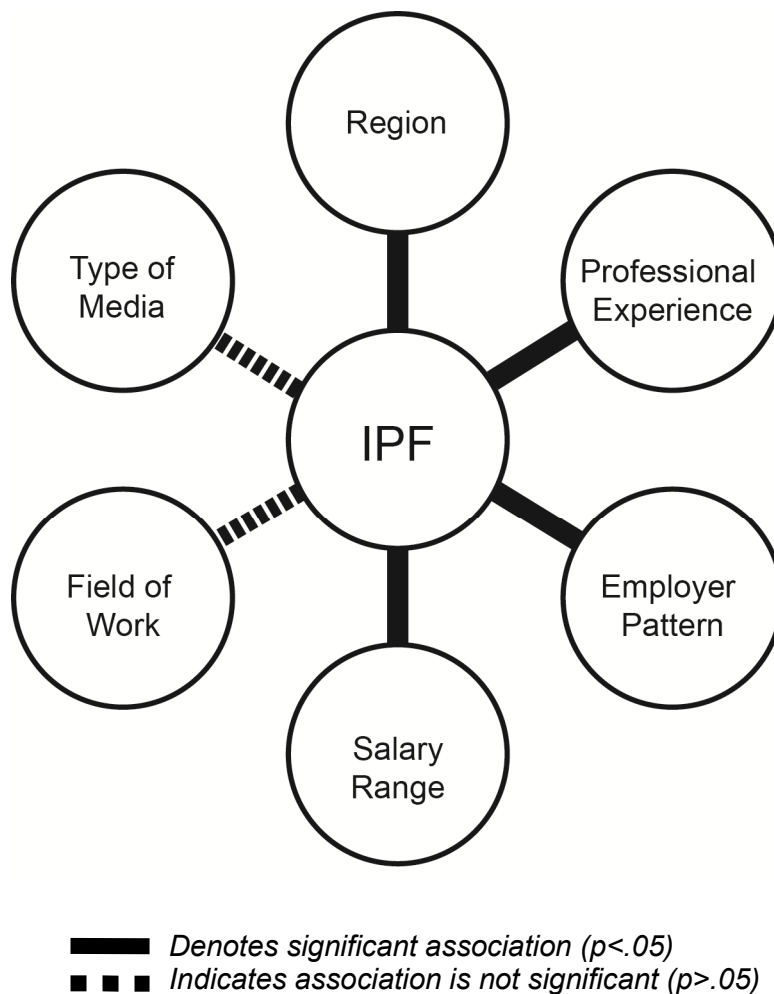
affiliation - were found to have a significant influence on determining the level of IPF of journalists. All other variables such as gender, media education and religious affiliation had no statistically significant influence in determining the IPF score of journalists. The results are depicted in Figure 4.8. Hence the H1.a that IPF of journalists in Kerala is associated with their personal characteristics is partly supported by the study in terms of age and political affiliation.

Figure 4.8: IPF and Personal Characteristics



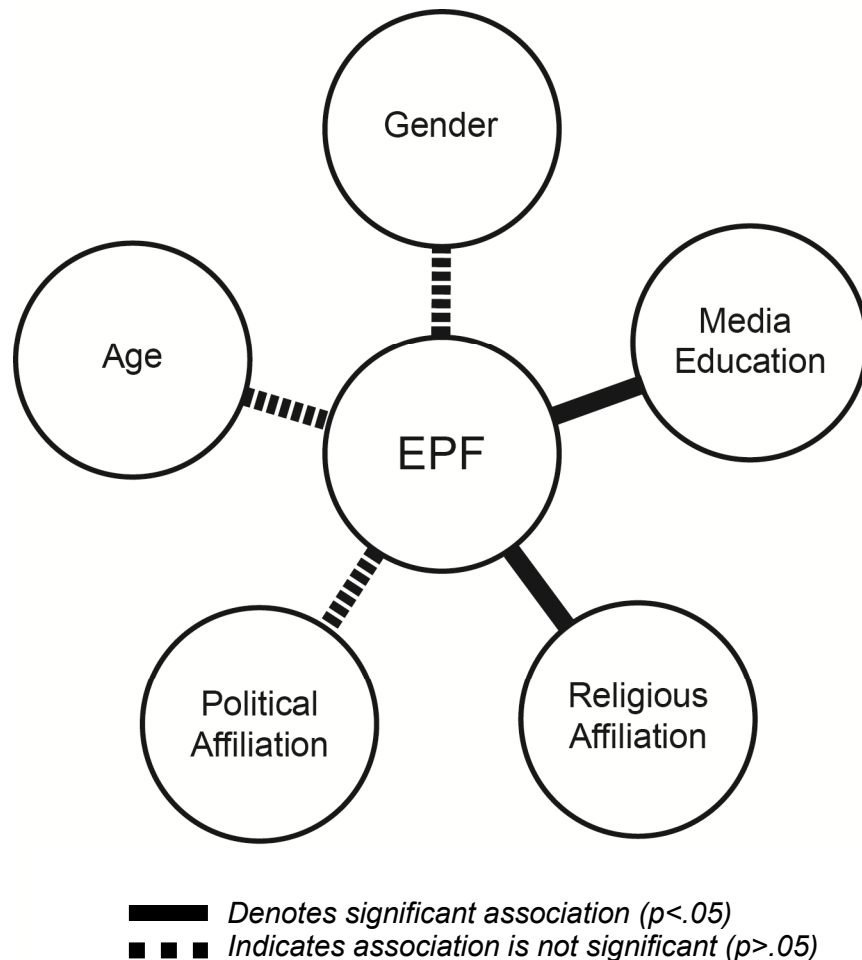
H1.b: *IPF of journalists in Kerala will be linked with their professional characteristics*

From the Figure 4.9, it can be deduced that IPF enjoyed by journalists in Kerala is defined by their professional characteristics like region, professional experience, salary range, and employer pattern. The result also showed that type of media and field of work had no significant bearing on their IPF. Consequently, the H1.b that IPF of journalists in Kerala is associated with their professional characteristics is found to be partly true.

Figure 4.9: IPF and Professional Characteristics

H1.c: *EPF of journalists in Kerala will be related to their personal characteristics*

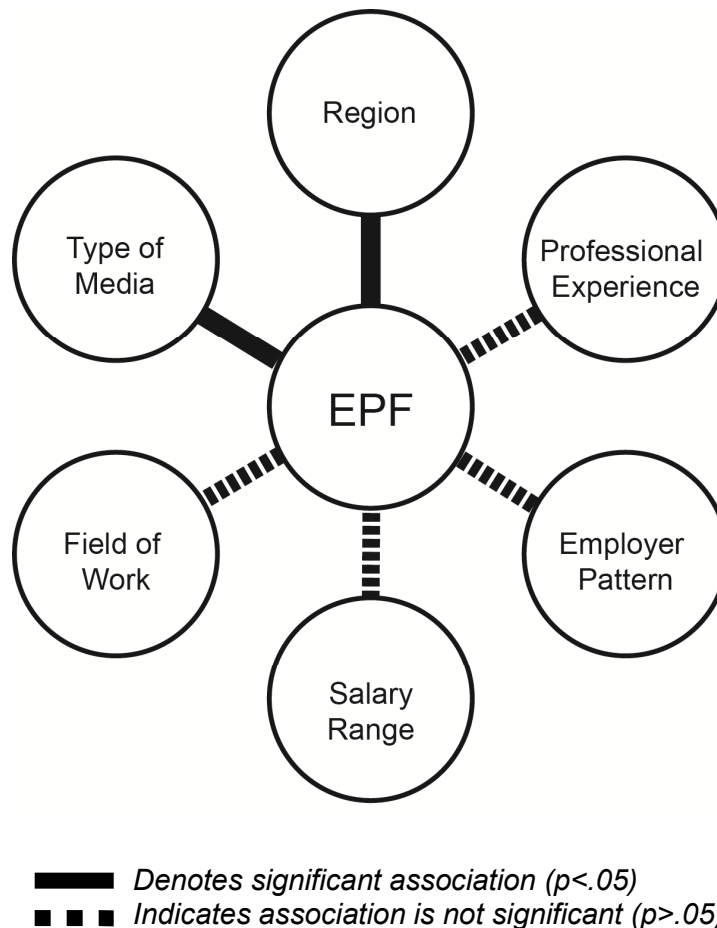
The results (Figure 4.10) indicate that media education and religious affiliation were the personal characteristics that reported statistically significant differences between the groups in EPF score while differences between the categories of gender, age and political affiliation reported being not significant. So the H1.c of the study that EPF of journalists in Kerala is associated with their personal characteristics is partly held in the tests.

Figure 4.10: EPF and Personal Characteristics

H1.d: EPF of journalists in Kerala will be connected with their professional characteristics

It is inferred from the analysis (Figure 4.11) that the external professional freedom of journalists in Kerala was affected by region and type of media while the other professional characteristics like professional experience, salary range, the field of work, and employer pattern had no significant bearing on EPF. As a result, the H1.d that EPF of journalists in Kerala is associated with their professional characteristics is supported partly by the study.

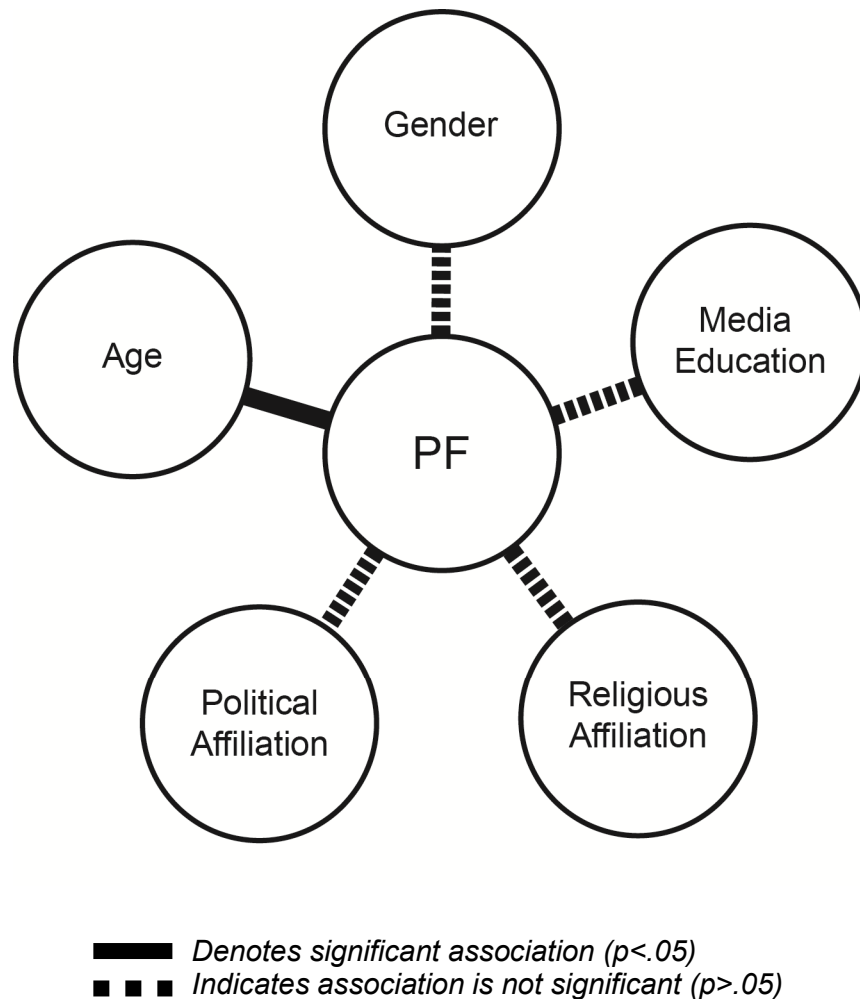
Figure 4.11: EPF and Professional Characteristics



H1.e: *PF of journalists in Kerala will be related to their personal characteristics*

From the results shown in Figure 4.12, it could be concluded that personal characteristics had no significant bearing on the professional freedom (PF) of journalists in Kerala with an exception of age groups of which no specific pattern was reported. The findings partly supported the H1.E of the study that PF of journalists in Kerala is associated with their personal characteristics.

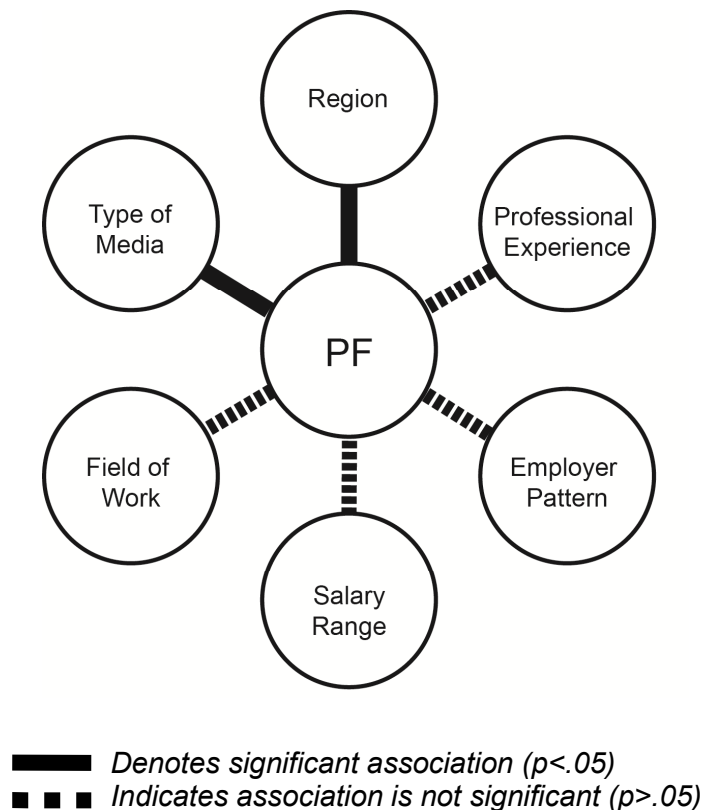
Figure 4.12: PF and Personal Characteristics



H1.f: *PF of journalists in Kerala will be interrelated with their professional characteristics*

From the results, it is evident that PF enjoyed by the journalists in Kerala was dependent on the type of media and region of work. Journalists belonging to outside Kerala region enjoyed significantly higher professional freedom than their counterparts in three regions in the state. Similarly, of four types of media, journalists working in radio reported higher PF than their counterparts in television, newspapers, and online media. Other professional characteristics like professional experience, salary range, the field of work, and employer pattern had no significant influence on PF. Though not statistically significant, very close were the associations between the levels of PF with journalists' range of salary and between the levels of PF with organization's employer pattern of the sampled journalists. And the H1.f of the study that PF of journalists in Kerala is associated with their professional characteristics are found to be partly true.

Figure 4.13: PF and Professional Characteristics



Hence the H1 that stated professional freedom of journalists in Kerala is likely to be associated with their personal and professional characteristics is partly supported by the study.

PROFESSIONAL SATISFACTION (PS)

Professional Satisfaction (PS) is the extent to which one is feeling good and committed to his /her job. It is generally defined as the sum of the positive influence that individuals have toward their profession. In simple terms, professional satisfaction is the extent to which people like their profession. Moreover, professional satisfaction is a work attitude that is defined variously by researchers in the field highlighting different aspects of the profession as they perceive it (Lu, H., Barriball, K. L., Zhang, X. & While, A. E., 2012). For Happock, the proponent of the term, job satisfaction is a combination of psychological and environmental circumstances in which a person truthful to proclaim that s/he is satisfied with the job (Singh, 1994). Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as “the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one’s job values.”

Professional satisfaction and dissatisfaction respectively caused to increase and decrease of quality and productivity of the work and so are important for employers as well. Alarmingly, job satisfaction dropped over the years in the field of journalism as observed by Deprez and Raeymaeckers (2012). As PS is conceived a multidimensional concept, a person may be content with one or more aspects of the profession but may be unhappy with one or more other aspects at the same time.

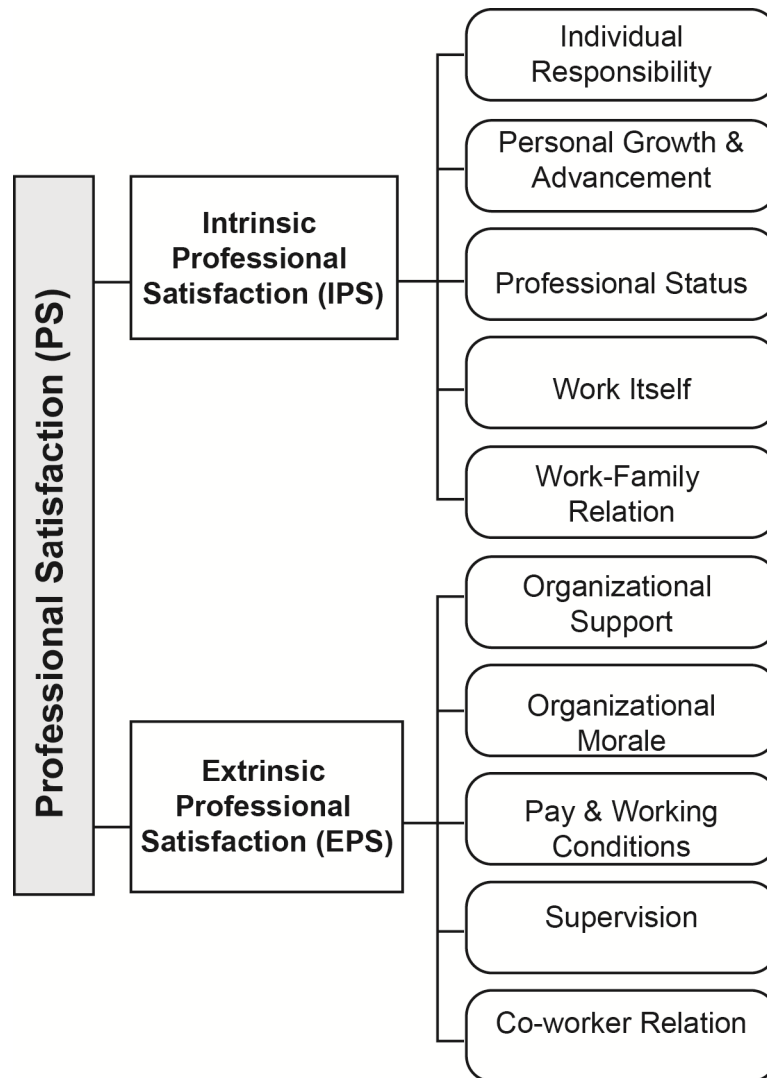
To investigate the degree of professional satisfaction (PS) perceived by the media persons in Kerala was one of the objectives of this study. The shift of mass media to business after it was conceived as a social service by the nationalists during Indian independence struggle was inevitable. And so were the changing aspirations of being a journalist. Hence the journalistic profession is no more a ‘service above personal gain’ in the present media scenario (Reinardy, 2009). Taking this into consideration, it is interesting to know the degree of satisfaction journalists in Kerala have in their profession.

Inspired from the Herzberg's Two-factor theory, Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Model, Situational Occurrences Theory, and Self Determination Theory, the professional satisfaction of Kerala journalists is measured grounding on its intrinsic and extrinsic components. Data from this study will definitely explore how capable the media in the state is to satisfy its workforce. The study also examined the nature of the association between PS of journalists in Kerala and their personal as well as professional characteristics.

Conceptual Model of Professional Satisfaction of Journalists

Being one of the most important constructs in the study, professional satisfaction (PS) is envisaged as the culmination of two components: Intrinsic Professional Satisfaction (IPS) and Extrinsic Professional Satisfaction (EPS) with their respective contributing factors. Contributing factors to IPS were work itself, personal growth & advancement, individual responsibility, professional status and work-family relation. Pay and working conditions, organizational morale, organizational support, supervision and co-worker relation were the extrinsic factors of professional satisfaction. Based on these components and factors, the researcher advances a model to understand this conceptualization better (Figure 4.14).

As stated professional satisfaction (PS) was conceived as a construct integrating both intrinsic professional satisfaction (IPS) and extrinsic professional satisfaction (EPS). The model shows that there are five factors each under intrinsic and extrinsic components. 40 items across five factors under each component were measured on a 5-point Likert-like scale with item-wise scores ranging from -2 (strongly disagree) to 2 (strongly agree) assuming that the 'neither satisfied nor dissatisfied' position as neutral/valueless. As a result, IPS and EPS were calculated on a scale ranging from -40 to 40 with three levels (-40 to -13.01 = low; -13 to 13 = moderate; 13.01 to 40 = high). Understandably, professional satisfaction was measured on a scale ranging from -80 to 80 with three levels (-80 to -26.01 = low; -26 to 26 = moderate; 26.01 to 80 = high).

Figure 4.14: Professional Satisfaction (Conceptual Model)

The ranges of scores of the components/factors/items on the scale were equally divided into three to determine the range of satisfaction scores such as low, moderate and high. Succeeding section details the result of data analysis of the degree of professional satisfaction (PS) enjoyed by the sampled journalists in Kerala.

Professional Satisfaction (PS)

From the Table 4.29, it is evident that professional satisfaction of journalists in Kerala (PS) which is conceived as a combination of IPS and EPS, is at a moderate level (M =

11.76, SD = 26.09) of -26 to 26. When compared to EPS (M = 5.21, SD = 12.72) IPS (M = 6.55, SD = 14.19) was found to contribute more to PS.

Table 4.29: Professional Satisfaction of Journalists

Type of Satisfaction	Mean*	Std. Error	Std. Deviation
Intrinsic Professional Satisfaction	6.55	.61	14.19
Extrinsic Professional Satisfaction	5.21	.55	12.72
PS in general	11.76	1.122	26.09

**Range of score in IPS and EPS is -40 to 40 with three levels (-40 to -13.01 = low; -13 to 13 = moderate; 13.01 to 40 = high) & Range of score in PS is -80 to 80 with three levels (-80 to -26.01 = low; -26 to 26 = moderate; 26.01 to 80 = high).*

And, this finding is supported by the studies of Jenkins (1994), Pokrywczynski & Crowley (1997), Akhavan-Majid (1998), and Greenberg et al. (2007). However, Raeymaeckers (2012) reported that a negative shift in professional satisfaction of media persons was visible in longitudinal studies.

The study further looks into the nature of the components of professional satisfaction: intrinsic professional satisfaction (IPS) and extrinsic professional satisfaction (EPS). Detailed accounts of their status are given in the following section.

Intrinsic Professional Satisfaction (IPS)

Intrinsic Professional Satisfaction (IPS) referring to the internal enjoyment or satisfaction of journalists contingent upon the factors like work itself, personal growth & advancement, individual responsibility, professional status and work-family relations. Thus the IPS factors capture the internal satisfaction journalists feel in the very profession rather than the tangible rewards they receive.

Each factor of IPS consisted of 4 items marked on a 5-point Likert-like scale. The item mean was elicited from a scale ranging from -2 to 2 (-2 to -.70 = low; -.69 to .69 = moderate; .70 to 2 = high), while factor means were calculated from a scale ranging from -8 to 8 (-8 to -2.01 = low; -2 to 2 = moderate; 2.01 to 8 = high). In total, the IPS scale was calculated on a scale ranging from -40 to 40 (-40 to -13.01 = low; -13 to 13 = moderate; 13.01 to 40 = high). To obtain low, moderate and high levels of satisfaction, the ranges of scores of the component/factor/item on the scale were equally divided into three.

Table 4.30: Contributing Factors of IPS

Contributing Items to Factors	Mean*	SD
Contributing Factor 1: Work Itself	2.13	3.15
<i>Variety of the work</i>	.44	1.05
<i>Meaningfulness of tasks</i>	.23	.97
<i>Quality of professional environment</i>	.71	1.09
<i>Social service orientation</i>	.76	1.05
Contributing Factor 2: Personal Growth & Advancement	.73	3.28
<i>Chances for Career advancement</i>	.47	1.04
<i>Personal development through career</i>	-.11	1.11
<i>Opportunities for skill development</i>	.27	.83
<i>Chances to grow as an ideal journalist</i>	.09	1.04
Contributing Factor 3: Individual Responsibility	2.04	3.38
<i>Chance of contribution to news selection and presentation</i>	.46	.96
<i>Higher-ups' Recognition for the work</i>	.54	1.07
<i>Autonomy in discharging journalistic duties</i>	.51	1.08
<i>Autonomy in planning work</i>	.52	.95
Contributing Factor 4: Professional Status	1.48	3.53
<i>Social recognition personally gets as a journalist</i>	.60	1.19
<i>Organization's position in the news market</i>	.65	1.08
<i>Job security</i>	-.04	1.24
<i>Status of journalistic profession in Kerala</i>	.27	1.02
Contributing Factor 5: Work-Family Relations	.59	3.38
<i>Chances to do work at home</i>	.03	.99
<i>Time to spend with family</i>	.21	1.12
<i>Family-friendly policies of the organization</i>	.19	1.02
<i>Family's support to the profession</i>	.16	1.13
Intrinsic Professional Satisfaction (Sum of scores of five contributing factors)	6.55	14.19

*Range of score in each contributing factor of IPS is -8 to 8 with three levels (-8 to -2.01 = low; -2 to 2 = moderate ; 2.01 to 8 = high) & Range of score in each item is -2 to 2 with three levels (-2 to -.70 = low; -.69 to .69 = moderate; .70 to 2 = high).

Though the factors of work itself ($M = 2.13$, $SD = 3.15$) and individual responsibility ($M = 2.04$, $SD = 3.38$) registered high level of satisfaction, journalists in Kerala reported moderate level ($R = -13$ to 13) of intrinsic professional satisfaction ($M = 6.55$, $SD = 14.19$) as the mean scores of other factors including personal growth & advancement ($M = .73$, $SD = 3.28$), professional status ($M = 1.48$, $SD = 3.53$) and work-family relations ($M = .59$, $SD = 3.38$) are found to be in the moderate range of -2 to 2. Of these, the most influencing factor is profession itself, while the least contributing factor was a work-family relation. The data showed that journalists in Kerala are more satisfied with profession related factors like work itself and work-related individual responsibility than the factors like social status and work-family relations. In other words, the sampled journalists perceive their profession not suitable for a balanced life between family and work. Also, they consider their job fails to offer a better social status.

Performance of each contributing factor of IPS is gauged using item analysis and detailed in the following sessions:

Work Itself

Work itself is the contentment journalist gets from the very profession in terms of variety, meaningfulness, and quality and social service orientation of the profession. Work itself consisted of four statements: 'Variety in the work,' 'Meaningfulness of tasks,' 'Quality of professional environment,' and 'Social service orientation.' The Cronbach alpha for work itself is 0.751.

Satisfaction from work itself ($M = 2.13$, $SD = 3.15$) of journalists in Kerala is high as the contribution of two items like social service orientation ($M = .76$, $SD = 1.05$) and quality of professional environment ($M = .71$, $SD = 1.09$) were high while the contribution of the other two items such as variety of the work ($M = .44$, $SD = 1.05$), and meaningfulness of tasks ($M = .23$, $SD = .97$) were within the moderate range of -.70 to .70. It can be concluded from the data that journalistic profession loses variety and thus is fast becoming monotonous and resultantly perceived to be meaningless still the profession's social service perspective and quality of its environment gives the profession some attraction.

Personal Growth & Advancement

Personal growth and advancement mean the chances for personal development a journalist gets as part of his professional life. Professional growth and advancement scale was developed with four items: 'Chances for career advancement,' 'Personal development through career,' 'Opportunities for skill development,' and 'Chances to grow as an ideal journalist.' The Cronbach alpha for personal growth & advancement is 0.830.

Journalists in Kerala had a moderate level of satisfaction in personal growth and advancement ($M = .73$, $SD = 3.28$) as the mean scores of all items including personal development through career ($M = -.11$, $SD = 1.11$), chances for career advancement ($M = .47$, $SD = 1.04$), opportunities for skill development ($M = .27$, $SD = .27$), and chances to grow as an ideal journalist ($M = .09$, $SD = 1.04$) were within the moderate range of $-.70$ to $.70$.

Individual Responsibility

Satisfaction with Individual responsibility means the gratification a journalist gets from individually discharging his/her duties in various capacities in the media organization and the concept is measured on a four-item scale based on the statements such as: 'Chance of contribution to news selection and presentation,' 'Higher-ups' recognition for the work,' 'Autonomy in discharging journalistic duties,' and 'Autonomy in planning work.' The Cronbach alpha for individual responsibility is 0.852.

The sampled journalists perceived high level of individual responsibility ($M = 2.04$, $SD = 3.38$) though its items such as chance of contribution to news selection and presentation ($M = .46$, $SD = .96$), higher-ups' recognition for the work ($M = .54$, $SD = 1.07$), autonomy in discharging journalistic duties ($M = .51$, $SD = 1.08$), and autonomy in planning work ($M = .52$, $SD = .95$) contributed moderately to the factor within the range of $-.70$ to $.70$.

Professional Status

Journalists' satisfaction with the social status of their profession and recognition of their organization is encapsulated in the term professional status. It was measured using

five-item scale using statements like 'Social recognition personally gets as a journalist,' 'Organization's position in the news market,' 'Job security,' and 'Status of the Journalistic profession in Kerala.' The Cronbach alpha for professional status is 0.821.

The Level of satisfaction with professional status of the sampled journalists was moderate ($M = 1.48$, $SD = 3.53$) as the items including social recognition personally gets as a journalist ($M = .60$, $SD = 1.19$), organization's position in the news market ($M = .65$, $SD = 1.08$), job security ($M = -.04$, $SD = 1.24$), and status of journalistic profession in Kerala ($M = .27$, $SD = 1.02$) contributed to the factor within the moderate range of $-.70$ to $.70$.

Work-Family Relations

Satisfaction with work-family relations means how journalists are comfortable in balancing life between family and work spending meaningful time with family without compromising professional responsibilities. The satisfaction level is measured using four statements: 'Chances to do work at home,' 'Time to spend with family,' 'Family-friendly policies of the organization,' and 'Family's support to the profession.' The Cronbach alpha for work-family relations is 0.805.

Satisfaction with work-family relations of media professionals in Kerala was moderate ($M .59$, $SD = 3.38$) as its items including chances to do work at home ($M = .03$, $SD = .99$), time to spend with family ($M = .21$, $SD = 1.12$), family friendly policies of the organization ($M = .19$, $SD = 1.02$), and family's support to the profession ($M = .16$, $SD = 1.13$) contributed moderately to the factor within the range of $-.70$ to $.70$.

Extrinsic Professional Satisfaction (EPS)

We have seen what all factors and items contributed to the intrinsic professional satisfaction of journalists in Kerala so far. Now let us see the factors and items that contribute to the extrinsic professional satisfaction in detail. Extrinsic Professional Satisfaction (EPS) refers to the journalists' satisfaction with the external professional environment based on the factors like pay & working conditions, organizational morale, organizational support, supervision and co-worker relations which may include tangible rewards. In this way, extrinsic professional satisfaction deals more with organizational and journalistic professional environment (Willnat & Weaver, 2014).

Extrinsic Professional Satisfaction (EPS) was measured using five factors: pay & working conditions, organizational morale, organizational support, supervision and co-worker relation. Each factor consisted of 4 items on a 5-point Likert-like scale. Item score was determined using a scale ranging from -2 to 2 with three levels (-2 to -.70 = low; -.69 to .69 = moderate; .70 to 2 = high), while the factor scores were measured using a scale ranging from -8 to 8 with three levels (-8 to -2.01 = low; -2 to 2 = moderate; 2.01 to 8 = high). Thus, the EPS was calculated on a scale ranging from -40 to 40 with three levels (-40 to -13.01 = low; -13 to 13 = moderate; 13.01 to 40 = high). Levels of satisfaction were determined by equally dividing the concerned range of score of the component/factor/item scale into three.

Journalists in Kerala enjoyed (see table 4.32) a moderate level ($R = -13$ to 13) of extrinsic professional satisfaction ($M = 5.21$, $SD = 12.72$) as the mean scores of all the contributing factors – pay and working conditions ($M = -1.35$, $SD = 3.75$), organizational support ($M = 1.63$, $SD = 3.84$), supervision ($M = 1.91$, $SD = 3.13$), and co-worker relations ($M = 1.76$, $SD = 3.51$) – contributed moderately to the component with an exception of organizational morale ($M = 2.56$, $SD = 3.82$) of which the level of contribution fell in the high range of 2.01 to 8. Of the five contributing factors of extrinsic professional satisfaction, pay & working conditions contributed the least. It is logical to infer that journalists in Kerala are well to their natural expectations and the working conditions in media are not as good as they expected.

Performance of contributing factors including their respective items of Extrinsic Professional Satisfaction (EPS) is detailed below.

Pay & Working Conditions

Satisfaction with pay and working conditions of journalists means the contentment journalist has in their current working environment with all its aspects including salary. To measure pay and working conditions, a four-item scale was used. The items were: 'Work schedule,' 'Work-salary proportion,' 'Quality of work environment,' and 'Welfare schemes.' The Cronbach alpha for pay & working conditions is 0.856.

Table 4.31: Contributing Factors to EPS

Contributing Factors to Items	Mean*	SD
Contributing Factor 1: Pay & Working Conditions	-1.35	3.75
<i>Work schedule</i>	-.55	1.02
<i>Work-salary proportion</i>	-.13	1.12
<i>Quality of work environment</i>	-.52	1.07
<i>Welfare schemes</i>	-.16	1.27
Contributing Factor 2: Organizational Morale	2.56	3.82
<i>Social commitment to the organization</i>	.69	1.07
<i>Organization's commitment to media ethics</i>	.69	1.06
<i>Editorial policy</i>	.59	1.09
<i>Openness to criticism</i>	.60	1.19
Contributing Factor 3: Organizational Support	1.63	3.84
<i>Organizational support in crisis situations</i>	.54	1.10
<i>Organizational approach to employees' unions</i>	.39	1.07
<i>Organization's consideration for personal values</i>	.36	1.12
<i>Organization's recognition for personal achievements</i>	.34	1.08
Contributing Factor 4: Supervision	1.91	3.13
<i>Just and fair supervision</i>	.31	1.14
<i>Efficiency of the Supervisors</i>	.43	1.10
<i>Supervisor's commitment to journalistic values</i>	.71	1.13
<i>Mending facilities</i>	.46	.79
Contributing Factor 5: Co-worker Relations	1.76	3.51
<i>Friendliness of colleagues</i>	.36	1.00
<i>Co-workers' commitment to the profession</i>	.37	1.00
<i>Team playing culture in the organization</i>	.44	1.07
<i>Recognition from colleagues</i>	.58	.99
Extrinsic Professional Satisfaction (Sum of scores of five contributing factors)	5.21	12.72

*Range of score in each contributing factor of EPS is -8 to 8 with three levels (-8 to -2.01 = low; -2 to 2 = moderate; 2.01 to 8 = high) & Range of score in each item is -2 to 2 with three levels (-2 to -.70 = low; -.69 to .69 = moderate; .70 to 2 = high).

Journalists were moderately satisfied with the pay and working conditions ($M = -1.35$, $SD = 3.75$) as all the four items like work schedule ($M = -.55$, $SD = 1.02$) and quality of work environment ($M = -.52$, $SD = 1.07$), welfare schemes ($M = -.16$, $SD = 1.27$), and work-salary proportion ($M = -.13$, $SD = 1.12$) contributed to the factor within the moderate range of $-.70$ to $.70$.

Organizational Morale

Organizational morale is perceived as the attitude journalist forms considering the organization's commitment to the society, journalistic objectivity, editorial policy and its openness to criticism. Organizational morale was a four statement scale including: 'Social commitment of the organization,' 'Organization's commitment to media ethics,' 'Editorial policy,' and 'Openness to criticism.' The Cronbach alpha for organizational morale is 0.890.

High satisfaction of journalists with organizational morale ($M = 2.56$, $SD = 3.82$) was found to be in the moderate range ($-.70$ to $.70$). The item wise analysis showed that social commitment of the organization ($M = .69$, $SD = 1.07$), organization's commitment to media ethics ($M = .69$, $SD = 1.06$), openness to criticism ($M = .60$, $SD = 1.19$), and editorial policy ($M = .59$, $SD = 1.09$) are almost equal and in the moderate range.

Organizational Support

Organizational support indicates the institutional policy that values the personal and collective life of journalists. The scale to measure this factor had four statements such as: 'Organizational support in crisis situations,' 'Organizational approach to employees' unions,' 'Organization's consideration for personal values,' and 'Organization's recognition for personal achievements.' The Cronbach alpha for organizational support is 0.902.

Satisfaction of journalists in Kerala with the factor of organizational support was moderate ($M = 1.63$, $SD = 3.84$) with items contributing as follows: Organizational support in crisis situations ($M = .54$, $SD = 1.10$), organizational approach to employees' unions ($M = .39$, $SD = 1.07$), organization's consideration for personal values ($M = .36$, $SD = 1.12$), and organization's recognition for personal achievements ($M = .34$, $SD =$

1.08). All the means scores of the items were found to be within the moderate range of -.70 to .70.

Supervision

Satisfaction with supervision is the fulfilment and conformability journalists enjoy when they are monitored and directed by higher-ups during their work hours. The supervision measurement included items such as: 'Just and fair supervision,' 'Efficiency of the supervisors,' 'Supervisor's commitment to journalistic values,' and 'Mending facilities.' The Cronbach alpha for supervision is 0.732.

Media professionals in Kerala were having moderate level of satisfaction with the factor of supervision ($M = 1.91$, $SD = 3.13$) as it was determined by the moderate range of (-.70 to .70) contribution of the items like mending facilities ($M = .46$, $SD = .79$), efficiency of the supervisors ($M = .43$, $SD = 1.10$), and just and fair supervision ($M = .31$, $SD = 1.14$) despite supervisor's commitment to journalistic values ($M = .71$, $SD = 1.13$) that contributed highly to the factor.

Co-Worker Relations

Co-worker relations encapsulate the relation of journalists with their colleagues by all means. Co-worker relations scale was consisted of: 'Friendliness of colleagues,' 'Co-workers' commitment to the profession,' 'Team playing culture in the organization,' and 'Recognition from colleagues.' The Cronbach alpha for co-worker relations is 0.887.

Moderate was the level of satisfaction of journalists in Kerala with co-worker relations ($M = 1.76$, $SD = 3.51$) as the mean scores of its contributing items such as recognition from colleagues ($M = .58$, $SD = .99$), team playing culture in the organization ($M = .44$, $SD = 1.07$), co-workers' commitment to the profession ($M = .37$, $SD = 1.00$) and friendliness of colleagues ($M = .36$, $SD = 1.00$) were within the moderate range of -.70 to .70.

From the results, it is revealed that journalists in Kerala enjoyed a moderate level of professional satisfaction ($M = 11.76$, $SD = 26.09$). When it comes to the components of PS, intrinsic professional satisfaction ($M = 6.55$, $SD = 14.19$) of the sampled journalists was slightly higher than that of their extrinsic professional

satisfaction ($M = 5.21$, $SD = 12.72$). Though the journalistic profession offers less attractive monetary benefits as well as employee-friendly packages, its potency as a catalyst of social change might have caused the sampled journalists to report more IPS than EPS.

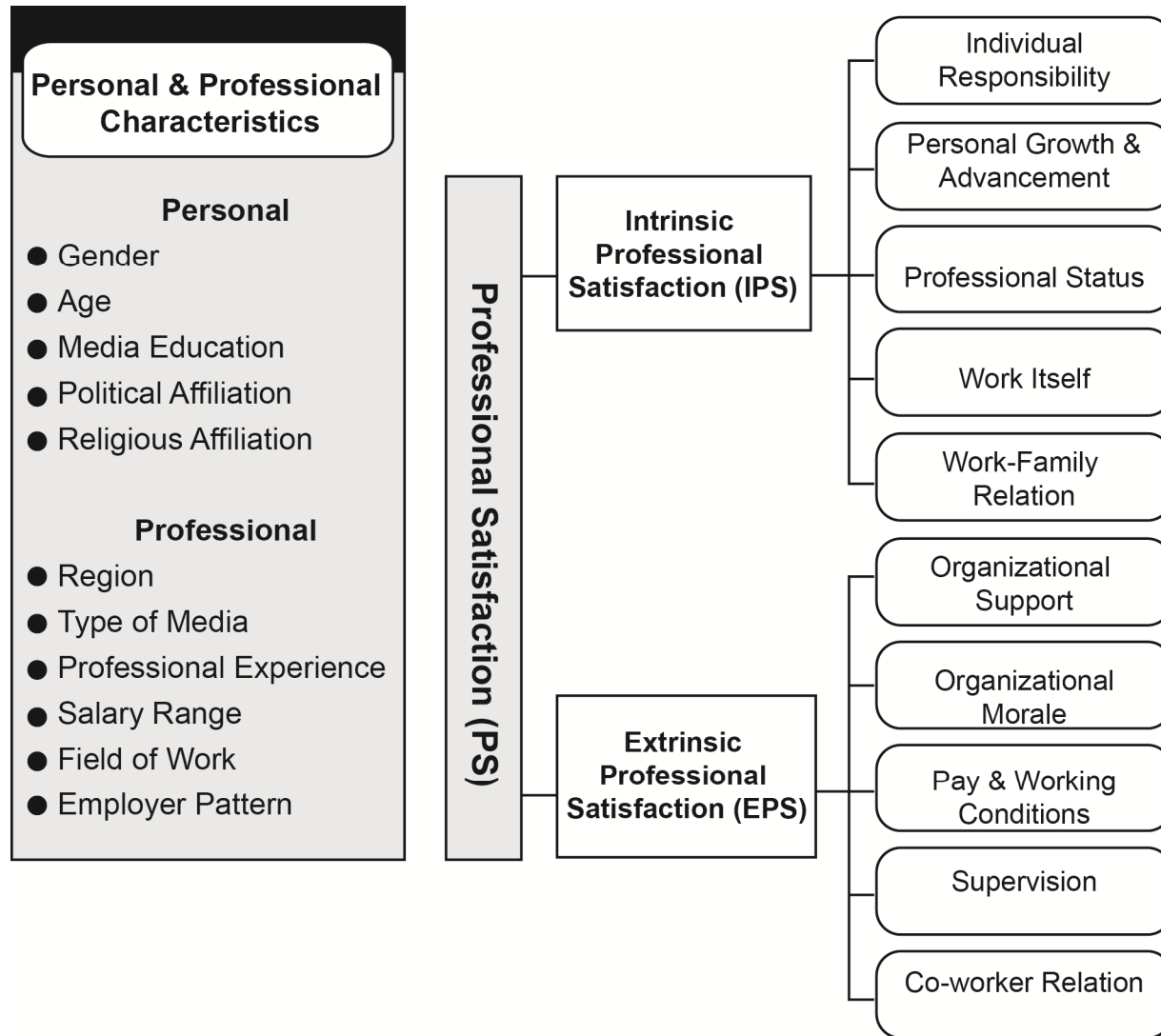
When considering internal professional satisfaction, work itself ($M = 2.13$, $SD = 3.15$) and individual responsibility ($M = 2.04$, $SD = 3.38$) registered high level of satisfaction followed respectively by professional status ($M = 1.48$, $SD = 3.53$) and personal growth & advancement ($M = .73$, $SD = 3.28$) while the least contributing factor was work-family relations ($M = .59$, $SD = 3.38$).

This can be attributed to journalists' passion towards the profession and that they would like to have more control over what they produce. On the other hand, journalism is not a family-friendly profession considering the tight work schedule and inadequate salary.

Of the five contributing factors of extrinsic professional satisfaction, organizational morale ($M = 2.56$, $SD = 3.82$) was the most contributing factor followed respectively by supervision ($M = 1.91$, $SD = 3.13$), co-worker relations ($M = 1.76$, $SD = 3.51$), and organizational support ($M = 1.63$, $SD = 3.84$). Pay and working conditions ($M = -1.35$, $SD = 3.75$) contributed the least to EPS. The reason why Kerala journalists were satisfied with the organizational morale factor is that organizational ideology, policy and philosophy were not in conflict with journalists' perspective. In general, the journalists' perception is that they were not provided with a proper salary and working facilities to meet their familial and professional needs.

In the forthcoming part the researcher analyses the data to explore how personal antecedents of journalists influence their professional satisfaction including its components, both IPS and EPS.

Figure 4.15: Professional Satisfaction and Personal & Professional Characteristics (Conceptual Model)



Professional Satisfaction and Personal and Professional Characteristics

Following the third objective, the study sought how personal antecedents of the sampled journalists interrelate with their mean scores of Professional Satisfaction (PS) and its components - Intrinsic Professional Satisfaction (IPS) and Extrinsic Professional Satisfaction (EPS). The personal and professional characteristics of journalists are identified as satisfaction predictors by previous studies - starting from Samuelson's (1962) work on American journalists to Lucht's (2015) study on journalists of Iowa - across the globe. Such a discussion will give more intuitions into the personal professional characteristics that explain the satisfaction enjoyed by journalists in Kerala in discharging their professional responsibilities. The Conceptual Model of Professional Satisfaction has been revised, integrating the personal antecedents (see Figure 4.15).

As seen in the graphical model, the present study categorized personal antecedents into two: Personal Characteristics and Professional Characteristics. Personal characteristics were: gender (male, female, and LGBT), age (below 30, 30-39, 40-49, and 50 & above), media education (educated & not educated), political affiliation (affiliated & not affiliated), and religious affiliation (affiliated & not affiliated).

Professional characteristics taken for this study consisted of: region (south, central, north, & outside Kerala), type of media (Radio, Television, Newspaper, & Online), professional experience (upto 5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years, & above 20 years), monthly salary range (below Rs. 10000, Rs. 10001-20000, Rs. 20001-30000, Rs. 30001-50000, & above 50000), field of work (reporting, editing, news management, & photography/videography), and employer pattern (public & private).

Differences across the personal antecedents in terms of professional satisfaction (PS) and its factors of intrinsic professional satisfaction (IPS) and extrinsic professional satisfaction (EPS) were tested and the following section reports the results profoundly.

Intrinsic Professional Satisfaction and Personal Characteristics

The interrelation between the personal characteristics of the sampled journalists and their mean scores of professional satisfaction is an important aspect of this study. Personal characteristics have been observed as content moderators of PS by

researchers like Miller et al. (1995), Smucker, Whisenant, and Pedersen (2003), Reinardy (2007), Greenberg et al. (2007), and Raeymaeckers (2012).

Table 4.32: Mean Scores of IPS by Personal Characteristics

Group Statistics						ANOVA Results				
Personal Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	Between/ Within Groups	Sum of Squares	DF	F	Sig.
Gender	Male	449	6.71	14.47	.68	Between Groups	108.13	2	.268	.765
	Female	84	5.55	12.59	1.37					
	LGBT	8	7.75	15.62	5.52	Within Groups	108657.82	538		
Age	Below 30	201	5.35	13.04	.92	Between Groups	3820.24	3	6.516	.000*
	30-39	210	5.00	14.64	1.01					
	40-49	91	12.27	14.21	1.49					
	50 & above	39	7.67	14.47	2.32	Within Groups	104945.71	537		
Total		541	6.55	14.19	.61	Total	108765.95	540		
Group statistics						T-Test Results				
Personal Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	DF		T	Sig. (2-tailed)	
Media Education	Yes	439	6.11	14.13	.67	539		-1.489	.137	
	No	102	8.43	14.40	1.43					
Political Affiliation	Yes	397	5.81	14.24	.72	539		-2.007	.045*	
	No	144	8.58	13.90	1.16					
Religious Affiliation	Yes	458	6.97	14.38	.67	539		1.621	.106	
	No	83	4.23	12.95	1.42					

*p < 0.05

Data revealed that LGBT journalists had highest mean score of IPS (M = 7.75, SD = 15.62) across genders followed respectively by male (M = 6.71, SD = 14.47) and female (M = 5.55, SD = 12.59) counterparts. Though the difference was not statistically significant (F (2, 538) = .268, p = .765), it is an indication to the changing social psyche of the Kerala society with regard to gender minorities. Again, better IPS level of male journalists than their female counterparts can be attributed to the extra effort female folk wanted to balance life and work. However, the finding was in line with the observation made on Finnish journalists by Raeymaeckers (2012) that gender is not a significant personal characteristic in deciding PS of media professionals.

Remarkably, a difference of mean score of IPS of journalists belonging to different age groups was found to be significant (F (3, 537) = 6.516, p = .000).

Journalists belonging to 40-49 year age group registered significantly higher IPS mean score ($M = 12.27$, $SD = 14.21$) than other age groups. It can be deduced from the table that there was an inverted N-shaped relation between the IPS mean scores of journalists and their age groups. Though age exposed as an influencing factor of IPS in confirmation with international journalists (Miller et al., 1995; Smucker, Whisenant, & Pedersen, 2003; Reinardy, 2007; Greenberg et al., 2007), this relation between age and professional satisfaction was not but curvilinear (Herzberg, 1957) or U-shaped (Clark, Oswald, & Warr, 1996). According to Herzberg, when a person starts a career, satisfaction is high. Satisfaction diminishes for several years and then begins to rise. To be specific, a person enters into the journalism field with high expectations of frequent rewards as s/he received during the days of education. But it occurs less frequently and his satisfaction declines. Later, s/he accepts it as normal and lowers expectations resulting in increased satisfaction.

Interestingly, journalists without professional education ($M = 8.41$, $SD = 14.40$) had higher IPS mean score than their counterparts ($M = 6.11$, $SD = 14.13$). However, the finding was not statistically significant ($t(539) = -1.489$, $p = .137$). Ideal expectations and uncompromising news values provided by media education might have led the professionally educated journalists to feel so as it collides with many everyday trade-offs in the profession. Hence the finding, in a way, backed the observation of Sachsman, Simon and Valenti (2008) that education and PS of journalists were negatively correlated.

Political affiliation had significant relation with IPS of media persons in Kerala ($t(539) = -2.007$, $p = .045$). Interestingly, journalists without political affiliation ($M = 8.58$, $SD = 13.90$) reported higher IPS than those who were not politically affiliated ($M = 5.81$, $SD = 14.24$). Vigoda (2000) observed a negative correlation between political affiliation and professional satisfaction. Politically charged journalists might have a better eye to notice the profit oriented and not citizen-oriented tendencies of the profession and the organization.

On the other hand, media professionals with religious affiliation had higher IPS mean score ($M = 6.97$, $SD = 14.38$) than those who were not religiously affiliated ($M = 4.23$, $SD = 12.95$) although the difference was not statistically significant ($t(539) =$

1.621, $p = .106$). The finding warrants further investigation to dig out the reason behind this result though Sachsman, Simon and Valenti (2008) testified that job satisfaction is positively correlated with religious affiliation.

Intrinsic Professional Satisfaction and Professional Characteristics

Having analyzed the interaction between personal characteristics and IPS of media professionals, IPS was tested for differences among categories of professional characteristics like region, type of media, professional experience, salary range and field of work using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and employer pattern using independent sample t-Test to identify the nature of influence.

The results reported in table 4.33 revealed that journalists working in different regions had no significant difference in their IPS score ($F(3, 537) = .731, p = .534$). Journalists working in South Kerala ($M = 7.72, SD = 15.11$) and in Outside Kerala ($M = 7.38, SD = 13.19$) reported to have higher IPS scores than that of their counterparts working in Central Kerala ($M = 5.99, SD = 14.05$) and North Kerala ($M = 5.65, SD = 13.72$). The abundance of news sources and chances to have good relationships with high profile leaders might have prompted the journalists from the capital regions (South Kerala – State capital & Outside Kerala – National capital) to express better IPS than journalists from rest of the regions.

On the other hand, differences across mean score of journalists of different type of media found to be statistically significant ($F(3, 537) = 3.040, p = .029$). Journalists in Radio had the highest IPS mean score ($M = 14.70, SD = 10.91$) while their counterparts working with online media ($M = 6.84, SD = 14.20$) and print media ($M = 6.55, SD = 14.35$) had less IPS score and television journalists ($M = 5.11, SD = 13.96$) professed the least IPS score. This can be attributed to the fact that radio, a public owned news media, provided its employees greater salary and security, important PS factors when compared with journalists in other media.

Table 4.33: Mean Scores of IPS by Professional Characteristics

Group Statistics						ANOVA Results				
Professional Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	Between/ Within Groups	Sum of squares	DF	F	Sig.
Region	South	164	7.72	15.11	1.18	Between Groups	442.34	3	.731	.534
	Central	161	5.99	14.05	1.11					
	North	163	5.65	13.72	1.07	Within Groups	108323.61	537		
	Outside Kerala	53	7.38	13.19	1.81					
Media	Radio	23	14.70	10.91	2.28	Between Groups	1816.32	3	3.040	.029*
	Television	138	5.11	13.96	1.19					
	Newspaper	337	6.55	14.35	.78	Within Groups	106949.64	537		
	Online	43	6.84	14.20	2.17					
Professional Experience	Upto 5 years	201	5.01	14.10	1.00	Between Groups	5003.25	4	6.461	.000*
	6-10 years	137	3.90	13.17	1.13					
	11-15 years	91	8.35	14.73	1.54	Within Groups	103762.70	536		
	16-20 years	54	8.06	14.02	1.91					
	Above 20 years	58	13.91	13.55	1.78					
Salary Range	Upto Rs.10000	81	1.65	13.27	1.47	Between Groups	6270.63	4	8.198	.000*
	Rs.10001-20000	207	6.10	14.04	.98					
	Rs.20001-30000	139	6.27	13.78	1.17	Within Groups	102495.32	536		
	Rs.30001-50000	79	8.52	15.19	1.71					
	Above Rs.50000	35	17.20	10.25	1.73					
Field of Work	Reporting	308	5.99	14.06	.80	Between Groups	888.75	3	1.475	.220
	Editing	145	6.59	14.08	1.17					
	News Mgt.	29	11.76	13.72	2.55	Within Groups	107877.20	537		
	Photo/Videography	59	6.81	15.20	1.98					
Total		541	6.55	14.19	.61	Total	108765.95	540		
Group Statistics						T-Test Results				
Personal Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	DF	T	Sig. (2-tailed)		
Employer Pattern	Public	25	14.88	10.61	2.12	539	3.028	.003*		
	Private	516	6.15	14.23	.63					

*p < 0.05

Similarly, journalists belonging to different categories of professional experience differed in their IPS mean score significantly (F (4, 536) = 6.461, p = .000). The most

experienced group of above 20 years reported having the highest IPS score ($M = 13.91$, $SD = 13.55$). There seen a decadal leap in IPS mean scores of journalists after completing every 10 years of their career. What could be the reason for such a result? A detailed study is needed to unearth the periodical IPS score change of journalists in Kerala incorporating all the challenges journalists face at different levels of their career.

Again, salary range of journalists in Kerala had a significant bearing on their perception of IPS ($F(4, 536) = 8.198$, $p = .000$). Expectedly, the higher the salary the higher was the IPS score journalists reported as journalists belonging to the highest salary range of above Rs. 50000 a month had the highest IPS mean score ($M = 17.20$, $SD = 10.25$) while the lowest salary range group of up to Rs.10000 professed the lowest IPS mean score ($M = 1.65$, $SD = 13.27$). It is quite natural that the higher the capacity of journalists to meet the economic needs - basic purpose of a human being to engage in a job - the higher will be their content on the job.

Yet another variable of interest was the field of work of the journalists but the difference across journalists working in different fields was not significant ($F(3, 537) = 1.475$, $p = .220$). However, journalists in the news management field had very high IPS mean score ($M = 11.76$, $SD = 13.72$) than that of their counterparts. This can be attributed to the internal autonomy journalists belonging to different fields of work enjoyed.

Considering employer pattern, journalists belonging to the public media had better IPS mean score ($M = 14.88$, $SD = 10.61$) than that of journalists in private media ($M = 6.15$, $SD = 14.23$) and the difference was statistically significant ($t(539) = 3.028$, $p = .003$) as revealed in independent t-test. Comparatively less competition and high job security and related benefits caused journalists from public media have better IPS than their counterparts in private media where competition and profit matter more.

Extrinsic Professional Satisfaction and Personal Characteristics

After examining the interaction of IPS with personal antecedents of sampled journalists, the study enquired the differences among various personal characteristics like gender, age, media education, political affiliation, and religious affiliation in relation with extrinsic professional satisfaction (EPS) of journalists in Kerala. Independent

sample t-Test and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were employed to analyze it as the case may be.

Table 4.34: Mean Scores of EPS and Personal Characteristics

Group Statistics						ANOVA Results				
Personal Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	Between/ Within Groups	Sum of Squares	DF	F	Sig.
Gender	Male	449	5.34	12.85	.61	Between Groups	117.20	2	.361	.697
	Female	84	4.29	11.90	1.30	Within Groups	87238.20	538		
	LGBT	8	7.38	14.59	5.16					
Age	Below 30	201	4.55	11.78	.83	Between Groups	2739.51	3	5.795	.001*
	30-39	210	3.68	13.16	.91	Within Groups	84615.89	537		
	40-49	91	10.08	12.79	1.34					
	50 & above	39	5.49	12.52	2.00					
Total		541	5.21	12.72	.55	Total	87355.40	540		
Group Statistics						T-Test Results				
Personal Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	DF	T	Sig. (2-tailed)		
Media Education	Yes	439	4.87	12.73	.61	539	-1.277	.202		
	No	102	6.66	12.64	1.25					
Political Affiliation	Yes	397	4.84	12.89	.65	539	-1.124	.262		
	No	144	6.23	12.23	1.02					
Religious Affiliation	Yes	458	5.49	12.80	.60	539	1.195	.233		
	No	83	3.67	12.20	1.34					

*p < 0.05

As in IPS, LGBT journalists reported to have higher EPS (M = 7.38, SD = 14.59) than that of their male (M = 5.34, SD = 12.85) and female (M = 4.29, SD = 11.90) counterparts though the differences among journalists belonging to different genders yielded no statistical significance (F (2, 538) = .361, p = .697). However, the penetration of gender minorities to the male-dominated journalism profession signals the inclusiveness and gender friendliness among the journalists.

The difference among age groups of the sampled journalists in EPS score drew the same pattern as in IPS and was highly significant (F (3, 537) = 5.795, p = .003). Like in IPS, journalists belonging to the upper age groups of 40-49 age (M = 10.08, SD = 12.79) and 50 and above (M = 5.49, SD = 12.52) had significantly higher EPS score than their counterparts belonging to the lower age groups of below 30 years (M = 4.55,

SD = 11.78) and 30-39 years (M = 3.68, SD = 13.16). This may validate the notion that age can be a catalyst for making someone more adaptive and practical in a profession.

Interestingly, journalists without media education had higher EPS score (M = 6.66, SD = 12.64) than that of journalists having media education (M = 4.87, SD = 12.73) as seen in the case of IPS score. Like in IPS, the difference in EPS score between journalists with and without media education was not statistically significant ($t(539) = -1.277, p = .202$). Professionally educated journalists were capable of analyzing the ideal-practical divide in the field more efficiently than those who were not professionally educated.

Unlike in IPS, independent t-test revealed that political affiliation had no significant influence on EPS of journalists in Kerala ($t(539) = -1.124, p = .262$). But as in IPS, journalists without political affiliation reported to have higher EPS score (M = 4.84, SD = 12.89) than that of journalists with political affiliation (M = 6.23, SD = 12.23). The result can be a prediction that politically affiliated journalists were more efficient to realize the exploitations they were subjected to than those who were not politically affiliated. Conflict of interests between the individual journalist and the organization in terms of political lineage might also have contributed to this perception.

In contradiction to political affiliation, journalists with religious affiliation reported to have better EPS score (M = 5.49, SD = 12.80) than that of journalists without religious affiliation (M = 3.67, SD = 12.20). But this difference in EPS between journalists with and without religious affiliation yielded no statistical significance ($t(539) = 1.195, p = .233$) as it was in the case of IPS. Journalists' dissent with the religious lineage of the organization due to various reasons starting from audience identification might have caused for such a result.

Extrinsic Professional Satisfaction and Professional Characteristics

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and independence t-Test was employed to test the nature of differences among categories of professional characteristics like employer pattern, region, type of media, professional experience, salary range have on mean scores of EPS. And the result is given in table 4.35.

Table 4.35: Mean Scores of EPS and Professional Characteristics

Group Statistics						ANOVA Results				
Professional Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Between / Within Groups	Sum of Squares	DF	F	Sig.
Region	South	164	5.98	13.33	1.04	Between Groups	376.59	3	.775	.508
	Central	161	4.67	12.74	1.00					
	North	163	4.44	12.16	.95	Within Groups	86978.81	537		
	Outside Kerala	53	6.81	12.49	1.72					
Media	Radio	23	10.87	9.62	2.01	Between Groups	888.75	3	1.840	.139
	Television	138	4.19	12.46	1.06	Within Groups	86466.65	537		
	Newspaper	337	5.29	13.00	.71					
	Online	43	4.84	12.35	1.88					
Professional Experience	Upto 5 years	201	4.17	12.25	.86	Between Groups	2758.87	4	4.370	.002*
	6-10 years	137	2.80	12.75	1.09	Within Groups	84596.53	536		
	11-15 years	91	6.87	13.38	1.40					
	16-20 years	54	7.50	11.71	1.59					
	Above 20 years	58	9.78	12.65	1.66					
Salary Range	Upto Rs.10000	81	1.98	11.89	1.32	Between Groups	4506.39	4	7.289	.000*
	Rs.10001-20000	207	3.94	12.84	.89	Within Groups	82849.00	536		
	Rs.20001-30000	139	4.93	12.46	1.06					
	Rs.30001-50000	79	8.73	12.64	1.42					
	Above Rs.50000	35	13.37	10.47	1.77					
Field of Work	Reporting	308	4.65	12.85	.73	Between Groups	717.96	3	1.483	.218
	Editing	145	5.50	12.25	1.02	Within Groups	86637.44	537		
	News Mgt.	29	9.79	12.63	2.35					
	Photo/Videography	59	5.17	13.07	1.70					
Total		541	5.21	12.72	.55	Total	87355.40	540		
Group Statistics						T-Test Results				
Personal Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	DF	T	Sig. (2-tailed)		
Ownership	Public	25	11.08	9.37	1.87	539	2.373	.018*		
	Private	516	4.92	12.80	.56					

* p < 0.05

The journalists from outside Kerala had the highest EPS score ($M = 6.81$, $SD = 12.49$) followed by journalists from South Kerala ($M = 5.98$, $SD = 13.33$) while journalists from central Kerala ($M = 4.67$, $SD = 12.74$) and North Kerala ($M = 4.44$, $SD = 12.16$) were in the lowest range. The difference yielded no statistical significance ($F(3, 537) = .775$, $p = .508$) as it was in the case of IPS mean score. The first two regions with highest EPS mean scores included both national and state capitals respectively. Regional focus on national and state capitals of the media irrespective of the actual value of news stories and in turn the increased value of journalists from these capital regions get can be a reason for this difference.

Radio journalists reported highest mean score in EPS ($M = 10.87$, $SD = 9.62$) when compared with their counterparts in other media of which television journalist scored the least EPS mean score ($M = 4.19$, $SD = 12.46$). Yet, the difference was not statistically significant ($F(3, 537) = 1.840$, $p = .14$) on contrary to the IPS score difference across type of media. Radio journalism in the country is more secure, risk-free and is more like a white collar job and so radio journalists enjoyed higher satisfaction than those from the rest of media. On contrary to this, most insecure were the journalists working with television as far as their job security, pay and rewards and external pressures are concerned.

Apparently, the more the professional experience the more was the EPS mean score journalists had and the most experienced group of journalists (above 20 years) reported the highest EPS mean score ($M = 9.78$, $SD = 12.65$). As seen in the case of IPS score, the difference of mean score in EPS among journalists having different periods of professional experience was significant in statistical terms ($F(4, 536) = 4.370$, $p = .002$). Journalists who continued in the profession for so long might have made an affinity with the profession. This experience might have helped them to face the challenges of the profession more efficiently and to be more satisfied than less experienced journalists in what they do.

Likewise, the higher the salary of journalists in Kerala the higher was their EPS score and the difference was statistically significant ($F(4, 536) = 7.289$, $p = .000$). Resultantly, journalists having the highest salary range (above Rs. 50000) had highest EPS score ($M = 13.37$, $SD = 10.47$) whereas journalists having the lowest salary range reported the lowest EPS score ($M = 1.98$, $SD = 11.89$). The results exactly followed the

distribution pattern and significance salary range had on IPS mean score. As mentioned in IPS, meeting livelihood and ensuring a secure life for the individual journalists and those who depend on them requires economic freedom. When a journalist is economically content so will be his satisfaction in the profession.

As in IPS, difference across fields of work was reported not to be significant ($F(3, 537) = 1.483, p = .218$). Journalists who were at the news management field had remarkably higher EPS ($M = 9.79, SD = 12.63$) than that of their counterparts in the fields of work including reporting, editing, and photography/videography. This can be attributed to the notion that people who believed to have more autonomy and responsibility and thus the controlling power over others will be more gratified than people having less autonomy and power on what they do.

Journalists belonging to the public sector had statistically significant ($t(539) = 2.373, p = .018$) with higher EPS mean score ($M = 11.08, SD = 9.37$) than that of those journalists belonging to the private/corporate sector ($M = 4.92, SD = 12.80$). This result followed the trend that was seen in the case of IPS score of the sampled journalists. The difference reflected the fact that a govt. employee enjoyed safe and secure professional environment when compared with their counterparts in the private sector.

Professional Satisfaction and Personal Characteristics

In this study, Professional Satisfaction of journalists was conceived as a combination of Internal Professional Satisfaction (IPS) and External Professional Satisfaction (EPS). Having been the interaction of journalists' personal antecedents with IPS and EPS separately analyzed and reported, the researcher looked into how personal characteristics of journalists associated with their Professional Satisfaction in general.

Given below is the table showing the results of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Independent sample t-Test employed to test the nature of differences among categories of various personal characteristics like gender, age, media education, political affiliation, and religious affiliation in terms of professional satisfaction (PS).

Table 4.36: Mean Scores of PS by Personal Characteristics

Group Statistics					ANOVA Results					
Personal Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Between/Within Groups	Sum of Squares	DF	F	Sig.
Gender	Male	449	12.06	26.54	1.25	Between Groups	442.24	2	.324	.723
	Female	84	9.83	23.39	2.55					
	LGBT	8	15.13	29.78	10.53	Within Groups	367039.04	538		
Age	Below 30	201	9.91	23.95	1.69	Between Groups	12966.63	3	6.547	.000*
	30-39	210	8.68	26.92	1.86					
	40-49	91	22.35	26.19	2.75	Within Groups	354514.65	537		
	50 & above	39	13.15	26.49	4.24					
Total		541	11.76	26.09	1.12	Total	367481.28	540		
Group Statistics					T-Test Results					
Personal Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	DF	T	Sig. (2-tailed)		
Media Education	Yes	439	10.98	26.04	.124	539	-1.433	.153		
	No	102	15.09	26.14	2.59					
Political Affiliation	Yes	397	10.65	26.29	1.32	539	-1.639	.102		
	No	144	14.81	25.36	2.11					
Religious Affiliation	Yes	458	12.46	26.35	1.23	539	1.464	.144		
	No	83	7.90	24.41	2.68					

*p < 0.05

Following the results in the components of IPS and EPS, LGBT journalists reported to have higher PS score (M = 15.13, SD = 29.78) trailed by male journalists (M = 12.06, SD = 26.54) while their female counterparts professed the lowest mean score of PS (M = 9.83, SD = 23.39). But the difference in PS scores among genders of journalists in Kerala yielded no statistical significance ($F(2, 538) = .324, p = .723$) along with their Finnish counterparts as reported by Raeymaeckers (2012). The result showed that discrimination against LGBT is minimal in this part of the world including media sector. However, the difference also pointed to the fact that female journalists were more likely to have work-life imbalance than other genders and they might not have the extra support from the organization to face this overburden. Adding to this, the observation made by Weaver et.al (2006) that “Change toward a sort of equality in family life seems to be occurring, but the pace seems more glacial than revolutionary”

(as cited in Kimberly, 2009). Interestingly, gender influence on PS of journalists was a global phenomenon as found by Smucker, Whisenant, and Pedersen (2003), Rivas-Rodriguez et al. (2004), Sachsman, Simon and Valenti (2008), Reinardy (2009), Massey and Elmore (2011), Deprez and Raeymaeckers (2012), Semary (2012), Reinardy (2014), Ofili et al. (2014), and Lucht (2015).

The difference among journalists belonging to various age groups found to be statistically significant ($F(3, 537) = 6.547, p = .000$) as in IPS and EPS. Journalists belonging to the upper age groups of 40-49 years ($M = 22.35, SD = 26.19$) and 50 and above years ($M = 13.15, SD = 26.49$) had higher PS mean scores than that of lower age groups of below 30 years ($M = 9.91, SD = 23.950$) and 30-39 years ($M = 8.68, SD = 26.92$). Generally, the mean score distribution among journalists of different age groups depicted an inverted N-shaped pattern indicating fluctuation of satisfaction level through the ages. Age exposed as an influencing factor of PS in this study is in confirmation with the previous studies of Miller et al. (1995), Smucker, Whisenant, and Pedersen (2003), Reinardy (2007), and Greenberg et al. (2007).

Expectedly, journalists without media education had a higher score of PS ($M = 15.09, SD = 26.14$) than those with professional education ($M = 10.98, SD = 26.04$) as seen in IPS and EPS. Why professional education makes someone less content with a profession like journalism? Higher expectations of professionally educated journalists on the career and the professional environment might be a reason for this result. However, the difference between those who were professionally educated and those who were not professionally educated was not statistically significant ($t(539) = -1.433, p = .153$) on contrary to the finding of Semary (2012). But this difference between the previous and the present work can be attributed to the difference in culture and nationality as Chang and Massey (2010), Willnat, Weaver and Choi (2013) identified.

As in EPS, political affiliation of journalists in Kerala had no significant influence on their PS score ($t(539) = -1.639, p = .132$). As expected, journalists without political affiliation had higher PS score ($M = 14.81, SD = 25.36$) than that of their politically affiliated counterparts ($M = 10.65, SD = 26.29$). The conflict between newsroom/editorial policy - often driven by the organization's political leaning - and individual journalist's ideological inclination can be a reason for this difference as

envisaged by Weaver and Wilhoit (1986), Stamm and Underwood (1993), Weaver and Wilhoit (1996), Reinardy (2009), and Willnat, Weaver and Choi (2013).

Results showed that religious affiliation had no significant bearing on PS score of journalists in Kerala ($t(539) = 1.464, p = .144$) as evident in the case of IPS and EPS. Journalists having religious affiliation reported higher PS score ($M = 12.46, SD = 26.35$) than that of those without religious affiliation ($M = 7.90, SD = 24.41$). Whatever be the reason, the finding tended to support the observation made by Sachsman, Simon and Valenti (2008) that the religious affiliation and PS of journalists were positively correlated.

Professional Satisfaction and Professional Characteristics

Yet another important objective of this study was to analyse the nature of influence professional characteristics had on the PS of journalists in Kerala. Using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and t-Test, professional satisfaction (PS) was tested to decide the significance of differences among categories of professional characteristics of journalists in Kerala like region, type of media, professional experience, salary range, field of work and employer pattern.

Data showed (Table 4.37) that journalists working in different regions in and outside Kerala had no significant difference in their mean scores of PS ($F(3, 537) = .772, p = .510$). However, journalists who worked outside Kerala ($M = 14.19, SD = 24.77$) and journalists from South Kerala ($M = 13.70, SD = 27.67$) had higher PS score than their counterparts from Central Kerala ($M = 10.66, SD = 25.87$) and North Kerala ($M = 10.09, SD = 25.10$).

The results followed the same as that of EPS, unlike IPS where journalists from south Kerala scored the highest. Journalists both from south Kerala and outside Kerala that had higher PS score accommodated journalists from state and national capitals respectively. As discussed in IPS and EPS, a kind of regionalism was in operation and news stories of equal magnitudes from dominant regions were covered more vigorously than news stories from other regions.

Table 4.37: Mean Scores of PS by Professional Characteristics

Group Statistics						ANOVA Results				
Professional Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Between/ Within Groups	Sum of Squares	DF	F	Sig.
Region	South	164	13.70	27.67	2.16	Between Groups	1577.30	3	.772	.510
	Central	161	10.66	25.87	2.04					
	North	163	10.09	25.10	1.97	Within Groups	365903.98	537		
	Outside Kerala	53	14.19	24.77	3.40					
Media	Radio	23	25.57	20.03	4.18	Between Groups	5222.67	3	2.581	.053
	Television	138	9.30	25.43	2.17					
	Newspaper	337	11.83	26.59	1.45	Within Groups	362258.61	537		
	Online	43	11.67	25.51	3.89					
Professional Experience	Upto 5 years	201	9.18	25.56	1.80	Between Groups	14977.25	4	5.693	.000*
	6-10 years	137	6.69	24.96	2.13					
	11-15 years	91	15.22	27.14	2.85	Within Groups	352504.03	536		
	16-20 years	54	15.56	25.14	3.42					
	Above 20 years	58	23.69	25.58	3.36					
Salary Range	Upto Rs.10000	81	3.63	24.01	2.67	Between Groups	20783.76	4	8.033	.000*
	Rs.10001-20000	207	10.03	26.09	1.81					
	Rs.20001-30000	139	11.20	25.52	2.17	Within Groups	346697.52	536		
	Rs.30001-50000	79	17.25	27.02	3.04					
	Above Rs.50000	35	30.57	19.93	3.37					
Field of Work	Reporting	308	10.64	26.03	1.48	Between Groups	3188.02	3	1.566	.197
	Editing	145	12.09	25.60	2.13					
	News Mgt.	29	21.55	25.55	4.75	Within Groups	364293.26	537		
	Photo/ Videography	59	11.98	27.42	3.57					
Total		541	11.76	26.09	1.12	Total	367481.28	540		
Group Statistics						T-Test Results				
Personal Characteristics		N	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	DF	T	Sig. (2-tailed)		
Employer Pattern	Public	25	25.96	19.51	3.90		2.80	.005*		
	Private	516	11.07	26.18	1.15		5			

*p < 0.05

When comes to the type of media, difference across categories was not statistically significant though the association was so close ($F(3, 537) = 2.581, p = .053$)

as in EPS. Radio journalists had a higher mean score ($M = 25.57$, $SD = 20.03$) than that of their counterparts in other media. While newspaper journalists had a PS mean score ($M = 11.83$, $SD = 26.59$) slightly higher than online journalists ($M = 11.67$, $SD = 25.51$), media professionals in Television reported the lowest PS score ($M = 9.30$, $SD = 25.43$). Journalists in radio in Kerala enjoyed greater salary package, comparatively flexible work schedule, and job security to support their family better than their counterparts in other media, especially journalists from television.

On the other hand, the difference among categories of journalists' professional experience had a significant influence on their mean score of PS ($F(4, 536) = 5.693$, $p = .000$) as in its components of IPS and EPS. Apparently, the higher the professional experience journalists had the higher was their professional satisfaction and so the journalists having highest experience of more than 20 years reported to have the highest PS score ($M = 23.69$, $SD = 25.58$). This can be attributed to the fact that longevity of a journalists' professional career itself is an evidence of their content in what they do. Samuelson (1962), Weaver and Wilhoit (1986), Smucker, Whisenant, and Pedersen (2003), Massey and Elmore (2011), El-Nawawy and Strong (2012), Reinardy (2014), and Ofili et al. (2014) reported that professional experience of journalists was a predictor of their PS across nations.

Similarly, professional satisfaction (PS) of journalists in Kerala, along with that of IPS and EPS, had a significant relationship with their range of salary ($F(4, 536) = 8.033$, $p = .000$). Hence journalists in the highest salary range of above Rs.50000 had the highest PS score ($M = 30.57$, $SD = 19.93$) and the journalists of the lowest salary range group of below Rs.10000 scored the least PS score ($M = 3.63$, $SD = 24.01$). In short, the higher the salary range of journalists in Kerala the higher was their professional satisfaction (PS). Fair salary will enable the journalists to manage his/her duty as a family head/member and such economic relations more efficiently which in turn help the journalists to be content with the profession they are engaged in. Earlier, Weaver and Wilhoit (1986), Weaver and Wilhoit (1996), Smucker, Whisenant, and Pedersen (2003), Reinardy (2009), Chang and Massey (2010), Massey and Elmore (2011), Deprez and Raeymaeckers (2012), Semary (2012), Willnat, Weaver and Choi (2013), Flores and Subervi (2014), Ofili et al. (2014) and Lucht (2015) observed the significant relation between salary range and PS of journalists.

Journalists worked in the field of news management reported to have highest PS mean score ($M = 21.55$, $SD = 25.55$) followed by journalists in the fields of work like editing ($M = 12.09$, $SD = 25.599$) and photography/videography ($M = 11.98$, $SD = 27.42$). Expectedly, journalists in the reporting field had the lowest score in PS ($M = 10.64$, $SD = 26.03$). But this difference among the journalists belonging to various fields yielded no statistical significance ($F(3, 537) = 1.566$, $p = .197$). The resulted trend was as same as that of IPS and EPS scores. Certainly, journalists working in a field where more news decision autonomy is vested with will be more satisfied. Earlier, researchers like Smucker, Whisenant, and Pedersen (2003), Celia and Francis (2012), Deprez and Raeymaeckers (2012), Semaury (2012), and Ofili et al. (2014) observed that the position and field of work as an influencing factor of PS of journalists.

As in IPS and EPS, employer pattern of organization had significant influence on journalists' professional satisfaction ($t(539) = 2.805$, $p = .005$). Journalists working in public media enjoyed higher PS ($M = 25.96$, $SD = 19.51$) than that of journalists working with private/corporate owned media ($M = 11.07$, $SD = 26.18$). Being a government employee in a profession that you value the most might have helped the media professionals in public media to have higher PS than those who belonged to private/corporate media. Also, the difference in profit orientation and news value compromises between public and private/corporate media might have resulted in this trend. Stamm and Underwood (1993) were first to identify the role of ownership pattern in determining the PS of journalists.

Focusing professional characteristics, differences across categories of employer pattern, professional experience, and salary range recorded high significance with regard to the PS score while differences across categories of the region, type of media, and field of work yielded no statistical significance. For IPS, unlike PS and EPS, type of media was also a predictor of journalists' satisfaction.

Clarifying Research Hypothesis 2

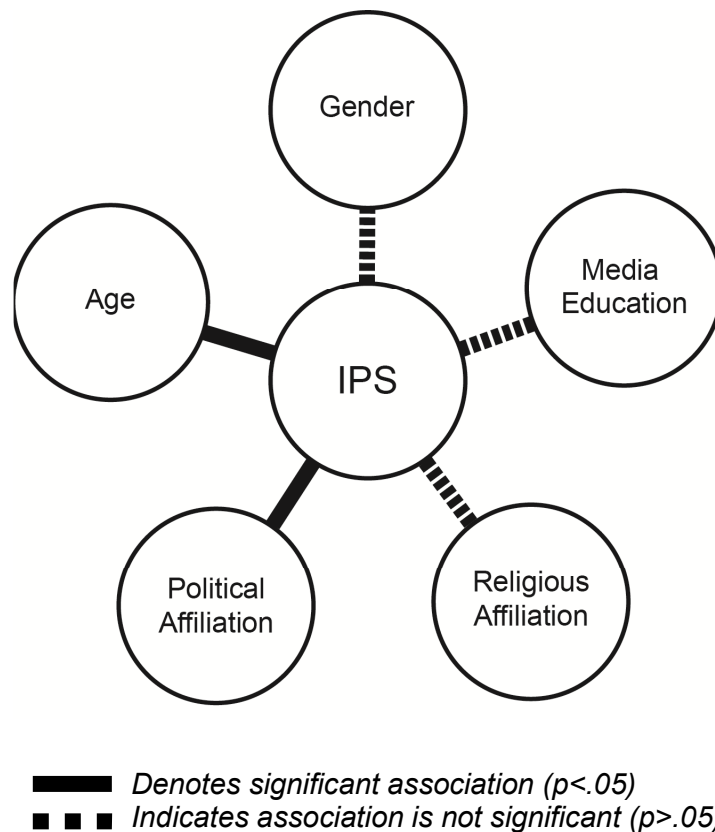
Research Hypothesis II (H2): Professional satisfaction of journalists in Kerala is likely to be associated with their personal and professional characteristics

For the convenience of testing the hypothesis, the H2 was subdivided into six. And the test results of hypotheses showing its tenability are detailed below.

H2.a: IPS of journalists in Kerala will be interconnected with their personal characteristics

From the test results portrayed in Figure 4.16, it can be deduced that personal characteristics of journalists in Kerala like age and political affiliation were statistically significant in terms of IPS while gender, media education and religious affiliation had no significant influence on it. Therefore, the H2.a that IPS of journalists in Kerala is associated with their personal characteristics is partly supported by the study.

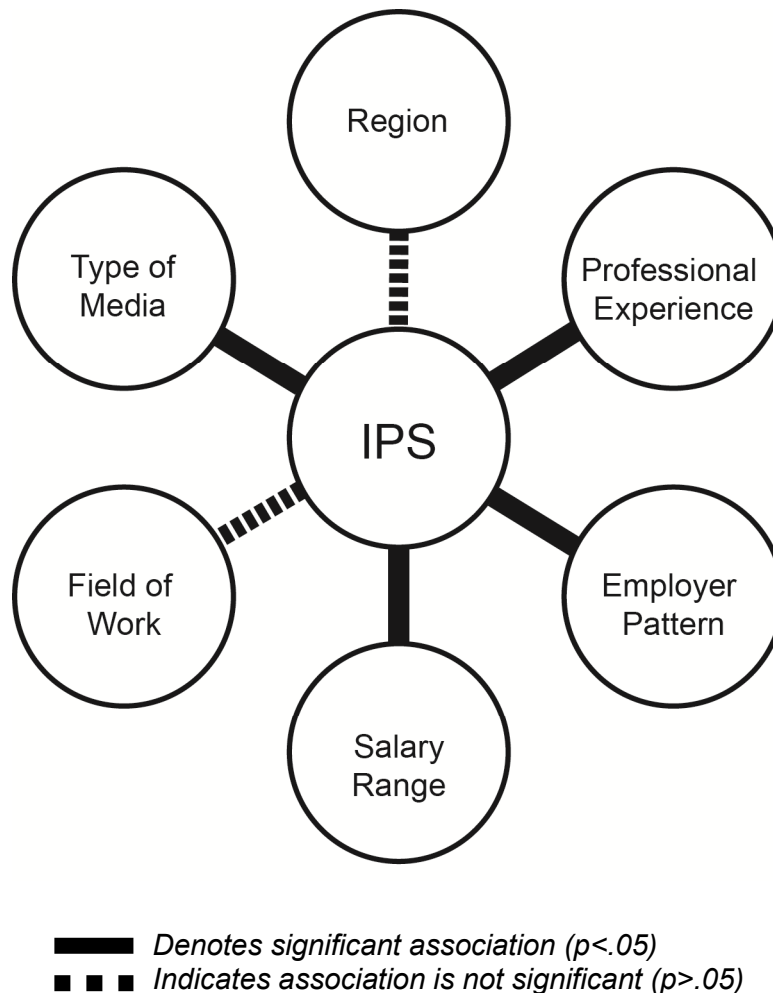
Figure 4.16: IPS and Personal Characteristics



H2.b: *IPS of journalists in Kerala will be related to their professional characteristics*

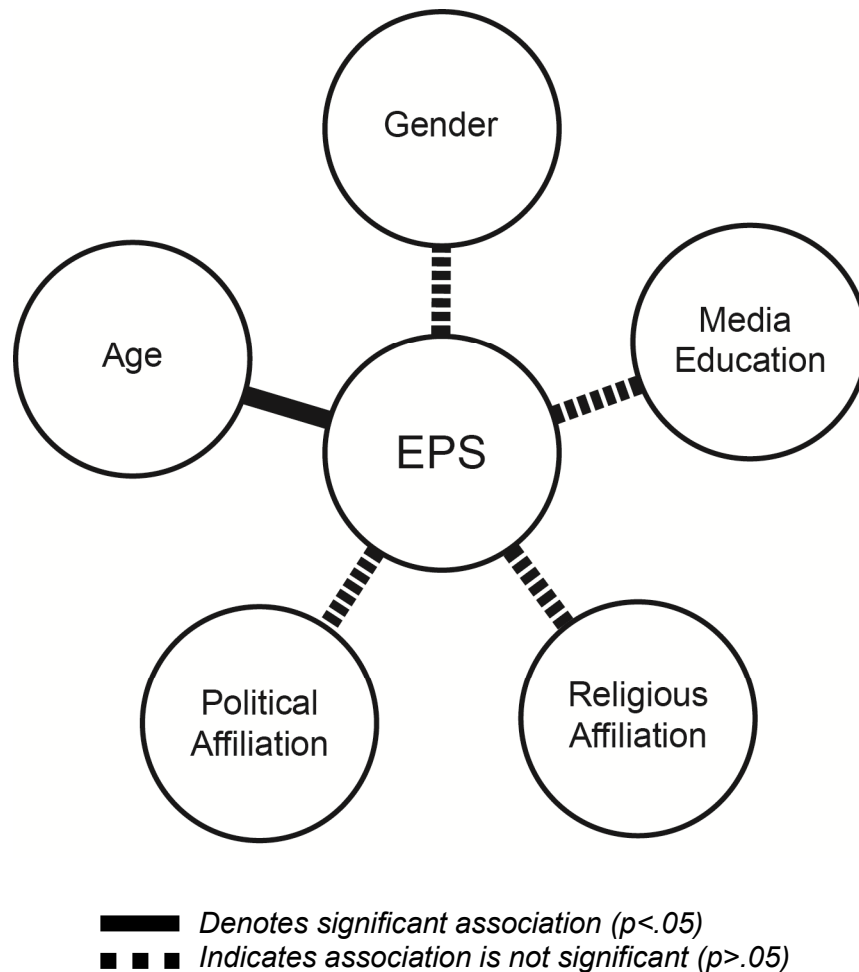
The Figure 4.17 shows that the professional characteristics like type of media, professional experience, salary range and employer pattern had a significant influence on the intrinsic professional satisfaction of media professionals in Kerala whereas region and field of work were not. Accordingly, the H2.b that IPS of journalists in Kerala is associated with their professional characteristics is partly established.

Figure 4.17: IPS and Professional Characteristics



H2.c: EPS of journalists in Kerala will be associated with their personal characteristics

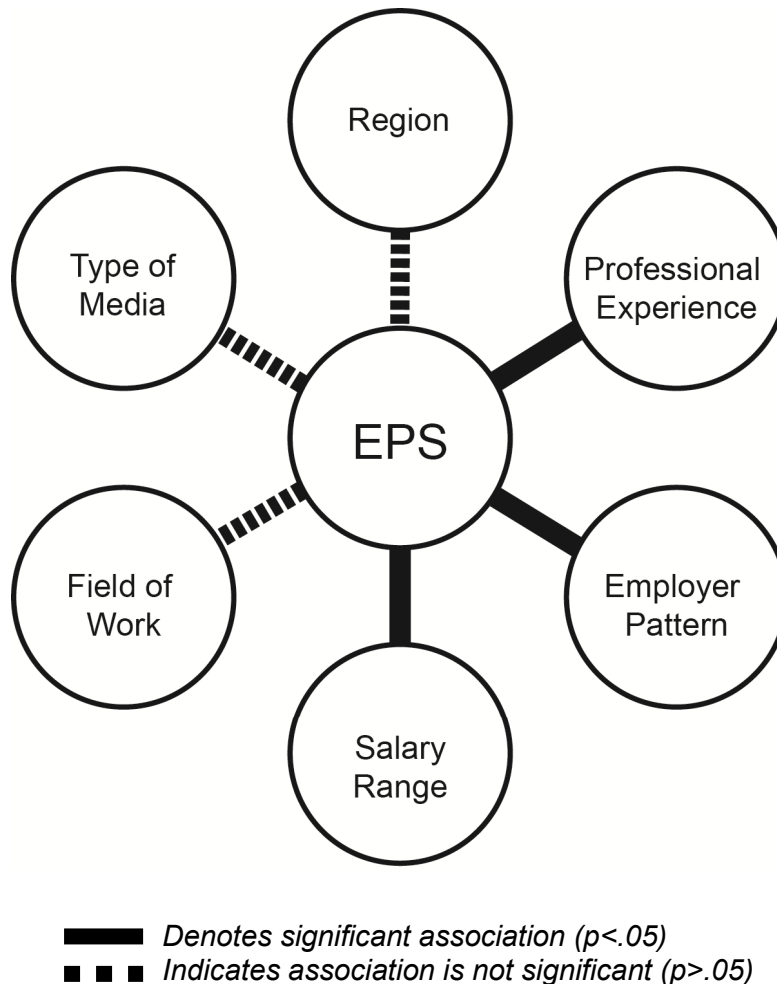
The lone personal characteristic that influenced EPS score significantly was the age (Figure 4.18). All others including gender, media education, political affiliation, and religious affiliation were not predictors of EPS of journalists in Kerala. Consequently, the H2.c of the present study that EPS of journalists in Kerala is associated with their personal characteristics is proved partly by the study.

Figure 4.18: EPS and Personal Characteristics

H2.d: EPS of journalists in Kerala will be linked with their professional characteristics

The results shown in Figure 4.19 predict that professional experience, salary range, and employer pattern had a significant influence on their EPS while other professional characteristics like region, media and field of work predicted no statistical significance. On the other hand, type of media was also a significant predictor of IPS. Likewise, the study partly supported the H2.d that EPS of journalists in Kerala is associated with their professional characteristics.

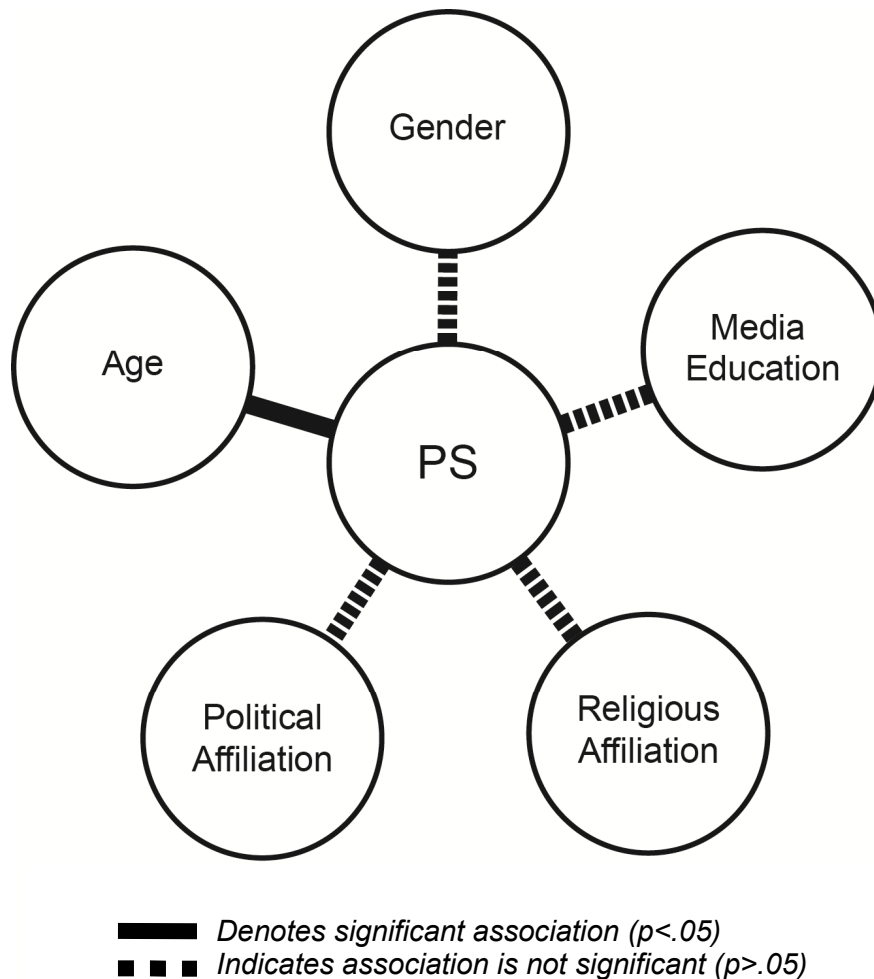
Figure 4.19: EPS and Professional Characteristics



H2.e: PS of journalists in Kerala will be connected with their personal characteristics

Groups of personal characteristics like gender, media education, political affiliation, and religious affiliation generated no significant differences in PS score with an exception of age that professed significant differences across various age groups of journalists in Kerala. This was same in the case of EPS while political affiliation along with age had a significant influence on IPS journalists enjoyed in this part of the country. It follows from the results that the H2.e of the study that PS of journalists in Kerala is associated with their personal characteristics is partly true.

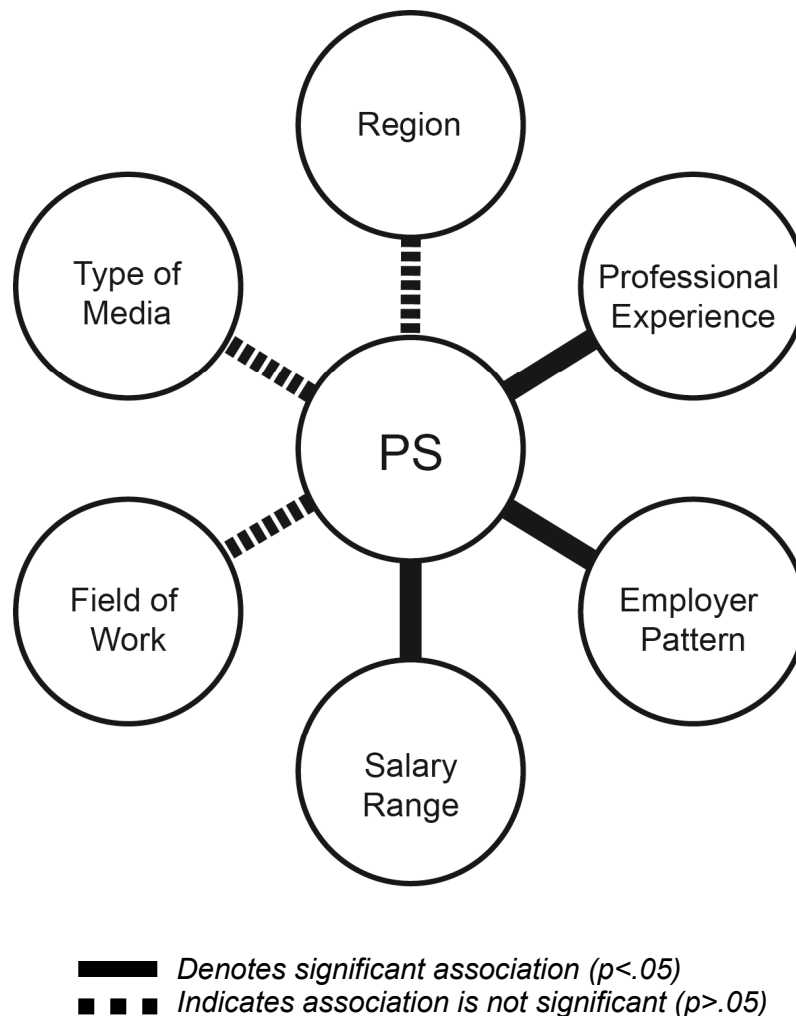
Figure 4.20: PS and Personal Characteristics



H2.f: PS of journalists in Kerala will be interrelated with their professional characteristics

The H2.f of the study that PS of journalists in Kerala is associated with their professional characteristics was proved to be true partly when taking the variables like employer pattern, professional experience and salary range. Other characteristics such as region, type of media and field of work reported no significant association with the professional satisfaction of media persons.

Figure 4.21: PS and Professional Characteristics



To investigate the nature of the influence of personal and professional characteristics of journalists on their professional satisfaction (PS) and its components of IPS and EPS was one of the objectives of this study. Results showed that differences across categories of the personal characteristic of age alone professed to be significant in terms of PS as its component of EPS while political affiliation along with age had a significant influence on IPS journalists enjoyed in this part of the country. At the same time, professional characteristics like employer pattern, professional experience, and salary range recorded high significance with regard to the PS score following its components of EPS and IPS. Type of media was also a predictor of IPS. Accordingly, the H2 that stated professional satisfaction of journalists in Kerala would differ in terms of their personal and professional characteristics is found to be partly true.

RECIPROCITY BETWEEN PROFESSIONAL FREEDOM AND SATISFACTION

The relation between professional freedom and professional satisfaction was widely studied across the world. Professional freedom is at times considered merely as a component of professional satisfaction. In fact, there is a dearth of studies about professional/job satisfaction of journalists excluding the component of professional/job autonomy/freedom. Undoubtedly, a free profession (the concept of press freedom) presupposes free professionals and so researchers focused solely on professional freedom of journalists recently. However, the relationship between professional freedom and professional satisfaction, arguably, is like two sides of the same coin in a public service profession like journalism.

Conceptual Model of PF and PS of Journalists

Based on this conceptualization, the present study formed the hypothesis that the relationship between professional freedom (PF) and professional satisfaction (PS) of journalists along with their components of IPF and IPS and EPF and EPS respectively were likely to be reciprocal. The reciprocity between PF and PS as well as of their components is represented in the model below.

Figure 4.22: Professional Freedom and Professional Satisfaction

As depicted in the model, reciprocity between professional freedom and professional satisfaction of journalists in Kerala as well as the reciprocity between respective components of PF and PS including IPF and IPS and EPF and EPS respectively were examined in the following sections.

Internal PF and Intrinsic PS

Is there any relation between IPF and IPS as these two components of PF and PS are very much similar as far as their factors are concerned? To address such a question, Pearson Correlation Coefficient of IPF and IPS was assessed and the results are given below.

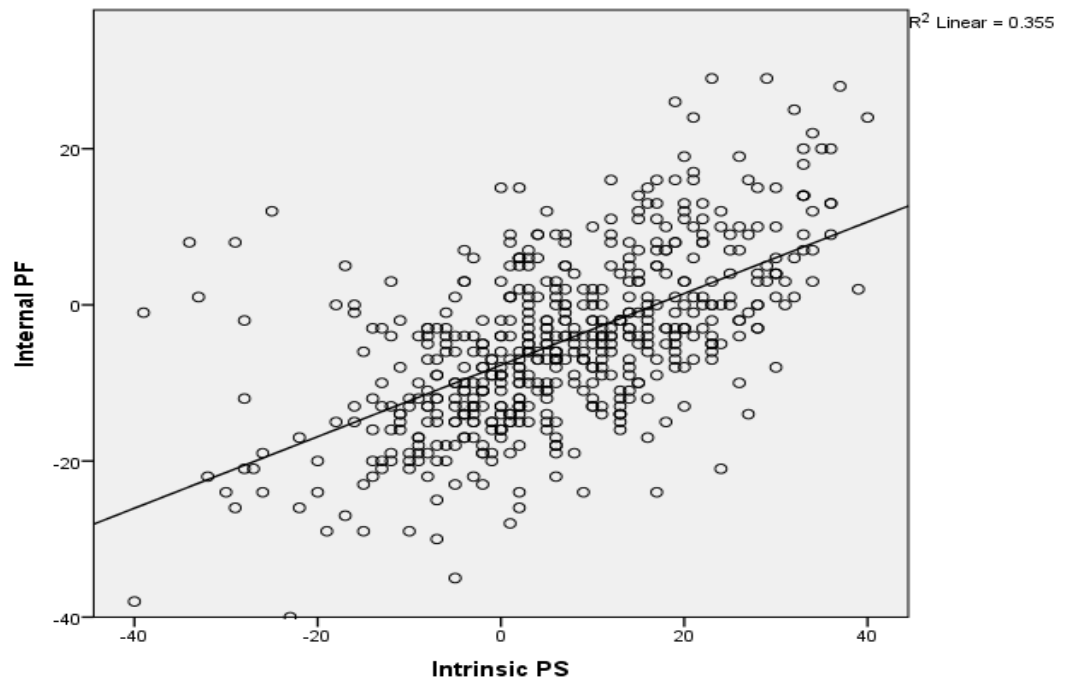
Table 4.38: IPF and IPS of Journalists

Descriptive Statistics			
Component	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Intrinsic Professional Satisfaction	6.55	14.192	541
Internal Professional Freedom	-4.71	10.919	541
Correlation			
		Internal Professional Freedom	
Intrinsic Professional Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.596**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	541	

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Moderate was the range (-26 to 26) of the mean scores of both IPS and IPF as depicted in the descriptive statistics. And the Pearson correlation professed that the IPS and IPF are positively correlated ($r = .596$, $n = 541$, $p = .000$).

Figure 4.23: Internal PF and Intrinsic PS



Again, the scatter plot (Figure 4.23) showed the presence of a moderate positive correlation between IPF and IPS. Intrinsic professional satisfaction of media persons in Kerala increases along with the increase in their IPF and vice versa.

Journalists' freedom within the organization in terms of freedom from personalized pressures, freedom from organizational pressures, freedom from work level pressures, freedom from owner level pressures, and freedom from supervisor level pressures positively contributing to their level of satisfaction with various professional factors existing within the organization such as work itself, personal growth and advancement, individual responsibility, professional status and work-family relation.

External PF and Extrinsic PS

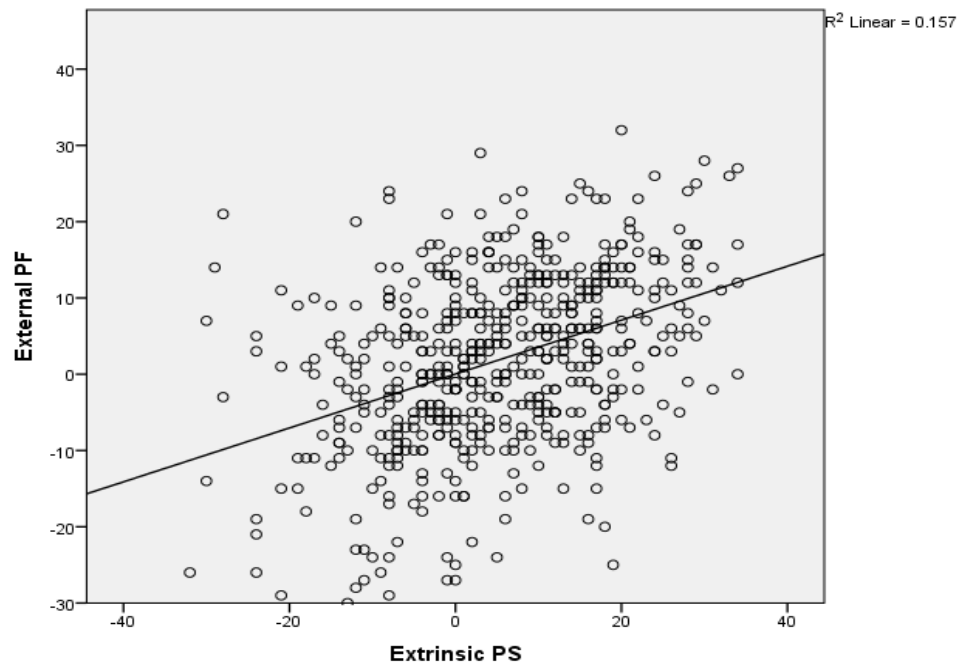
After assessing the association between IPF and IPS, the interrelation between EPF and EPS was evaluated using Pearson Correlation Coefficient and the results are given below.

Table 4.39: EPF and EPS of Journalists

Descriptive Statistics			
Component	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
External Professional Freedom	1.87	11.348	541
Extrinsic Professional Satisfaction	5.21	12.719	541
Correlation			
		External Professional Freedom	
Extrinsic Professional Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.396**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	541	

****Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).**

As in IPS and IPF, the mean scores of both EPS and EPF was moderate in range (-26 to 26) as depicted in the descriptive statistics and for Pearson correlation coefficient, both are positively correlated though the strength is weak ($r = .396$, $n = 541$, $p = .000$). Hence the correlation was not as strong as that of the correlation between IPS and IPF (see Table 4.38).

Figure 4.24: External PF and Extrinsic PS

Further, the scatter plot showed a weak but positive correlation between EPS and EPF than that of IPS and IPF (see Figure 4.23). External factors of professional freedom like freedom from threats, freedom to criticize the government, freedom from economic pressures, freedom from political pressures and freedom from religious pressures professed an association with the level of freedom journalists enjoy in their extrinsic factors of satisfaction such as Pay and working conditions, organizational morale, organizational support, supervision and co-worker relation.

Freedom from societal factors, for argument, reflected in journalists' EPS as well as freedom from organizational factors reflected in journalists IPS. When these relations are compared to each other, IPF-IPS relation was stronger. Further, PF and PS are well connected, especially in terms of their internal/intrinsic factors. This finding indicated the fact that the more freedom journalists had within the organization, IPF factor, the more was their perceived individual responsibility, IPS factor, which automatically resulted in increased satisfaction in the profession. At the same time, external pressures – EPF factors - journalists overcame it with the organizational morale and support - EPS factors. The experience of external professional freedom

can be indirect and can be reflected in the comparatively less correlation between EPF and EPS.

Professional Freedom and Professional Satisfaction

The descriptive statistics show that the mean scores of PS (M =11.76, SD= 26.087) and PF (M= -2.84, SD=18.404) are in the moderate range of -26 to 26.

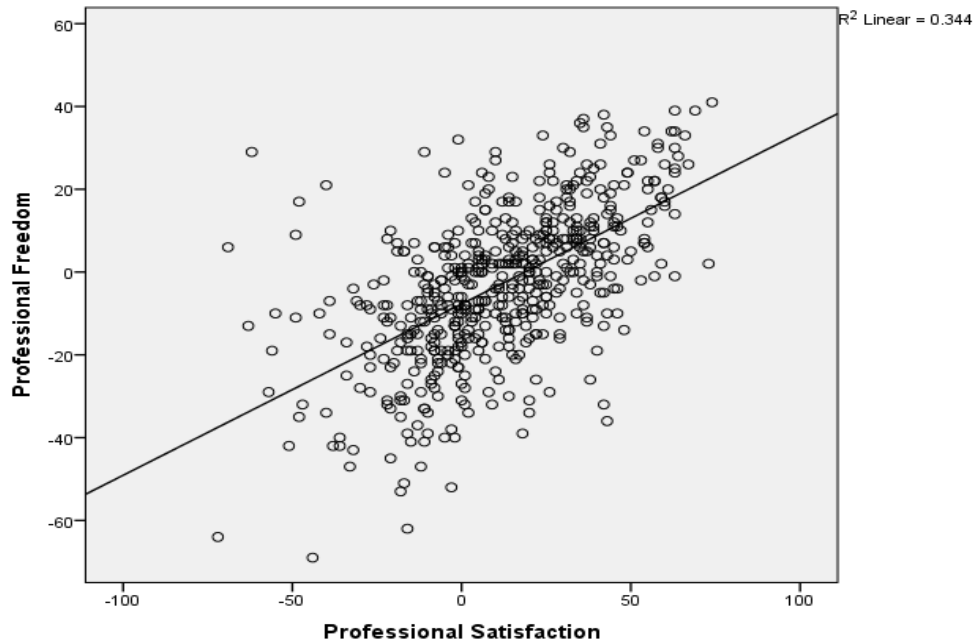
Table 4.40: PF and PS of Journalists

Descriptive Statistics			
Component	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Professional Satisfaction	11.76	26.087	541
Professional Freedom	-2.84	18.404	541
Correlation			
		Professional Freedom	
Professional Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.587**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	541	

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*

Further, a Pearson Correlation Coefficient was assessed and the result is reported in the table. As per the data there is a significant positive correlation between the two variables – PS and PF ($r = .587$, $n = 541$, $p = .000$).

The scatter plot (Figure 4.25) showed that there existed a positive linear correlation between professional freedom and satisfaction of the sampled journalists in Kerala. In other words, the more the professional freedom of a journalist the more will be his/her professional satisfaction. Such a bond between professional freedom and satisfaction can be traced from the very notion of press freedom, a prerequisite for the democratization of information. Further, journalists may enter the profession with great expectations especially that of freedom of the press which enables them to exercise their journalistic commitment to transform the society into an informed citizenry.

Figure 4.25: PF and PS of Sampled Journalists

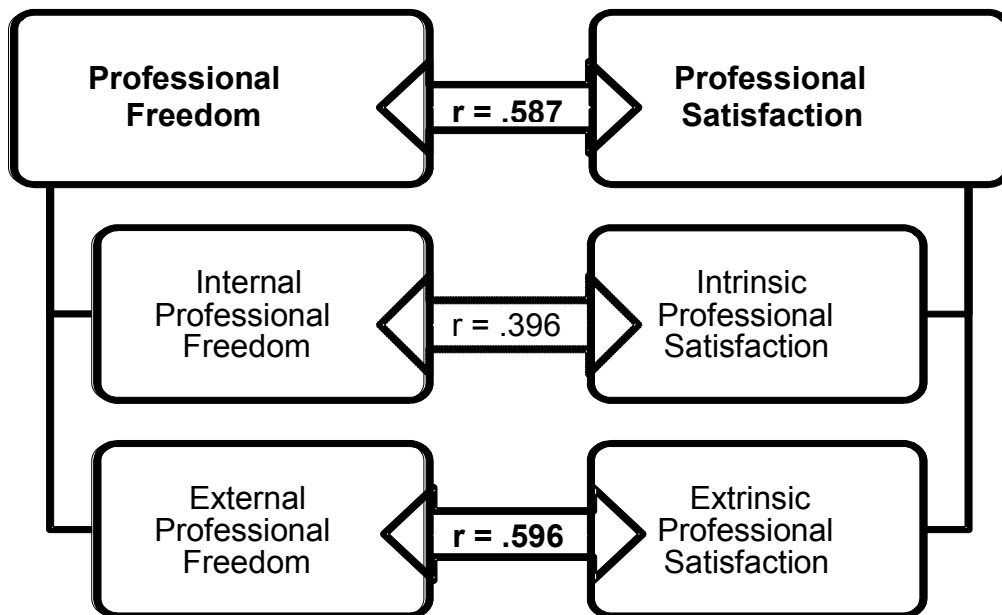
This finding of the positive correlation between professional freedom and professional satisfaction of journalists along with the positive correlations between the respective components of these constructs like IPF and IPS, and EPF and EPS supported the previous studies of Weaver and Wilhoit (1986), Demers (1994), Sachsman, Simon and Valenti (2008), Chang and Massey (2010), Reinardy and Crawford (2011), Deprez and Raeymaeckers (2012), Semary (2012), El-Nawawy and Strong (2012), Willnat, Weaver and Choi (2013), Thomas and Nellyullathil (2013), and Reinardy (2014).

Clarifying Research Hypothesis 3

Research Hypothesis III (H3): Professional freedom of journalists in Kerala is likely to be positively correlated with their professional satisfaction.

Research hypothesis 3 has got three subdivisions and the results of the tested hypotheses are depicted in the Figure 4.26 given below.

Figure 4.26: PF and PS Including Their Components



H3.a: IPF of journalists in Kerala will positively correlate with their IPS

The figure shows that the Pearson correlation professed that the IPS and IPF are positively correlated ($r = .596$, $n = 541$, $p = .000$). Hence, the hypothesis H3.a that IPF of journalists in Kerala will positively correlate with their IPS is found to be true.

H3.b: EPF of journalists in Kerala will positively correlate with their EPS

The result shown in the figure 4.26 professed that both EPF and EPS are positively correlated though the strength is weak ($r = .396$, $n = 541$, $p = .000$). The correlation was not as strong as that of the correlation between IPS and IPF. Still, the hypothesis H3.b that EPF of journalists in Kerala will positively correlate with their EPS is found to be valid.

H3.c: PF of journalists in Kerala will positively correlate with their PS

The Figure 3.26 depicted the Pearson Correlation Coefficient assessed in terms of PF and PS of media persons in Kerala. As per the data, there is a significant positive correlation between the two variables – PS and PF. Hence the hypothesis H3.c PF of journalists in Kerala will positively correlate with their PS is found to be tenable.

Resultantly, research hypothesis H3 that stated professional freedom of journalists in Kerala is likely to be positively correlated with their professional satisfaction is found to be true.

Focusing on the important findings in the analysis, the last chapter tries to bring conclusions, discussions and recommendations of the study on professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons in Kerala.

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CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The fourth estate is supposed to ensure the smooth and fair functioning of the first three estates namely executive, legislature and judiciary in a democracy. When the watchdog is attacked and unarmed, life in a democracy becomes insecure and terrible. When media is defeated, democratic values of a nation will be put at risk. In that sense, the Press Freedom Index 2017 in which India dropped by nine places, is a warning bell to Indian media and the public at large.

Against this backdrop, the present study is centred on the complexities of the relationships between professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons in Kerala, a media-rich state in India and the implications of these relationships for the quality of journalism as a social service as well as a business, and for the quality of life of media persons as professionals and individuals. Being a cross-section of Indian media, Kerala media industry will definitely be a door to the real face of Indian media through the lives and characteristics of Kerala journalists and their professional freedom and satisfaction will be an indication of the quality of journalism prevails in this part of the world.

STUDY OBJECTIVES

Professional satisfaction and professional freedom are the two sides of the same coin that is essential for the efficiency of journalists as well as the media organizations. The quality of journalistic content depends on the range of freedom and satisfaction journalists enjoy in their very profession. Bourdieu says, “to understand what is happening in the journalistic field, one has to understand the degree of autonomy of the field and, within the field, the degree of autonomy of the publication that a journalist writes for” (as cited in Benson, 1999). If so, how far the journalists in Kerala are free and satisfied with their profession which in turn decides the quality of their practice? The answer could be obtained by analysing the perceived range of professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons in Kerala.

Personal and professional characteristics of the individuals may influence their perceptions and may decide their happiness in what they are engaged. Personal characteristics such as gender, age, education, political and religious affiliations, at times, influence the way journalists view and evaluate their professional freedom and satisfaction (Samuelson, 1962; Johnstone, Slawski and Bowman, 1976; Bramlett-Solomon, 1992; Smucker, Whisenant, and Pedersen, 2003; Sachsman, Simon and Valenti, 2008; Reinardy, 2009; Semary, 2012; Ofili et al., 2014; Lucht, 2015). So is the case with professional characteristics of journalists. Region and type of media in which media persons work, their experience, salary range, the field of work and the employer pattern have the capacity to affect the journalists' view and the way they assess journalistic freedom and satisfaction in the profession (Beam and Spratt, 2009; Reinardy and Crawford, 2011; Massey and Elmore, 2011; Tsui and Lee, 2012). Do professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons in Kerala differ in terms of their professional and personal characteristics? The answer could be unearthed by analysing the nature of the association between Kerala journalists' professional freedom and satisfaction and their personal and professional characteristics.

Professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons are inseparable ingredients of quality journalism. Level of autonomy may influence the level of satisfaction of the media persons in the profession as press freedom is the prominent notion in a democracy. How strong is the freedom of journalists in Kerala associated with their satisfaction in the profession? Gauging the degree of correlation between professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons in Kerala could answer such a question.

STUDY METHODOLOGY

To realize the objectives, a survey was conducted among the media persons enlisted in the Public Relations Department Directory (PRDD) of the Govt. of Kerala that constituted the population of the study to determine the professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons in Kerala. The PRDD lists 3104 media persons in Kerala including those who work outside Kerala for Kerala based media houses. From this population, a sample of 541 media persons spread across various media like print, electronic and online platforms was taken for the study. This sample which constitutes

one-sixth of the population was chosen using the multi-stage stratified random technique to reflect the parameters of the population. Thus the sample becomes a cross-section of the population which amply represents major personal and professional characteristics like gender, age, education, political affiliation, religious affiliation, region, media, income, experience, the field of work and employer pattern. The survey was conducted in between 1st November 2015 to 30th June 2016.

For the convenience of the study, Professional Freedom is conceived to have two components: Internal Professional Freedom and External Professional Freedom with their respective contributing factors. Factors of internal professional freedom under investigation were freedom from personalized pressures, freedom from organizational pressures, freedom from work level pressures, freedom from owner level pressures, and freedom from supervisor level pressures. External professional freedom has measured on the factors of freedom from threats, freedom to criticize the government, freedom from economic pressures, freedom from political pressures and freedom from religious pressures.

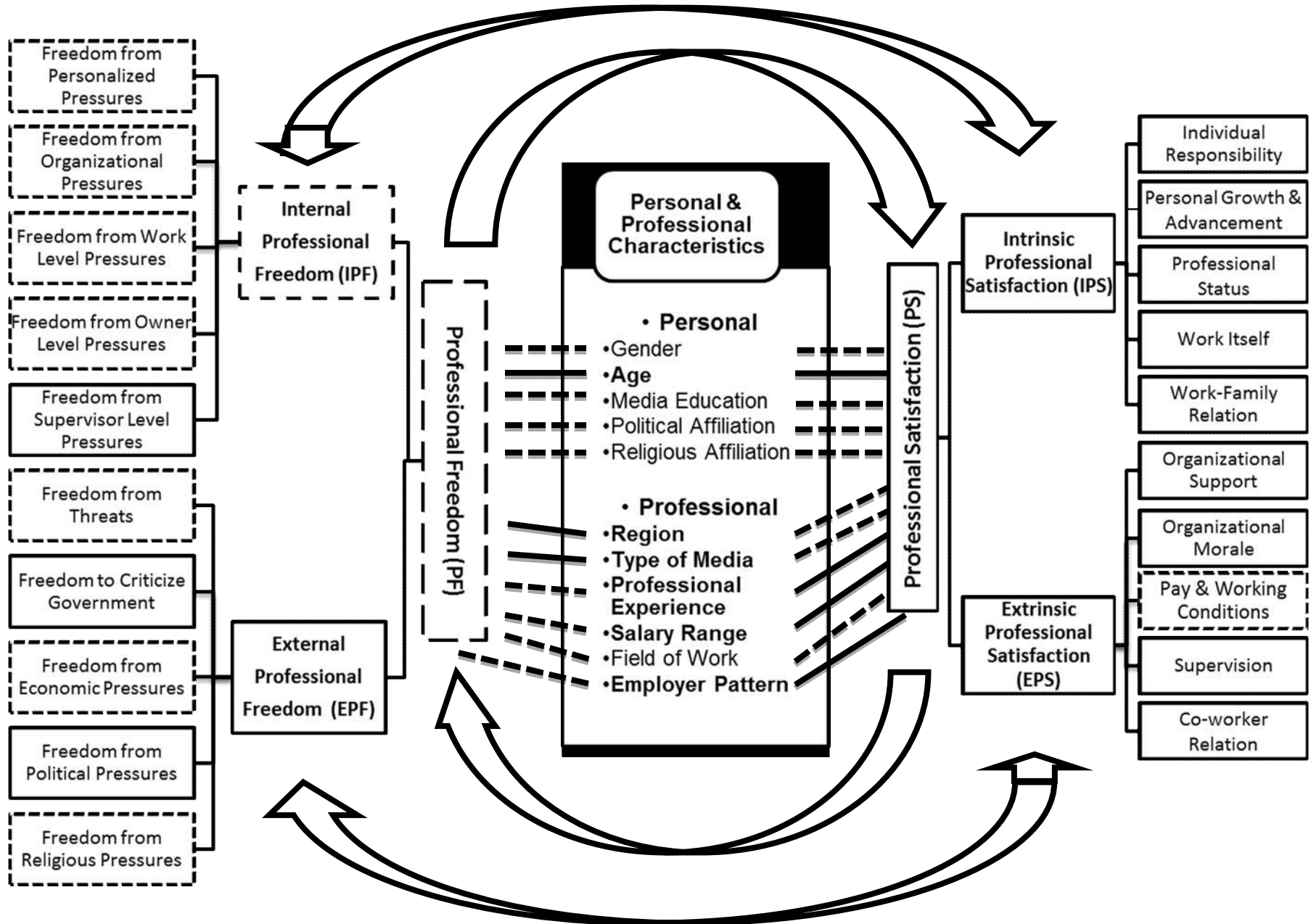
Similarly, Professional Satisfaction is envisaged as the mix of two components: Intrinsic Professional Satisfaction and Extrinsic Professional Satisfaction with their respective contributing factors. Contributing intrinsic factors of professional satisfaction were work itself, personal growth & advancement, individual responsibility, professional status and work-family relation. Pay & working conditions, organizational morale, organizational support, supervision and co-worker relation were the extrinsic factors of professional satisfaction.

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

The primary objective of this study was to find out the range of professional freedom and satisfaction as perceived by media persons in Kerala that too within the multidimensional perspective including the internal and external factors of professional freedom and satisfaction. In addition to that, the interconnection between the professional freedom and satisfaction along with their component level correlations are also examined.

Figure 5.1: Professional Freedom and Satisfaction of Media Persons in Kerala (Conceptual Model Showing Study Results)

— Denotes positive mean in factors and association in personal and professional characteristics
 - - - Indicates negative mean in factors and no relation in personal and professional characteristics



Unraveling the results of the present study on professional freedom and satisfaction of journalists in Kerala, the researcher has modified the research model as given in Figure 5.1 in which dotted line indicate insignificant associations between the variables and filled lines indicate significant relationships.

When Bourdieu's Field Theory is taken into account, journalistic field retains some kind of autonomy even when influenced by external pressures. After the formation of the field, it tends to be reigned by 'implicit rules' producing internal homogeneity (Bourdieu, 1998). Further, the rate at which external pressures influence the individual media organizations is decided by their own internal homogeneity. Thus the internal homogeneity, governed by their own rules, at the microcosm level play vital role in deciding the journalist's professional freedom and satisfaction. But this should be analyzed within the macro level/external factors of press freedom and profit-oriented media industry in the country.

Clearly, the professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons in Kerala are subjected to both internal and external factors. In other words, press freedom environment in the country and journalistic work environment within organizations are decisive alike in terms of professional freedom and satisfaction of media persons in Kerala. The present study, in this way, addressed the levels of internal and external freedom and the levels of intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction as perceived by Kerala journalists. Below presented and discussed are the major findings of the study.

MALE, YOUNG, EDUCATED, POLITICAL AND RELIGIOUS JOURNALISTS

Field of journalism in Kerala, a female majority state in India, is male-dominated as in all other fields in the society as well as journalism profession across the globe. There is no other reason why the media preferred the coverage of women celebrity issues and violence against women than woman health, girl child, women education, women sports, women politics, pathetic state of women at home or society, and the like in India as Gularia (2010) found out. At the same time, the presence of LGBT journalists in the Kerala media is an indication of the change in the nature of coverage on them, a socially alienated group through the ages.

Media field in Kerala is in the path of rapid professionalization as indicated by the increasing presence of professionally trained journalists. It is also evident in the mounting number of institutions offering various journalism courses in the state. Advanced technological and digital news environment is indeed in need of trained journalists. However, beyond technical soundness, the way trained young journalists to contribute to the quality of journalism in Kerala is an area for further exploration.

Being apolitical is a difficult task in Kerala, a southern state in India known for its political literacy. Kerala journalists are not an exception, they are politically affiliated and so it is reflected in the overwhelming coverage of political news/views. Further, the existence of a vast number of politically charged newspapers and news channels show the political affinity of people including journalists in the state. These media duly cater the politically diverse populations in this part of the country. When M P Veerendrakumar, the Managing Director of Mathrubhumi led JDU changed its political front, the political linearity of the newspaper has also changed. Resultantly, journalists and readers of the daily faced a dilemma either to accept or to reject the second largest daily in Malayalam in terms of their political affiliation.

Kerala society by its very nature is highly religious and India is home to a number of world religions. Here, being religious as well as being secular is a part of the social status of the people. Religious sentiments may influence the very circulation or viewership of a particular media. Kerala media is a classic example of this view. The coverage of religious stories is glocalised within the regions of the state and different editions of important newspapers followed different religious taste as Jeffrey (1997) mentioned. The emergence of religiously motivated newspapers and channels in Malayalam uphold the same marketing logic of religious sentimentalism. Recently religious sentiments of Christians were hurt by Malayala Manorama and Muslims by Mathrubhumi which in turn reflected in the deterioration of circulation of the respective newspapers in respective religious belts in the state.

MODERATE PROFESSIONAL FREEDOM

Kerala journalists enjoyed a moderate level of freedom and perceived that they were partly free to take the news decisions in confirmation with journalists across the world

(Weaver, Beam, Brownlee, Voakes, & Wilhoit, 2007). The finding is in line with the report of Freedom House which stated that India is partly free on press freedom (Freedom House, 2017). Freedom of the press in a democratic nation is indisputable. When we say that the professional freedom of Kerala journalists is moderate, it also indicates that their freedom is limited on some grounds. Pollard (1995) observed profession and organization continued to be the 'control centres' of freedom is in fact right in the case of professional freedom of journalists in Kerala, a southern state in India.

Undoubtedly, the right of the audience to get informed especially in a democracy is filtered on economic, political, and organizational grounds. The more the journalists are free the more will be the quality of their work and vice versa. The more media is free the more will be the security of democracy. Further, there is no democracy without media freedom and there is no media freedom without democracy. In that sense, quality of journalism in this part of the world is not outstanding. Press Freedom Index by Reporters Without Borders was published in 2017 with a warning that the freedom of the press is in decline across democracies around the world (RPW, 2017). It is high time to address the issue of declining journalistic freedom with adequate measures. Filters of freedom must be filtered.

Professional Freedom Is More External

Kerala journalists enjoyed more external professional freedom than internal professional freedom. In other words, professional freedom of journalists curtailed internally by organizational factors than externally by the legal, political and commercial factors which press the journalistic freedom from outside the media organizations. Unlike Ugandan journalists - as reported by Mwesige (2004) – whose freedom was restricted more in legal (laws restricting media & media personnel) and political (govt censorship) terms, professional freedom of the journalists in Kerala was restricted more by internal means.

Organizational level pressure is the immediate experience of the journalists under investigation. Naturally, they are more concerned with their internal freedom even when they notice the constraints on external freedom. Majority of the media

management in Kerala opposed Majidia wage board recommendations and refused to pay journalists accordingly. Print media managements started to appoint journalists in technical posts and preferred to hire employees on a contract basis to outdo the recommendations. In addition to that revolted journalists were given punishment transfers to the remote areas of the country. In the case of TV journalists, the condition is more pathetic as they are mostly underpaid except a few star journalists. The working journalist's organizations, who had to take up the issues, provided membership only to the permanent employees until when the general body of Kerala Union of Working Journalists held at Malappuram in October 2017 decided to include journalists on contract also in the union.

When not technologically advanced and credibility is lost, media outlets fall in short of circulation and viewership. Gradually, the financing agencies will go after those media that can reach their target audience/consumers. In short, media organizations should understand that its growth depends on the performance of its journalists and the quality of journalism they produce. It is a must to keep the standards of journalism to prevail profitable in the present scenario, especially in a democratic country like India. Journalists, on the other hand, be well equipped with the most advanced technological means to stay competitive in the profession.

Organizational Pressures Curtail Internal Freedom

What constraints curtail the internal professional freedom is an unavoidable question. Organizational pressures and personalized pressures are the most adversely affecting factors of journalists' internal freedom. It is at the sole discretion of journalists the news stories are primarily filtered and then by the organizational policy in the form of a supervisor or the news managers. Redefined role of a journalist and profit-oriented organizations challenged journalistic values and journalists' authority over news story selection and presentation as affirmed by Witschge and Nygren (2009). Undoubtedly, media organizations themselves in Kerala are at the central role curtailing professional freedom of journalists. Ironically, Lin (2010) found that majority of Chinese journalists enjoyed more autonomy on page design than on content.

Analyzing the situation in depth, a keen observer can understand that the internal pressure journalists experience is the reverberation of constraints on press freedom from the external factors like economic pressures. Bourdieu rightly observed that the journalistic field is losing its autonomy due to economic pressures from advertising and corporate ownership. Further, power constraints in the forms of public relations and political flak influence cultural dimensions of journalistic content. In this way, professional freedom of journalists solely depends on their professional and organizational balancing or tension (Benson, 2008).

Economic Pressures and Physical Threats Curtail External Freedom

Kerala journalists perceived that their external professional freedom is curtailed mainly due to economic pressures and physical threats. In a way, these factors are connected as organizations encourage self-censorship on economic grounds while individual journalists are compelled to practice self-censorship considering physical threats from organized crime groups and all. Media without fear face financial crisis and journalists without fear become martyrs. In essence, that is why West (2011) opined that outside news sources play a more important role in news decisions than the journalists' own decisions. Obviously, political and commercial constraints in the form of self-censorship hinder journalists' pursuit of professionalism in news production. The cause for the decline in the position of India in the World Press Freedom Index pointed at the fact that "With Hindu nationalists trying to purge all manifestations of "anti-national" thought from the national debate, self-censorship is growing in the mainstream media" (RPW, 2017).

Many journalists working with different media face threats and some of them are tortured for unveiling organized crimes. Weakening the democracy in India, offenders addressed not the questions but the questioners with knives and rifles. The Community to Protect Journalists reported that at least 28 journalists were murdered since 1992 in India (CPJ, 2017). Four journalists were assaulted in 2017. World Press Freedom Index by Reporters Without Borders highlighted the influence of external restrictions on media freedom in India observing "growing radical nationalism." The assassination of journalists including Gauri Lankesh, the editor of the Kannada weekly *Gauri Lankesh Patrike* and Subhash Bhowmik, a reporter of Agartala (Tripura) based

local TV station *Dinraat* – in September 2017 pointed at the fact that disclosure of unfavourable truth becomes more a life-threatening challenge in Indian media.

In Kerala, journalists were denied the entry to the open court, a constitutional right, to report its proceedings. A group of lawyers evicted journalists from the media room in the high court and made the open courts to function as a closed second estate. Again, Malayala Manorama reporter T D Dileep was brutally attacked by drugs mafia in connection with the death of a teenager at Kozhikode. Kerala Union of Working Journalists (KUWJ) accused that there existed an unholy alliance between the drugs mafia and the police personnel (Webindia123, 4 October 2017). As envisaged by Greenberg et al. (2007) security to life and job are inevitable for journalists to remain free and content in their profession.

Sweethearting Influences Professional Freedom

The personalized pressure of financial and material influence and organizational pressure of profit orientation respectively affected the internal and external professional freedom of journalists in Kerala that resulted in sweethearting. Newsworthy stories that may adversely affect the funding agencies and the specific audience of the media are neglected or edited. On the other hand, stuffs that are not newsworthy may find place or time in media. These are in essence are part of sweethearting, 'the practice of giving customers unauthorized discounts' causing loss of quality in the profession of journalism. Journalism was converted from an art form to a literary technique which valued technical skills of journalists than that of their autonomy observed Albuquerque and Gagliardi (2011).

Media organizations fear financial cuts from their funding agencies like advertisers and governments and they filter unfavourable contents on those funding agencies as part of sweethearting. Insufficient salary may tempt journalists to receive favours to filter contents. In both ways, using filtering or flattering, the media content is moderated either by power or by influence. Booming corporate control and profiteering media industry prompt them to engage in self-censorship. Self-censorship is taken as occurring when journalists limit or ignore aspects of a story because they fear repercussions or receive financial benefits from those with vested interests who are

cited in their report. Noam Chomsky is right, in this sense, while stating that “the media serve and propagandize on behalf of, the powerful societal interests that control and finance them” (Chomsky, 2002).

Affirmation of paid news syndrome in Indian media during 2014 Lok Sabha election by the Parliamentary committee pointed at the depth of commercialization in the journalism field. Undoubtedly, the importance of news matters less than the profitability of news in mass media. ‘The media is the watchdog of democracy, nothing that weakens it should be permitted, but if it is weakening from within, that too should not be permitted,’ warned S. Y. Quraishi, former Chief Election Commissioner of India (The Hindu, 2015).

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS AND PROFESSIONAL FREEDOM

Personal characteristics, especially communicator’s own personality and self-image, can be considered as content moderators as envisaged by Gerhard Maletzke (1988). Age and political affiliation were found to have a significant influence on determining the level of internal professional freedom of Kerala journalists while the personal characteristics influenced external professional freedom were media education and religious affiliation. And the lone decisive personal characteristics influenced professional freedom (PF) in general was age.

Gender Minorities Enjoy Better Professional Freedom

LGBT journalists enjoyed more freedom across gender categories. Kerala is one of the pioneering states in India having welfare policy for the transgender community. And so the result can be attributed to the fact that the Kerala society becomes more inclusive and it is well reflected in media sector as well. Interestingly, women journalists had a higher level of freedom than that of male folk. Levels of perceived freedom by LGBT and female journalists warrant further study especially when they are facing multiple challenges of work-life balance that may influence their freedom.

Upper-Aged Predicts Better Professional Freedom

Young journalists feel lack of adequate media freedom in the state. The difference in the nature of the interaction of age in internal and external professional freedom

indicates that the contributing factors of journalists' professional freedom in the workplace and social environment are not identical. This may be attributed to the journalists' adaptation of organizational/professional conditions and their continuously modified understanding of professional freedom over the years of professional experience.

Professionally Educated Journalists Perceive Less Professional Freedom

Interestingly, journalists without professional education reported higher freedom than those professionally educated. Their acquaintance with the ideal and wider concept of media freedom they learned as part of their media education may influence their very concept of professional freedom. As observed by (Godler & Reich, 2013), professional education might have given the journalists the yardstick to measure objectivity with more precision and thus they identified the breach of objectivity more efficiently than their professionally uneducated coworkers. It also indicates that prescribing media education for journalists will ensure creative and positive conceptualization of media freedom among journalists in the country. Resultantly, such a situation will lead to increased demand for the freer environment for media that in turn will foster democratic values as well as quality journalism.

Politically Affiliated Journalists Profess Less Professional Freedom

Journalists without political affiliation professed better freedom than that of their politically affiliated counterparts in Kerala. The political orientation of the organization and perceived political influence on the news as perceived by the journalists might have resulted in this perception as observed in the case of Chilean journalists by Mellado and Humanes (2012) and US journalists by Reich and Hanitzsch (2013). Historically, journalism was seen as an extension of political activism in Kerala and there are a lot of media owned and operated by political parties in the state (Deshabhimani, Kairali, Chandrika, Suprabhatham, Janam, Janmabhumi, Janayugam, Veekshanam). Political affiliation as a decisive predictor of professional freedom of journalists in Kerala conflicts with the wider interests of the media industry in the state that recently started to develop a professional workforce to meet its corporatized objectives.

Religiously Affiliated Journalists Report More Professional Freedom

In contrast to that of politically affiliated journalists, religiously affiliated journalists reported more professional freedom than those who are not religiously affiliated. Though not significant, such a difference can be attributed to the way by which religious news was covered. Religion-friendly coverage of related news might be counted as a breach of objectivity by the religiously not affiliated journalists whereas the religiously affiliated ones might see it as natural. This also can be attributed to the gaps between journalists' own goals and values and the goals and values of the organization as observed by Skovsgaard (2014).

PROFESSIONAL CHARACTERISTICS AND PROFESSIONAL FREEDOM

Like personal characteristics, professional traits also play as predictors of professional freedom as evidenced by various scholars like Samuelson (1962), Weaver and Wilhoit (1986), Smucker, Whisenant, and Pedersen (2003), Massey and Elmore (2011), El-Nawawy and Strong (2012), Reinardy (2014), and Ofili et al. (2014). The internal professional freedom enjoyed by journalists in Kerala is defined by their professional characteristics like region, professional experience, salary range, and employer pattern while their external professional freedom was affected by region and media. But the type of media and region of work were the decisive factors in terms of professional freedom enjoyed by journalists in Kerala in general.

Working Region Influences Professional Freedom

Journalists working Outside Kerala (journalists belonging to Kerala based media working at different parts of India outside the state of Kerala) and South Kerala had higher freedom scores than that of journalists working in Central and North regions of Kerala. Socio-cultural features and geopolitical nature of the region where journalists work are determining factors with regard to their professional freedom. In this specific case, the difference among the regions in relation to professional freedom of journalists is found to be between those regions where centres of power (i.e. State or National Capitals) locate and those far from such centres. National and state capital cities are the places of origin of most of the news items in news media as they are the centre of major political and governmental events. This position of capital cities assigns an upper

hand to the journalists there in news programming of mother organizations. That, in turn, makes them feel freer than their counterparts in other geographical areas.

Type of Media Influences Professional Freedom

Similarly, of four types of media, journalists working in radio reported higher freedom score than their counterparts in television, newspapers, and online media. Job security and higher financial rewards of journalists in publicly owned radio and the lesser level of external pressure in television where media content is less moderated might have prompted them to perceive higher professional freedom than their counterparts in print and online media. The chance for content moderation is lesser in television due to live-streaming and similar practices while in online media and newspaper, stories are more likely to be moderated by copy desk and more regulated by legal provisions like IT Act.

Professionally Experienced Journalists Perceive Better Professional Freedom

Increasing level of professional freedom along with professional experience pointed at the fact that with their years of experience seasoned journalists are becoming more familiar with the limits of freedom practically available in their professional settings. The experience might have helped journalists to identify the limitations of their freedom and how to use the limited freedom effectively and wisely within the organizations and within the socio-political context as Mellor (2009) identified in the case of Arab journalists. Hence the more the age and experience the more was their perceived professional freedom and satisfaction as they reached news management positions to exercise their discretionary decisions on media content.

Field of Work is Not Decisive

The difference among the scores among journalists belonging to the fields or work was very slight; it was an indication to the fact that higher news decision autonomy enjoyed by those journalists working in the field of news management had an influence on their perception of freedom than their counterparts in the fields of reporting, editing and photo/videography. Further, the study revealed that content gatekeepers (Editors and News Managers) are freer than content generators (Reporters and Photographers/Videographers). This result substantiates the finding that journalists in capital cities score higher EPF and IPF as they have an influence on news programming. Nature of

work and limited instructions from the organization can be the reasons that lead to better freedom perceived by photo/video journalists than their field counterparts of reporters. This can be explained by the observation made by Albuquerque and Gagliardi (2011) while studying Brazilian journalists that modern day journalism valued technical skills of journalists than that of their autonomy.

Salary Range Influences Professional Freedom

The higher the salary range the higher was the perceived professional freedom of journalists. With this result it can be deduced that professional freedom is closely related to economic freedom of journalists since a better financial condition helps journalists to manage many issues like life work conflict, conveyance problem etc. that may contribute to limiting their freedom indirectly. Salary is well associated with the position a journalist adorn in a media organization. Hence the higher the position the higher will be his news decision autonomy and so will be the salary. Such a connection though not direct, might be the reason for the close relationship between salary and professional freedom.

Journalists in Public Media Report Better Professional Freedom

The public sector journalists, mostly from All India Radio and nominally from TV, are bound to follow official guidelines and regulatory measures in content creation and dissemination. Such a restrictive policy normally influences their concept of freedom. However, journalists working in public owned media reported higher professional freedom than those who are in corporate/private owned media. This difference may be due to the contrast work environments in private and public media.

While journalists in private media work under various types of job-related pressures due to severe commercialization and profit orientation, their counterparts in public media enjoyed a lesser level of owner intervention and a higher level of job security. Supporting this finding, Subeesh (2016) observed that media employees in public sector in Kerala relished better work-life quality than those in private sector. In addition to that, the government salary and policy adaptation of journalists in public media along with the financial dependency of private media on funding agencies like advertisers that might shrink their freedom is reflected in this dichotomy of professional

freedom. The finding is in line with the observation made by Strömbäck, Karlsson and Hopmann (2012) that journalists working for commercial broadcasters tended to have a wider gap between perceived normative and actual news determinants and is in contrast to the finding of Reich and Hanitzsch (2013) that journalists in privately owned media seemed to enjoy more autonomy than their colleagues in state-owned media.

Professional Freedom of Kerala Journalists in General

In a wider perspective, the status of professional freedom of journalists in Kerala is not in a safer position for all the positive aspects of intellectual and physical indices that the state claims in the name of the well acclaimed Kerala model. And, it is also to be noted that journalists' freedom is more curtailed, as they perceive, internally than externally pointing at the organizational motives that betray the very concept of press freedom. This may be due to the direct and indirect effect on professional freedom of journalists from both internal and external components respectively. Immediate constraints on freedom of journalists are imposed by the organization and by the immediate authorities as perceived by the journalists.

On the other hand, journalists may not feel directly affected by external factors like governmental, economic, political and religious pressures. Pressure from external factors affects more on those who are in news management positions. In a larger spectrum, this finding seems to back the argument that media content is more influenced by external – social - factors than internal – organizational - factors. Whatsoever, “greater pressure from external and internal restrictions in the forms of ‘news routines, superiors, editors, executives, owners, politicians, government officials, business and public relations,’ decreased the degree of journalist’s perceived autonomy depending on the ‘naturalization’ of these factors” as observed by Mellado and Humanes (2012, p.16).

MODERATE PROFESSIONAL SATISFACTION

Like professional freedom, the professional satisfaction of journalists in Kerala is also at a moderate level. However, Raeymaeckers (2012) reported that a negative shift in professional satisfaction of media persons was visible in longitudinal studies though nationality plays in professional satisfaction with different intensity under different

modes of government as professed by Kirat (2004). Earlier, Thomas and Nelliullathil (2010) observed that Kerala journalists, the passion-led professionals, were satisfied with their job.

The most contributing factor is profession itself, while the least contributing factor was a work-family relation. The data showed that journalists in Kerala are more satisfied with profession related factors like work itself and work-related individual responsibility than the factors like social status and work-family relations. In other words, the sampled journalists perceive their profession not suitable for a balanced life between family and work. It should be analyzed in the context that most of the Kerala journalists were married and so have increased the level of familial responsibility. Also, they consider their job fails to offer a better social status.

Of the five contributing factors of extrinsic professional satisfaction, pay & working conditions contributed the least. It is logical to infer that journalists in Kerala are well to their natural expectations and the working conditions in media are not as good as they expected. The reason why Kerala journalists were satisfied with the organizational morale factor is that organizational ideology, policy and philosophy were not in conflict with journalists' perspective. In general, the journalists' perception is that they were not provided with a proper salary and working facilities to meet their familial and professional needs. Studies indicated that journalists tended to have higher expectations in terms of extrinsic factors than that of intrinsic factors of professional freedom (El-Nawawy & Strong, 2012).

Professional Satisfaction is More Intrinsic

Unlike external professional freedom, journalists in Kerala reported more intrinsic professional satisfaction than extrinsic professional satisfaction affirming the studies of Jenkins (1994), Pokrywczynski & Crowley (1997), Akhavan-Majid (1998), and Greenberg et al. (2007). The study supports the observation of Reinardy (2014) that journalism is a profession that requires intrinsic motivation which actually leads to satisfaction in the profession. Thomas and Nelliullathil (2010) found that journalists in Kerala were passion led professionals. If that is the case, journalists in this part of the

world are motivated from within and are engaged in public service journalism enhancing democracy.

Level of satisfaction, from a different angle, is reduced as they were less satisfied in the extrinsic factors of professional satisfaction. Service-oriented journalism which might have inspired the journalists to enter this profession alone is insufficient for journalists to whom it is a livelihood. Less pay and insufficient working conditions might have prompted to have less extrinsic satisfaction in the profession. Further, the majority of the Kerala journalists are married and so having doubled familial responsibility letting family-work relation in crisis.

Work-Family Relations Influence Satisfaction

For journalists, one of the most challenging factors within the profession is to balance the work-family relations. Unpredicted nature of work schedules in the profession affects the level of journalistic satisfaction adversely as journalists get lesser time to spend with family. Further, lack of expected support from the family to the profession and in turn, an organization to the family produced less satisfaction among journalists. The conflict between family timing and work timing along with insufficient salary may affect the domestic relations as reported by Furnham and Hughes (1999). In other words, the sampled journalists perceive their profession not suitable for a balanced life between family and work.

In addition to that individual journalist's emotional attachment towards the family might have influenced the level of their satisfaction. Lim (2013) pointed to the possibility of such a role of emotional responses while studying online journalists. However, further study is needed to investigate the role of emotional responses relating to work-family balance/imbalance in determining satisfaction of journalists.

Pay and Working Conditions Diminish Satisfaction

Pay and working conditions are the least contributing factor of satisfaction of journalists in Kerala. Majority of them are underpaid and are unable to meet their everyday needs with the given salary. Majority of the journalists are given below Rs. 20000 which is further down the salary scale of a lower division clerk in the government sector in the state. This salary range is in place of journalist's salary that equalled to those of

professors in the universities in the 1960s. The discrepancy between work-salary ratios also paved way for less extrinsic satisfaction. In addition to that lower quality of the working environment and inconsistent work-schedule prompted journalists in Kerala to predict enfeebled satisfaction in terms of working conditions. Professionals in the media field get comparatively less and unstable salary to cop up with their effort they pour in. Life is so unconditional and miserable for the bottom level media journalists as they earned less than a driver working at the entry level for the central government (Samrat, 2017).

Greenberg et al. (2007) observed while investigating war journalists that professional satisfaction might be more affected by the organizational factors like the disparity between workload and rewards. Organizational support by means of furnished infrastructure/working conditions is inevitable for journalists to maintain physical and mental health, a precondition for a journalistic duty as far as its nature is concerned. It is remarkable that researchers like Reinardy and Crawford (2011) found that lack of organizational support was a major reason for journalists to leave the organization. The CareerCast report 2017 rated the newspaper reporter and broadcaster jobs as the worst two jobs on the grounds of the work environment (emotional and physical), income, employment growth, and stress (CareerCast, 2017). No further explanation is needed to understand the status of the journalistic job.

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS AND PROFESSIONAL SATISFACTION

Groups of personal characteristics like gender, media education, political affiliation, and religious affiliation generated no significant differences in satisfaction score with an exception of age that professed significant differences across various age groups of journalists in Kerala. This was same in the case of extrinsic professional satisfaction while political affiliation along with age had a significant influence on intrinsic professional satisfaction journalists enjoyed in this part of the country. However, determinants of professional satisfaction receive different weights depending on the modes of governments, nationality and culture of as depicted by El-Nawawy and Strong (2012) and Willnat, Weaver and Choi (2013).

Gender is Not Decisive

Highly satisfied LGBT journalists indicated the changing social psyche of the Kerala society with regard to gender minorities. In contrast to professional freedom, male journalists reported to have a better level of satisfaction than their female counterparts. Considering the extra effort female folk wanted to balance work and life being part of a male-dominated society as well as a profession, the finding makes no surprise but concern. Reinardy (2009) professed that lack of desired organizational support led the female journalists to have lower levels of professional efficacy and satisfaction. A survey on Managing Maternity Benefit Amendment Act 2017 Report suggested that 63% women leave their job due to childcare responsibilities (People Matters, 2017).

There is indeed the need for extra support from the organization to the female journalists to face this overburden. But that “change toward a sort of equality in family life seems to be occurring, but the pace seems more glacial than revolutionary” opined Weaver et.al (as cited in Kimberly, 2009). In contrast to the present study, gender influence on the professional satisfaction of journalists was a global phenomenon as found by Smucker, Whisenant, and Pedersen (2003), Rivas-Rodriguez et al. (2004), Sachsman, Simon and Valenti (2008), Reinardy (2009), Massey and Elmore (2011), Deprez and Raeymaeckers (2012), Semary (2012), Reinardy (2014), Ofili et al. (2014), and Lucht (2015). Rivas-Rodriguez et al. (2004) truly observed that representation can cause better coverage of minorities. For Lucht (2015) found that gender difference reflects in media content.

Upper-Aged Journalists Report Higher Satisfaction

According to Herzberg, when a person starts a career, satisfaction is high. Satisfaction diminishes for several years and then begins to rise. To be specific, a person enters into the journalism field with high expectations of frequent rewards as s/he received during the days of education. But it occurs less frequently and his satisfaction declines. Later, s/he accepts it as normal and lowers expectations resulting in increased satisfaction. Age exposed as an influencing factor of professional satisfaction in this study is in confirmation with the previous studies of Miller et al. (1995), Smucker, Whisenant, and Pedersen (2003), Reinardy (2007), and Greenberg et al. (2007). But

this relation between age and professional satisfaction was not curvilinear (Herzberg, 1957) or U-shaped (Clark, Oswald, & Warr, 1996).

There is a tendency to increase satisfaction along with the age in general as seen in the case of perceived freedom with an exception in the beginning of one's career. To be specific, a person enters into the journalism field with high expectations of frequent rewards as s/he received during the days of education. But it occurs less frequently and his satisfaction declines. Later, s/he accepts it as normal and lowers expectations resulting in increased satisfaction. In addition to that, the position journalists reach and the respective hike in salary and professional freedom journalists receive over the ages help them to perceive better satisfaction. Further, the observation of Weaver and Wilhoit (1996) that risk-liking generation shifted to a risk-disliking generation who prefer 'normal lives' can also be viewed in this respect.

Professional Education is Not Decisive

Researchers like Sachsman, Simon and Valenti (2008) predicted the education and job satisfaction were negatively correlated. Why professional education makes someone less content in a profession like journalism? Higher expectations of professionally educated journalists on the career and the professional environment might be the reasons for this trend. However, the difference between those who were professionally educated and those who were not professionally educated was not statistically significant on contrary to the finding of Semary (2012). But this difference between the previous and the present work can be attributed to the difference in culture and nationality as Chang and Massey (2010), Willnat, Weaver and Choi (2013) identified. Moreover, journalists bring their own conceptions of newsworthiness - obtained as part of their professional education and the national professional environment - to bear the way they approach their work (as cited in Benson, 2006).

Political Affiliation of Journalists Predict Less Satisfaction

Journalistic values and commitment of the organization are desired by the journalists as found by Weaver and Wilhoit (1986). As in professional freedom, politically not affiliated journalists had higher professional satisfaction than those with political affiliation. The conflict between newsroom/editorial policy - often driven by the

organization's political leaning - and individual journalist's ideological inclination can be a reason for this difference as observed by Weaver and Wilhoit (1986), Stamm and Underwood (1993), Weaver and Wilhoit (1996), Reinardy (2009), and Willnat, Weaver and Choi (2013).

It is true that any kind of political leaning that influences the objectivity of media content causes a decline in the quality of journalism. And there is no wonder if politically affiliated journalists who contradicted with their organization's political leaning perceived less intrinsic professional satisfaction.

Religious Affiliation is Not Decisive

Journalists with religious affiliation predicted better professional satisfaction than those who are not religiously affiliated. Whatever be the reason, the finding tended to support the observation made by Sachsman, Simon and Valenti (2008) that the religious affiliation and satisfaction of journalists were positively correlated. However, the difference between journalists with and without religious affiliation was not significant as far as media professionals in Kerala are concerned.

PROFESSIONAL CHARACTERISTICS AND PROFESSIONAL SATISFACTION

Focusing professional characteristics, differences across categories of ownership pattern, professional experience, and salary range recorded high significance with regard to the professional satisfaction. For intrinsic professional satisfaction, type of media was also a predictor of journalists' satisfaction. Meanwhile, differences across categories of region and field of work yielded no statistical significance.

Region is Not Decisive

Journalists from both south Kerala and outside Kerala that had a higher degree of professional satisfaction accommodated journalists from state and national capitals respectively. As discussed professional freedom, a kind of regionalism was in operation. That is to say, news stories of equal magnitudes from these dominant regions were covered more vigorously than news stories from other regions. Naturally, this difference in perceived importance of stories done by the journalists working at the

national and state capital regions led those media professionals to have a higher level of satisfaction.

Type of Media Influence Professional Satisfaction

Journalists in radio in Kerala enjoyed greater professional satisfaction than those working in other media. Being a public media, media professionals in Radio had reasonable salary package, flexible work schedule and job security. This might have helped radio journalists to support their family better than their counterparts in other media, especially journalists from television. In the case of online journalists, emotional response to their competitors' coverage and scooping were significantly correlated with their job satisfaction, workload, and the perceived quality of their news website as observed by Lim (2013).

Professionally Experienced Predict Higher Satisfaction

The more the professional experience the higher was the professional satisfaction of journalists in Kerala. Longevity of journalists' professional career itself is an evidence of their content in what they do. Samuelson (1962), Weaver and Wilhoit (1986), Smucker, Whisenant, and Pedersen (2003), Massey and Elmore (2011), El-Nawawy and Strong (2012), Reinardy (2014), and Ofili et al. (2014) reported that professional experience of journalists was a predictor of their satisfaction across nations. The longer journalists continue in the profession the higher would be their love and adaptation to the profession. Further, they might be able to exploit all the possible ways by which they can find satisfaction within the profession. One can no longer continue in a profession for at least a decade without genuine interest. To be specific, satisfaction increased the span of a journalistic career and the span of journalistic career increase journalistic satisfaction as observed by Samuelson (1962) in the very pioneering study of job satisfaction of US journalists.

Journalists at Higher Salary Range Perceive Higher Professional Satisfaction

As in professional experience, the higher the salary range of journalists in Kerala the higher was their professional satisfaction. Fair salary will enable the journalists to manage his/her duty as a family head/member and such economic relations more efficiently which in turn help the journalists to be content with the profession they are

engaged in. Earlier, Weaver and Wilhoit (1986), Weaver and Wilhoit (1996), Smucker, Whisenant, and Pedersen (2003), Reinardy (2009), Chang and Massey (2010), Massey and Elmore (2011), Deprez and Raeymaeckers (2012), Semary (2012), Willnat, Weaver and Choi (2013), Flores and Subervi (2014), Ofili et al. (2014) and Lucht (2015) observed the significant relation between salary range and professional satisfaction of journalists.

Undoubtedly, media organizations are supposed to revise the salary and other such monetary welfare packages provided to the journalists periodically to retain the journalists satisfied and to uphold their morale high. It will enable the journalists to meet their living. Resultantly, personal pressures on media content will be reduced which in turn will ensure free and fair reporting at least at the individual journalist's level. If not, journalists may resort to sweethearting to earn their livelihood diminishing the quality of journalism.

Field of Work is Not Decisive

Journalists in the editing field tended to report more satisfaction than journalists in other fields. Here, journalists in the news management and editing fields are likely to act as content regulators who actually regulate the content generated by those journalists working in the fields of reporting and video/photography. Certainly, journalists working in a field where more news decision autonomy is vested with will be more satisfied. However, discrediting the findings of researchers like Smucker, Whisenant, and Pedersen (2003), Celia and Francis (2012), Deprez and Raeymaeckers (2012), Semary (2012), and Ofili et al. (2014), the field of work was not an influencing factor of professional satisfaction of journalists in Kerala.

Public Sector Journalists Report Higher Professional Satisfaction

Being a government employee in a profession that you value the most might have helped the media professionals in public media to have higher professional satisfaction than those who belonged to private/corporate media. For journalists compromised the news gathering limitations as a trade-off for a secure job supported by a caring management and high public profile that provided job satisfaction found El-Nawawy and Strong (2012). Also, the difference in profit orientation and news value

compromises between public and private/corporate media might have resulted in this trend. Stamm and Underwood (1993) were first to identify the role of employer pattern in determining the professional satisfaction of journalists.

PROFESSIONAL FREEDOM IS CORRELATED WITH SATISFACTION

The present study predicted a strong correlation between professional freedom and satisfaction of journalists in Kerala. The more the professional freedom of a journalist the more will be his/her professional satisfaction. Such a bond between professional freedom and satisfaction can be traced from the very notion of press freedom, a prerequisite for the democratization of information. Further, journalists may enter the profession with great expectations especially that of freedom of the press which enables them to exercise their journalistic commitment to transform the society into an informed citizenry.

This finding of the positive correlation between professional freedom and professional satisfaction of journalists affirmed the previous studies of Weaver and Wilhoit (1986), Demers (1994), Sachsman, Simon and Valenti (2008), Chang and Massey (2010), Reinardy and Crawford (2011), Deprez and Raeymaeckers (2012), Semary (2012), El-Nawawy and Strong (2012), Willnat, Weaver and Choi (2013), Thomas and Nelliullathil (2013), and Reinardy (2014). However, the relationship between professional freedom and satisfaction, arguably, is like two sides of the same coin in a public service profession like journalism. Hence, raising professional freedom for journalists will automatically raise the level of their professional satisfaction which ultimately leads to the raising in quality of journalism.

Professional freedom ultimately leads to high satisfaction in the profession. Increase in work autonomy of journalists - especially those with beat specialization - instigated the upsurge of their satisfaction level as found by researchers like Reinardy and Crawford (2011). To conclude, the better the professional freedom of journalists in Kerala the higher was their professional satisfaction.

Certainly, these findings inspire discussion and call for further research in the area. Bourdieu's notion that journalistic field functions after own implicit rules are further advanced by the present study. Available autonomy caused to generate implicit

rules and thus internal homogeneity within each media organizations and even in individual journalists shaped after their professional education by formal or informal means. Like the journalistic field, each media organizations, as well as the individual journalists, form and follow their own principles of action using their semi-autonomy. Thus they act as microcosm sets within the macrocosm of journalistic field. Journalistic field, on the other hand, is itself a microcosm set as one of the semi-autonomous fields within a national outlook like the fields of politics, economics, religion etc.

The fundamental question is what kind of autonomy can, or should, journalists expect to retain amidst all constraints they face in the field? Whatever be the degree of freedom journalists get in the journalistic field, adaptation to the habitus is the only solution to make use of the available autonomy effectively. And so is with satisfaction, to be content in what is available. At the same time, inevitable are the collective interventions by journalistic organizations to enhance the degree of available freedom and satisfaction.

Keeping the area of research, the way of execution and the inferences of the present study in mind, the researcher advance the following recommendations that may enhance the freedom and satisfaction of journalists and thus the quality of journalism.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Considering the results and so its implications for the study, the recommendations are organized under five categories such as recommendations to the media managements/organizations, journalists, government, audience/viewers and to the academia.

Managements/Organizations

- Ensure adequate representation of gender, class and caste minority journalists in the media room to attain social equality as well as coverage equality as representation can effect better coverage to minorities. Implementation of the reservation system in the newsrooms as well as in all job organizations in the private sector can be considered as a solution to under representation. Gender, caste and class-sensitive professional environment, especially in the Indian

context, may ensure proper representation of these in the organization and so will enrich news stories with diverse perspectives as it has done with black journalists in the United States.

- Most of the journalists in Kerala are underpaid. Ensure that the journalists receive a decent salary to run his/her family smoothly at par with modern living standards following the wage board recommendations. If not journalists may resort to sweethearting to find their livelihood which may diminish the quality of news itself.
- Journalists' quality contributes much to the organization's reputation which in turn decides the professional status of the journalists. Again, organization's quality boosts journalists' satisfaction. On job training - considering the age and experience of journalists and their adaptability to technological advancement - should be given from time to time to improve the quality of journalists and the journalism they produce.
- Prefer quality journalism to stay credible before the audience/readers, the potential consumers balancing pressures or possible conflicts of interests from owners of the media company, political actors, advertisers and other such funding agencies. Let sweethearting not violate the audience's right to information in a democratic country like India.
- Digitization and related technologies enable journalists to cover the news more efficiently and to submit the story without being present in a particular place. Utilize the work from home options. Equip journalists with such facilities and make their work hours more flexible allowing journalists to spend more time with family to attain a great work-life balance.
- Encourage journalists to maintain mental and physical health via adequate leisure time and all to get actively involved in their journalistic profession by maintaining decent and comfortable working environment and best possible work schedule taking personal and professional characteristics into account.
- Study and implement result oriented employee management strategies with a human face to reach out to the journalists in crisis as employees are after a free, responsible, supportive and social oriented job. Ensure organizational

support to individual journalists knowing their specific needs. Effective internal communication policy should be adopted in this respect. Professional satisfaction owes reasonably to the organizational care that may increase the span of a journalist's career.

- Implement The Maternity Benefit (Amendment) Act, 2017 to increase workplace diversity and to create an inclusive and supportive work environment in a context when women leave their job due to childcare responsibilities as per ProEves Managing the Maternity Benefit (Amendment) Act 2017 Survey. Proper washroom and toilet facilities and crèche could be set up in duly recommended newsroom offices.
- Saturating print media in Kerala should focus more on an online platform to overcome the impending decline in circulation and so the journalists to be equipped with the skills to operate in a digital media environment.
- Security to life and job are inevitable to a journalist to remain content and competitive. Employ journalists on a permanent basis with journalistic designations avoiding the tendency of news organizations to appoint journalists in technically modified designations in order to escape wage board recommendations.
- Journalism is a profession that requires intrinsic motivation (intellectually stimulating) and so journalists who are motivated from within can attain success in the profession. The conflict between professional goals and organizational goals influence the journalists' professional autonomy negatively. From this understanding allow the journalists to make use their nose for news to keep the organizations' reputation as a journalistic firm that will help to grow as a reliable media having an influence on potential consumers from funding agencies' point of view.

Journalists

- Profession and organization were the 'control centres' that influenced journalists' selection, preparation and presentation of news. Hence, The actual importance given to various determinants of news is different from perceived normative determinants. A realistic understanding of the constraints and

loopholes in the profession must be analyzed to act accordingly. Journalists with experience can make the best use of available freedom to realize their journalistic potential. This will, in turn, compel the organizations to retain their star journalists.

- The researchers observed that ‘a democratic context and commitment to newsroom leadership and discussion of ethics’ alone can make news decisions of journalists more ethical oriented. The better the democracy prevailed within media the more was perceived professional autonomy.

Readers/viewers

- Readers/viewers should attain the media literacy to recognize the fact that redefined role of a journalist and profit-oriented organizations challenged journalistic values and journalists’ authority over news story angle and selection that affect free and fair news reporting in this part of the world.

Academia

- A deeper investigation on the factors of professional freedom and satisfaction of journalists would be desirable
- Content analysis can be done to assess the utilization of freedom in preparing media content despite journalists’ personalized pressures from political, religious and such ideological leaning and work-life imbalances.
- It is worthwhile to examine the professional satisfaction and freedom of journalists focusing on a specific gender, type of media, beat specialization and so on to unearth the problems under study more efficiently and effectively.
- In-depth analysis of political and religious organization based media in the region will throw more light on the mode of operation and journalistic ethics followed in such media.
- It is reasonable to examine the way sweethearting, both at the personal and organizational level, affects the quality of journalism especially on the grounds of paid news syndrome.

Government

- The journalists are concerned more about the fundamental freedoms under which freedom of the press blooms in the country, especially after Gauri Lankesh murder and in the context of growing physical threats to individual journalists who cover organized crimes of all forms. The government should take measures to protect the freedom of speech and expression by controlling their own interventions in press freedom and by ensuring security to those who uncover unholy alliances of organized crime groups with those in power to help the nation to be democratic in all sense.
- Ensure that the media organizations strictly follow Majithia wage board recommendations and they do not appoint journalists under technically modified designations to escape the wage board recommendations.
- Make sure that the open courts function as open courts – in Kerala - allowing journalists to cover the court proceedings, a constitutional right with immediate effect.

Employee Organizations

- Working journalists' unions must address the representation issue of the field to convert the journalistic field gender, caste and class sensitive.
- Ensure membership and representation in executive bodies for all kinds of working journalists irrespective of their type of employment, type of media, gender, caste and class.
- Make use the capacity to bargain with the media organizations for the better work environment and the implementation of wage board recommendations.

These recommendations based on the thoughts generated from the findings of the study set in the regional mediascape of Kerala. Hence their applicability to the wider spectrum need to be tested by time as different factors of both professional freedom and satisfaction varied on different individual, professional, social and national contexts and over years. The Mac Bride Commission on New World Information and Communication Order (NWICO) stressed the importance of mass communication research especially in developing countries like India. Slowly but steadily, mass

communication research in India is in the path of expansion. Still, media research in the country as well as in the state is not well organized and focused. And so we lack continuous evaluation of the field as it done in the developed nations by both academic and media institutions. For instance, job satisfaction of journalists in the U.S. was under scrutiny for more than 50 years. Press freedom in India is in danger as a result of self-censorship of media for not being 'anti-national' (RPW, 2017) and when the journalist's job remain to be the worst in 2017 in the Jobs Rated Reports for a third consecutive year on the grounds of environment, income, outlook and stress (CareerCast, 2017). A survey of 541 out of 3000 plus journalists in the region using the professional freedom and satisfaction scales developed for the study indicates that the status of professional freedom and satisfaction of journalists in this part of India is not in a safer position for all the positive aspects of intellectual and physical parameters that prompted the state to sustain the well acclaimed Kerala model.

The structural compulsions in the corporatized media industry world over force the stakeholders, particularly news processors and managers, to resort to increased self-regulation risking professional freedom and satisfaction. As a developing nation with matured media market, India is also not an exception to it. The present study, in this way, contributes to the study of journalism and mass communication industry in India as it explores many hitherto hidden aspects of media profession in the country. More importantly, the professional freedom and professional satisfaction models and indices developed for the study is expected to remain as guiding mechanisms for future researchers since they were framed encompassing all possible scenarios in the Indian media landscape.

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PROFESSIONAL FREEDOM AND SATISFACTION OF MEDIA PERSONS IN KERALA

Sir/Madam,

I am conducting a study on '*Professional Freedom and Satisfaction of Media Persons in Kerala*' for the partial fulfilment of Doctor of Philosophy in Journalism from the Dept. of JMC, University of Calicut. I request you to spare a little of your valuable time to respond to this questionnaire. I assure you that the responses will be kept confidential and used for academic purpose only.

Meljo Thomas

Please choose the appropriate using tick mark (✓)

Gender	Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female <input type="checkbox"/> LGBT <input type="checkbox"/>
Age	Younger than 30 <input type="checkbox"/> Aged 30-39 <input type="checkbox"/> Aged 40-49 <input type="checkbox"/> Aged 50 & Above <input type="checkbox"/>
Marital status	Single <input type="checkbox"/> Married <input type="checkbox"/> Separated/Divorced <input type="checkbox"/>
Education	Up to Graduation <input type="checkbox"/> Post Graduation <input type="checkbox"/> Above PG <input type="checkbox"/>
Journalism Education	Not studied <input type="checkbox"/> Certificate course <input type="checkbox"/> Diploma <input type="checkbox"/> Graduation <input type="checkbox"/> PG <input type="checkbox"/> Above PG <input type="checkbox"/>
Type of media	Radio <input type="checkbox"/> TV <input type="checkbox"/> Newspaper <input type="checkbox"/> Online <input type="checkbox"/>
Media Institution (Optional)	
Employer Pattern	Public <input type="checkbox"/> Private <input type="checkbox"/>
Field of work	Reporting <input type="checkbox"/> Editing <input type="checkbox"/> News Management <input type="checkbox"/> Photography or Videography <input type="checkbox"/>
Beat Specialization (if any)	Politics <input type="checkbox"/> Business <input type="checkbox"/> Arts & Culture <input type="checkbox"/> Sports <input type="checkbox"/> Science <input type="checkbox"/> Region <input type="checkbox"/> Crime & Court <input type="checkbox"/> Other: (please specify)
Salary Range (Monthly)	Below Rs. 10000 <input type="checkbox"/> Rs. 10001-20000 <input type="checkbox"/> Rs. 20001-30000 <input type="checkbox"/> Rs. 30001-50000 <input type="checkbox"/> Above Rs. 50000 <input type="checkbox"/>
Region of work	South Kerala <input type="checkbox"/> Central Kerala <input type="checkbox"/> North Kerala <input type="checkbox"/> Outside Kerala <input type="checkbox"/>
Political affiliation	UDF <input type="checkbox"/> LDF <input type="checkbox"/> NDA <input type="checkbox"/> Other: (please specify)

Religious affiliation	Hindu <input type="checkbox"/> Muslim <input type="checkbox"/> Christian <input type="checkbox"/> No religion <input type="checkbox"/> Other: (please specify)
Economic status	Lower middle-class <input type="checkbox"/> Middle-class <input type="checkbox"/> Upper Middle Class <input type="checkbox"/>
Working journalists' union	KUWJ <input type="checkbox"/> KJU <input type="checkbox"/> Not a member <input type="checkbox"/> Other: (please specify)
Total Media Experience	Print: (yrs) Radio (yrs) TV (yrs) Online (yrs)
Inspiration for journalistic career	Passion <input type="checkbox"/> Coincidence <input type="checkbox"/> Teachers <input type="checkbox"/> Journalists <input type="checkbox"/> Social status <input type="checkbox"/> Economic stability <input type="checkbox"/> Other:..... (please specify)
Most important job aspect (Rank the options)	Autonomy in news decisions <input type="checkbox"/> Recognition from supervisor <input type="checkbox"/> Recognition from colleagues <input type="checkbox"/> Career advancement <input type="checkbox"/> Positive feedback <input type="checkbox"/> Organizational support <input type="checkbox"/> Awards <input type="checkbox"/> Higher salary <input type="checkbox"/> Other:
Most influential source of news (Rank the options)	Ownership <input type="checkbox"/> Advertisers <input type="checkbox"/> Corporate sources <input type="checkbox"/> Govt. sources <input type="checkbox"/> Audience's feedback <input type="checkbox"/> Organizational stand <input type="checkbox"/> Other: (please specify)
Most important discrimination aspect (Rank the options)	Gender <input type="checkbox"/> Regionalism <input type="checkbox"/> Politics <input type="checkbox"/> Religion <input type="checkbox"/> Caste <input type="checkbox"/> Economic status <input type="checkbox"/> Education <input type="checkbox"/> Other:..... (please specify)
Reason for institutional change	Higher Salary <input type="checkbox"/> Social Status <input type="checkbox"/> Institutional reputation <input type="checkbox"/> Family-pressure <input type="checkbox"/> Promotion <input type="checkbox"/> Other: (please specify)
Promotion in career	Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/>
Occupational-disease	Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> (If yes, please specify)

Please mark (✓) your satisfaction level with the following statements

(Strongly satisfactory = get more than expected

Satisfactory = get what expected

Neither satisfactory nor dissatisfactory = cannot make up the mind

Dissatisfactory = get less than expected

Strongly dissatisfactory = get much less than expected)

Factors of Professional Satisfaction	Strongly Dissatisfactory	Dissatisfactory	Neither Satisfactory nor	Satisfactory	Strongly Satisfactory
Contributing Factor 1: Work Itself					
Variety of the work					
Meaningfulness of tasks					
Quality of professional environment					
Social service orientation					
Contributing Factor 2: Personal Growth & Advancement					
Chances for Career advancement					
Personal development through career					
Opportunities for skill development					
Chances to grow as an ideal journalist					
Contributing Factor 3: Individual Responsibility					
Chance of contribution to news selection and presentation					
Higher-ups' Recognition for the work					
Autonomy in discharging journalistic duties					
Autonomy in planning work					
Contributing Factor 4: Professional Status					
Social recognition personally gets as a journalist					
Organization's position in the news market					
Job security					
Status of journalistic profession in Kerala					
Contributing Factor 5: Work-Family Relations					
Chances to do work at home					

<i>Time to spend with family</i>					
<i>Family-friendly policies of the organization</i>					
<i>Family's support to the profession</i>					
Contributing Factor 6: Pay & Working Conditions					
<i>Work schedule</i>					
<i>Work-salary proportion</i>					
<i>Quality of work environment</i>					
<i>Welfare schemes</i>					
Contributing Factor 7: Organizational Morale					
<i>Social commitment to the organization</i>					
<i>Organization's commitment to media ethics</i>					
<i>Editorial policy</i>					
<i>Openness to criticism</i>					
Contributing Factor 8: Organizational Support					
<i>Organizational support in crisis situations</i>					
<i>Organizational approach to employees' unions</i>					
<i>Organization's consideration for personal values</i>					
<i>Organization's recognition for personal achievements</i>					
Contributing Factor 9: Supervision					
<i>Just and fair supervision</i>					
<i>Efficiency of the Supervisors</i>					
<i>Supervisor's commitment to journalistic values</i>					
<i>Mending facilities</i>					
Contributing Factor 10: Co-worker Relations					
<i>Friendliness of colleagues</i>					
<i>Co-workers' commitment to the profession</i>					
<i>Team playing culture in the organization</i>					
<i>Recognition from colleagues</i>					

Please mark (✓) your agreement/disagreement level with the given statements

(Strongly agree = get more than expected

Agree = get what expected

Neither agree nor disagree = cannot make up the mind

Disagree = get less than expected

Strongly disagree = get much less than expected)

Factors of Professional Freedom	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Contributing Factor 1: Freedom from Personalized Pressures					
<i>Free from the influence of collective views</i>					
<i>Free from financial and material influence</i>					
<i>Free from time and resource constraints</i>					
<i>Free from personal bias</i>					
Contributing Factor 2: Freedom from Organizational Pressures					
<i>Free from organizational/ideological leaning</i>					
<i>Organization is committed to content quality</i>					
<i>Free from constraints of organizational policy</i>					
<i>Free from audience's /market interests</i>					
Contributing Factor 3: Freedom from Work Level Pressures					
<i>Free from deadline pressure</i>					
<i>Free from routine boredom</i>					
<i>Free from facilities/target pressure</i>					
<i>Free from work schedule pressure</i>					
Contributing Factor 4: Freedom from Owner Level Pressures					
<i>Free to criticize the management</i>					
<i>Free from owner's compromise on news values</i>					
<i>Free from owner's intervention on editorial policy</i>					
<i>Free from profit-oriented news coverage</i>					
Contributing Factor 5: Freedom from Supervisor Level Pressures					
<i>Free from new manager's personal bias</i>					
<i>Free from news manger's compromise on news values</i>					
<i>Free to select news stories</i>					
<i>Free to decide angle of the story</i>					

Contributing Factor 6: Freedom from Threats					
<i>Free to report crimes fearlessly</i>					
<i>Free from crime groups' interventions</i>					
<i>Free from threats of fundamentalists</i>					
<i>Free to publish investigative stories on crimes</i>					
Contributing Factor 7: Freedom to Criticize Government					
<i>Free to criticize the Government</i>					
<i>Free to criticize the Government policies</i>					
<i>Free from compulsory citation of governmental sources</i>					
<i>Free from media censorship</i>					
Contributing Factor 8: Freedom from Economic Pressures					
<i>Free to criticize advertising clients</i>					
<i>Free to criticize corporate firms</i>					
<i>Free to criticize business persons</i>					
<i>Free from profit orientation of media</i>					
Contributing Factor 9: Freedom from Political Pressures					
<i>Free to criticize political parties</i>					
<i>Free to criticize political leaders</i>					
<i>Free from political stand of the organization</i>					
<i>Free to prepare political stories objectively</i>					
Contributing Factor 10: Freedom from Religious Pressures					
<i>Free to criticize religious groups</i>					
<i>Free to criticize religious leaders</i>					
<i>Free from religious stance of the organization</i>					
<i>Free to prepare religious stories objectively</i>					

Perceived Competency

Assess your level of excellence in the following skills

Skills	Poor	Only fair	Good	Very good	Outstanding
Editing					
Reporting					
News Management					
Interpersonal communication					
Multimedia					
Research					