COLLEGE PRESIDENT-NEWSPAPER ADVISER RELATIONSHIPS AND THEIR EFFECTS ON FREEDOM OF COLLEGE-SPONSORED NEWSPAPERS IN OKLAHOMA

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PREFACE

This study is concerned with the relationships between college presidents and newspaper advisers in Oklahoma colleges and universities. Specifically, the study sought to determine whether the quality of such a relationship affects college press freedom.

Deepest appreciation is expressed to my major adviser, Dr. Walter J. Ward, for his encouragement and guidance throughout this study. His interest, suggestions, and concern have been invaluable and are gratefully acknowledged.

Recognition also is extended to the other committee members. The encouragement and comments of Dr. Thomas A. Karman and Dr. W.D. Johnson are sincerely appreciated. A special thanks is given to Dr. Harry E. Heath, Jr., former director of the School of Journalism and Broadcasting, for his assistance during the development of this study. Dr. Heath was instrumental in gaining the cooperation of Oklahoma Collegiate Press Association members in the study.

To my beloved husband, Vorawoot Hirunruk, I am greatly indebted for his sacrifice, understanding, and support. To my family in Thailand, especially my mother, Mrs. Thongporn Chavachat, and also my dear sister, Mrs. Chira Bhusawang, I am grateful for their spiritual strength and support. Without them I would not have been able to complete my degree.

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CHAPTER I

PROBLEM AND OBJECTIVES

College* newspaper staffs, advisers, and administrators often are at the center of controversy. Apparent misunderstandings as to the place, direction, and philosophy of college-sponsored newspapers are frequent.

In the first five yeras of the 1970s several courtroom battles, as well as numerous out-of-court battles, were waged by student journalists, advisers, and administrators in schools and colleges. This was in marked contrast to earlier days when such struggles, in or out of coutt, were virtually non-existent. Beginning in 1966 with court cases involving First Amendment rights in college settings, students began to assert themselves constitutionally.

Student journalists, cognizant of the role the professional press has played in national traumas such as the Pentagon Papers Case and Watergate, seem eager to apply "real world" principles and ethics of journalism to the campus newspaper.

In many cases, students find conflict with college authorities in their zeal to exercise fully these freedoms. The vast majority of conflicts will never reach court; therefore, the spirit of the law and an understanding of the function of education become key guidelines for educators working with young journalists.

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*Throughout this dissertation the terms "college" and "university" will be used interchangeably.

Laurence Campbell, long-time educator and leader in scholastic journalism, believes two qualifications are necessary for a school newspaper to achieve high quality: an administrator who cares and a teacher (adviser) who is qualified.[1]

Watson's 1968 study showed that the best newspapers produced in eight different regions of the country were undergirded by a healthy relationship between administrators and advisers.[2]

Obviously an adviser who is dedicated to journalism and who cares about students might have modest success, but the probability of great success in college newspaper publishing is relatively small without a cooperative relationship between adviser and administrator.[3]

When both adviser and administrator are involved in cooperative decision making, especially with regard to the college newspaper, the relationship is likely to have great influence on campus press freedom. This relationship is pivotal in maintaining an atmosphere in which such communication can take place.

Purpose of the Study

This study examined the relationship between newpaper advisers and presidents in Oklahoma colleges and universities to determine whether the quality of such a relationship affects college press freedom.

Variables in this relationship included: job satisfaction of adviser, relationship with the president, freedom to publish, professional experience, and years as adviser.

Need for the Study

While numerous studies concerning college newspapers and their operational problems have been carried out, mostly at the master's level, a need exists for the present research. Advisers affiliated with the Oklahoma Collegiate Press Association (OCPA), founded in 1928 and one of the oldest, if not the oldest, association of its kind, have discussed for a number of years the perplexities of adviser-president relationships. They have sought comparative data on this crucial aspect of campus life. Thus, while other research has dealt with such problems as censorship, staff organization, the role of the adviser, and student reation to the campus newspaper, no study of OCPA schools in the present context has been made.

Headquarters of the Association are located in Stillwater, Oklahoma, in the Oklahoma State University School of Journalism and Broadcasting. The findings from the research were distributed to all Association members and to those out-of-state advisers who requested a summary. Thus this dissertation met an existing need soon after it was presented for acceptance by the University faculty.

Operational Definitions

The author established these operational definitions of the variables used in this study:

Adviser's Job Satisfaction - The extent of perceived satisfaction by advisers of their social and psychological needs resulting from their jobs in the educational organization.

Communication - The sharing of an orientation toward a set of informational signs, whether by speech, silent language, the written word or any other form of verbal or non-verbal communication which has some intended meaning directed toward another.

Communication Conditions - The quality of communication conditions as evaluated by the adviser with regard to satisfaction of communications originated by the president.

Adviser's Perception of Censorship by the President - The degree to which advisers and college presidents can cooperate in organizational areas is thought to greatly affect the type and extent of censorship exercised by the president, and better communication between advisers and presidents should diminish administrative attempts to restrain the college newspaper.

Assumptions

The theoretical assumptions of this study are:

1. A relationship exists between the newspaper adviser and president of any given college, and this relationship can be measured.
2. The relationship between the newspaper adviser and president affects the degree of press freedom, and this, too, can be measured.
3. Variables determining the relationship between the newspaper adviser and president include job satisfaction of adviser, relationship with the president, freedom to publish, professional experience, and years as adviser.

Limitations of the Study

The findings in this research were not intended to be projected to college newspapers generally, although it is likely that a number of inferences will be drawn by advisers far removed from the locus of the study. Any such data would be subject to fluctuations related to the political and social climate in which the research took place. Conservative areas might well find a different relationship between administrations and campus newspaper advisers than would be found in more liberal areas. Likewise, those areas in which court cases involving campus newspapers have been widely publicized might well have readjusted to their understanding of those cases. Such may not be true to that degree in areas where the courts have not been asked to intervene. Moreover, private colleges and universities have a somewhat different rationale for their interfacing with campus publications that do public colleges and universities. All of these considerations suggest caution in applying the findings of this study on a more general basis.

Another limitation that must be borne in mind is the increasing cost of library materials. Some theses and dissertations are no longer available on inter-library loan, while others are available but for fees which the average graduate study would consider prohibitive. While this limitation was less serious because of the highly focused nature of the OCPA population, it is, nevertheless, a limitation, for the researcher's planning of the survey instrument may have been affected by her inability to examine some studies first hand.

ENDNOTES

[1]Laurence R. Campbell, A Principal's Guide to High School Journalism (Iowa City: Quill and Scroll Foundation), p. 4.

[2]Ronald Watson, "Attitudes of Selected Groups of Teachers and Principals Toward High School Journalism" (M.A. Thesis, University of Missouri-Columbia, 1968), pp. 138-139.

[3]Ibid., p. 42.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A careful review of the literature failed to produce any research impinging directly upon the present study. Apparently no research dealing with Oklahoma Collegiate Press Association publications has been carried out, or if it has been it was not reported.

Nevertheless, the author considered it crucial to the purpose of her study to report upon three classes of material present in the literature of mass communication.

The first part of this review, therefore, will summarize basic communication theory as it might apply to adviser-president relationships, with an emphasis upon models constructed by various recognized communication theorists.

The second part becomes more specific in its application to the adviser-president relationship, drawing upon theses and dissertations supplemented by journal articles and books. This part will seek to provide a rationale for the most salient aspects of the original research conducted by the author, e.g., such matters as job satisfaction, the role of the adviser, the president's role and the like.

In the third part of this chapter, the emphasis will shift to First Amendment concerns as they have related in recent years to student publications. Controversies involving libel, obscenity and similar issues that have surfaced frequently on the campus will be dealt with.

Formal Organizations

Censorship problems on college newspapers perhaps never evolve from strictly subjective preferences of those in authority. Rather, forces from within and outside the college tend to influence those who would interfere with the expression of students who write, edit, and produce the newspaper. Censorship can be seen as a dysfunction of organizational behavior, but because no college newspaper could exist without the college organization, it must be viewed in that context, as must the adviser-president relationship.

The college president and the newspaper adviser are members of the college organization, which, in turn, is one of many such institutions functioning in the larger social organization. Every such organization within society is characterized by two dimensions--social structure and culture.

Culture relates to shared orientations of many people within the largest of social systems.

Social structure refers to social relations among people. It helps organize human conduct so that, along with culture, collectivities of people form groups which adhere to similar social norms in the accomplishment of common goals and objectives.[1]

In the study of cooperative systems, the basic unit of analysis is the formal organization, which is defined by Narnard as "a system of consciously-coordinated activities or forces of two or more persons."[2]

Three requisites are necessary for the organization to be established: (1) people who are able to communicate; (2) participants who are motivated to participate; and (3) the need to accomplish a common

purpose. The elements of any organization, therefore, are communication, a desire to serve, and a common reason for membership.[3]

During the course of social interaction, the goals and purposes of organizations, the rules members are expected to follow, and the structure of the positions held by members have not mysteriously appeared. Rather, they have been initiated formally to achieve certain goals, and they produce in action what are known as formal organizations.[4]

Likert suggests several components of formal organizations: they are human enterprises which depend on the coordinated efforts of their members; they have structure; they have measurement and observational processes which gather information about internal and eternal functioning and how they interact; they have communication channels; they are equipped with mechanisms allowing for decision-making processes; they have resources which help carry out their purposes; they have motivational and attitudinal characteristics used for maintenance and control of members.[5]

Organizations usually comprise interdependent parts, each having a special function related to the whole. In the college, for example, the board of trustees represents the top management within the college. The administration of the college provides leadership, control, guidance, direction, materials, and coordination. Faculty members comprise yet another part of the entire organizational structure--and within their ranks, subdivisions such as academic departments exist.

Organizational accomplishments and objectives are realized when the activities of several individuals combine to complete some task pertinent to them collectively.[6]

The underlying nature of formal organizations is based on such principles as task specialization, chain of command, unity of direction, rationality, coordination, and control. These are the basic "genes" of the organization which can be modified by and supported with technology, managerial control, and various patterns of leadership, according to Argyris.[7]

A commonly accepted paradigm for understanding the formal organization is the organizational chart (Figure 1). This chart features a series of positions defining the structure of positions and the structure of responsibilities. Policies and procedures are listed to delineate the interrelationships of various positions, and changes occur within the formal organization only with a change in reorganization of the flow chart.

The interdependent parts can be considered subsystems of the larger system called the organization. The interaction of these subsystems determines the survival of the entire system because a change in one part affects other parts, and ultimately the whole system.[9]

Informal Organizations

Informal organizations (Figure 2) are not included in the formal organizational structure but are, nevertheless, important because decisions within the formal organization may be affected by their interpersonal nature.

Informal organizations -- groups within an organization that are bound by friendship, common interests, or other informal bonds -- are imperative to success of the entire organization. Simon claims that no formal organization would operate efficiently without consideration for

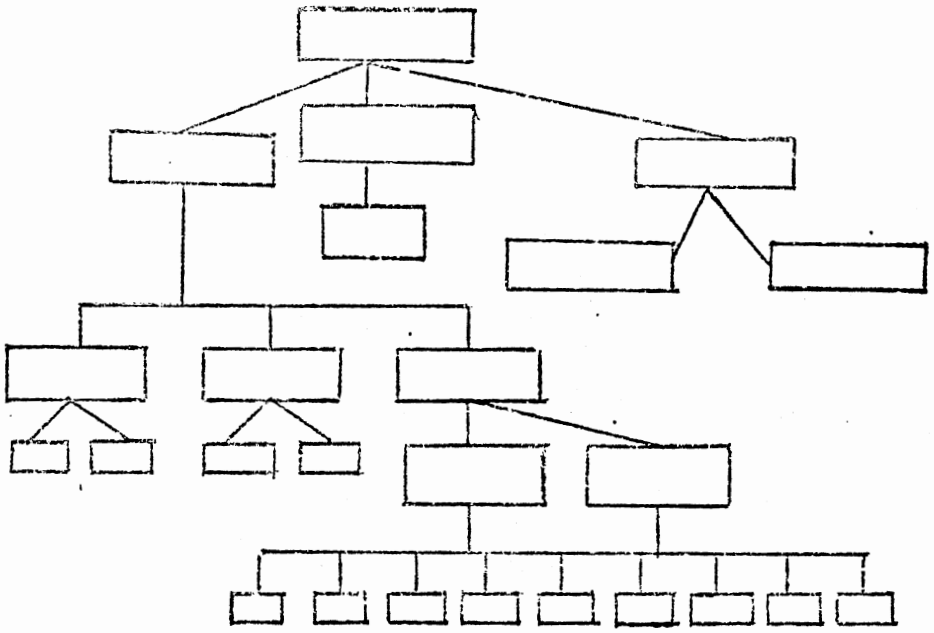

Figure 1. A Formal Organization

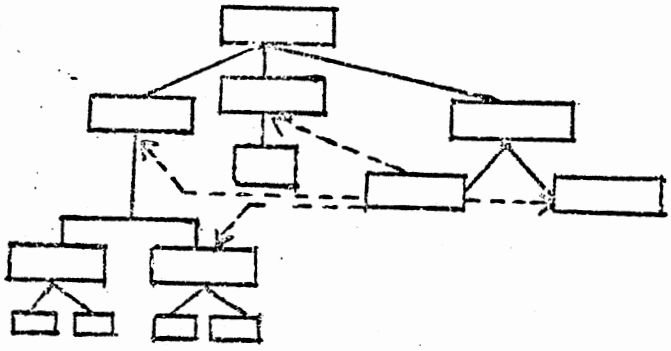

Figure 2. An Informal Organization

the informal organization within it. Individuals first must establish informal relations with other members before becoming an appreciable force in the working organization.

Individuals' integrity, cohesion, and communication are protected within the informal organization. These are elements essential to the formal organization.

Because the individual is the basic requisite for organizational effectivenss, he must be "induced" to cooperate.[9] Incentives are key inducements in this scheme because they nurture self-satisfaction and self-preservation. Rather than trying to change these motives or drives, an organization's leaders must consider them as essentials to their own existence. Recognizing the value of informal organizations is helpful in this regard.

If the organization has provided those means by which members gain satisfaction accomplishing the organization's own ends, it undoubtedly will have gained the loyalty of the individuals.

Communication in Organizations

Communication is one of the basic tools available to management for accomplishing organizational objectives; in fact, it is the key to managerial effectiveness. Managers must understand the communication process if they are to deal effectively and successfully with their peers and employees.[10]

Communication may take the form of written or spoken words, gestures, or visual symbols; it can convey messages by action, touch, or sound. These different methods of transferring information make communication a dynamic, continual, and complex process -- a process underlying the

existence, growth, change, and behavior of all living systems from the individual to the organization.[11] It is the sending and receiving of information within a complex organization, [12] exchanging information and transmitting meaning within an organization, and coordinating a number of people who are interdependently related.[13]

Some communication theorists have conceived the process structurally, functionally, and in terms of intent; they have defined it with reference to source, channel, receiver, code and effect.

However, communication is a multi-ordinal word which means many things to many people depending on context.

Schramm has defined communication as "the sharing of an orientation toward a set of informational signs."[14] The signs can be speech, silent language, the written word, or any other form of verbal or non-verbal sign which has some intended meaning directed toward another.

Rogers and Rogers have defined communication as the process by which an idea is transferred from a source to a receiver with the intention of changing his or her behavior. Such behavior may encompass a change in knowledge or attitude as well as in overt behavior. For them, an organization is defined as a stable system of individuals who work together to achieve, through a hierarchy of ranks and a division of labor, common goals. Thus, when an organization executive issues an order to a subordinate, he expects it to be obeyed; the purpose may be carried out, or it may not be.[15] Their point is that communication is made with the intention of achieving a certain result.

Lewis has defined communication as the sharing of messages, ideas, or attitudes resulting in a degree of understanding between a sender and receiver.

Sharing is a two-way process, a give-and-take between a sender and receiver, so that interpersonal relations of individuals, their attitudes and feelings, enhance or stifle understandings. This dynamic sharing process presupposes a search for meaning. If communication is to take place between individuals, meaning must be transferred from one mind to the other. This attempt to get meaning is fundamental. But because meanings reside in people and not in words themselves, achieving understanding is extremely difficult. How receivers interact with themselves and with others and their use of words provide tremendous insight for understanding human behavior in organizations. One person never comprehends identically what another person is saying because of differences in their environment, backgrounds, and frames of reference.

According to Lewis, organizational communication is defined as sharing messages, ideas, or attitudes in an organizational structure (business, industry, government, education) between or among managers, employees, and associates who use up-to-date communication technology and/or media for transferring information. Their skill in communicating will depend upon the mastery of a basic communication process:

1. Clarifying the idea or problem.
2. Getting participation in developing a solution to the problem.
3. Transmitting ideas or decisions.
4. Motivating others to take agreed-upon action.
5. Measuring the effectiveness of communication.[16]

Naturally, the forces which direct communication will have some effect on the messages of those involved. The flows and patterns of communication will affect understanding, and the communication skills of

involved individuals will promote or impair understanding and the transfer of meaning. Consequently, organizational communication is successful when the sender of the message and the receiver of that message achieve a high degree of similarity in their comprehension of what was intended to be transmitted. This success is critical in the day-to-day communicative activities of organizational members.[17]

Importance of Organizational Communication

Communication is the lifeblood of an organization. Without it, there is no organization. Communication pervades all activities and represents an important work tool which integrates organizational subunits and enables people to understand their roles. From an open-system perspective, an organization is an elaborate set of interconnected communication channels designed to import, sort, and analyze information from the environment and export processed messages back to the environment. Communication provides a means for making and executing decisions, obtaining feedback, and correcting organizational objectives and procedures as the situation demands.

Communication is a thread that holds the various interdependent parts of an organization together. The functions of planning, coordination, and control are parts of this very important process. "When communication stops, organized activity ceases to exist. Individual uncoordinated activity returns."[18]

Not only is communication an essential ingredient in the internal functioning of an organization, but it is also vital in the organization's information exchanges with its environment. "The communication system serves as the vehicle by which organizations are embedded in their environment."[19]

Main Elements in the Communication Process

The four main components in the communication model are the source, the message, the channel, and the receiver. Because these elements are always present in the communication act, Berle said, this simple conception of communication is often referred to as the "S-M-C-R" model,[20] as shown in Figure 3.

The source is the originator of the message. It may be an individual or several individuals working together, such as a television news team. A source also may be an institution or an organization, although even then individuals are ultimately the sources, acting in an organizational role. The main responsibility for preparing the messages lies with the source.

The message is the stimulus that the source attempts to transmit to the receiver. It is what the purpose of communication is about; it is the idea intended to be transmitted.

Messages comprise symbols having (for the source and the receiver) a certain intended meaning. Encoding is the translation by the source of an already conceived idea into a message appropriate for transmission. To encode is thus to change a meaning into a symbol. Decoding is the translation of received stimuli into an interpreted meaning. Receivers thus decode messages by changing the symbol into a meaning. To give meaning to stimuli, individuals classify phenomena in categories and give them labels.

Many messages are expressed in the form of language symbols, but the symbols also may be nonverbal, such as hand or facial gestures, other body movements, or pictures.

The System in Which Communication Takes Place

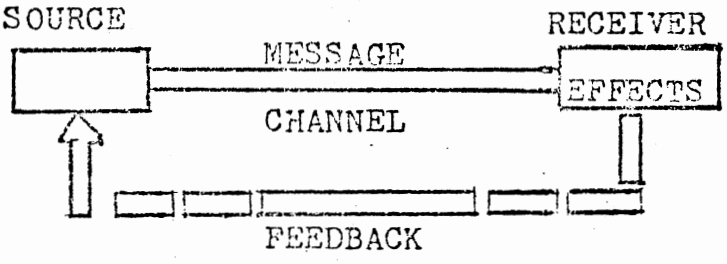

Figure 3. The Source-Message-Channel-Receiver (S-M-C-R) Model of the Communication Process, also Showing Effects and Feedback

Meanings are references such as ideas, images, and thoughts that are "read" into symbols (that is, language). For communication to occur, the source and the receiver must have at least some degree of prior common experience, some level of shared meanings. At the other extreme, no two individuals have exactly the same experiences; hence the language used (the message symbols) elicits somewhat different meanings from the receiver and the source. Furthermore, an individual's experience is continuous, so that the meaning given the same message symbols will change over time. Many failures to communicate are due to mistaken assumptions by source or receiver about the meaning of a symbol they have exchanged.

Meanings are relative and open to subjective interpretation. This fact led Berlo (1960) to state: "Meanings are in people, not in the message." He meant that words have no meanings in themselves; their meanings are assigned by the source and the receiver.

Some messages are new to the receiver, and hence represent a stimulus of a kind different from that contained in ordinary messages. An innovation is an idea, practice, or object perceived as new by the receiver. When the message is an innovation to the receiver, such an act of communication is called diffusion, the process by which innovations are communicated to the members of a social system over time.[21]

A channel is the means by which a message travels from source to receiver. It is the path through which the message physically is transmitted. Channels may be classified into mass media or interpersonal channels.

Mass media channels are transmitters such as newspapers, magazines, films, radio, and television, that enable a source to reach many receivers. Interpersonal channels are those that involve a face-to-face exchange between a source and a receiver.

A most important difference between mass media and interpersonal communication is that feedback is facilitated in the latter. Figure 1, page 11, indicates that communication is not merely the one-way flow of a message from source to receiver. The receiver also generates information for the source, and, in fact, such interaction is necessary for communication to thrive.

The most important single element in the communication process is the receiver. Communicators (sources) often forget the receiver. Some sources are source-oriented. An example is textbook authors who write for their colleagues, and go "over the heads" of their student readers. Some are message-oriented: they know a great deal about their topic, but they do not express (encode) it meaningfully in terms their receivers can understand. Still other sources may be channel-oriented, depending so entirely on a particular means of communication that the receiver is ignored. An example is the official in an organization who communicates solely by the distribution of written memoranda to his receivers; he never uses staff meetings, or a combination of a written memo plus a staff meeting, even when their combined use would be more effective.

Communication effects are the changes in receiver behavior that occur as a result of the transmission of a message. Hence when we speak of "effective communication," we mean communication that results in those changes in receiver behavior that were intended by the sources. There are three main types of communication effects:

1. Changes in receivers' knowledge.
2. Changes in receivers' attitudes, defined as the relatively enduring organization of an individual's beliefs about an object that predisposes his actions. That is, an attitude

often (though not always) predicts the action that an individual may take.

3. Changes in receivers' overt behavior, such as voting, purchasing of products or coming to work on time.

These three changes usually, but not always, occur in sequence; that is, a change in knowledge usually precedes a change in attitude, which precedes a change in overt behavior.

Feedback is the response by the receiver to the source's message. The source may take account of feedback in modifying subsequent messages; thus feedback makes communication a dynamic, two-way process.

Feedback may be thought of as messages to the source conveying knowledge of the effectiveness of a previous communication. Positive feedback informs the source that the intended effect of a message was achieved; negative feedback informs the source that the intended effect of a message was not achieved. As such, negative feedback can be disruptive of the source-receiver relationship, and can generate hostility between source and receiver. But this is not necessarily so. In fact, negative feedback can be viewed as positive in that it alerts the source to change his message and, thus, increase communication fidelity.

Models and Communication

The fundamental components most communication model builders use in their designs are the sender or source of a message and the receiver or destination of that message. Other elements often considered are the method of sending the message, i.e., the channel medium; interferences with proper transmission or reception of the message known as noise; the effect of the message on the receiver, referred to as reaction or feedback;

the verbal and/or nonverbal cues affecting the message, and a universe of ever-changing things, events and people surrounding the entire process. Focus usually is placed on what receivers perceive in the message and how they react, rather than on what was actually thought, spoken, or written. To aid a manager's understanding, communication models also should emphasize the communication forces, flows, patterns, or channels; the goals of upper management; and the process of change, innovation, and growth within organizations.[22]

Communication models supply the following information about an organization:

1. Knowledge of a communication network which exists at a given time.
2. Knowledge of existing control processes within the network.
3. Knowledge of how the existing network and control processes change with time.[23]

An Historical Model. Aristotle is usually credited with the first verbal model of the communication process. His early theory of rhetoric comprised a speaker sending a message to a receiver. He produced a verbal model (Figure 4) that was the fundamental pattern for communication model builders for almost 2,300 years.

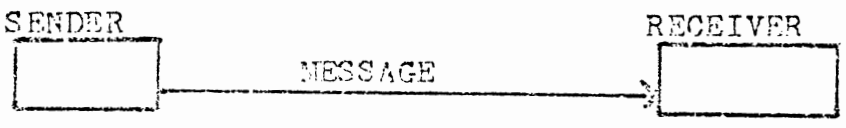

Figure 4. The Aristotelian Communication Model

The Aristotelian goal of communication was persuasion. Effective communicators could interpret, control, modify, or adapt to their environment.

Contemporary Models. Early in the twentieth century, rhetoricians and communication scholars began to incorporate the findings of psychologists and other behavioral scientists into their understanding of communication. Motives, emotions, attitudes, beliefs, opinions, and behaviors of individuals involved in the communication process began to modify older conceptual frameworks. However, the construction of models still was influenced heavily by the Aristotelien linear concept.

Recent models have modified traditional concepts and can be partitioned into five segments.[24] Technical models of communication refer to every conceivable kind of information transmission--from the first words of a baby to the complicated theories of an atomic scientist--that can be programmed mathematically and fed into a machine. A human behavior approach to communication model building presupposes that communicative behavior cannot be considered as something completely distinct from the determinants of human behavior--perceptions, learning, drives, emotions, attitudes, beliefs, values, encoding-decoding, meaning, messages, and social situations. Whereas technical models deals primarily with place-to-place communication, the behavioral approach deals with face-to-face communication.

A process view of communication suggests that interpersonal and organizational relationships defy a simple cause-effect analysis. The world and the people in it continuously are moving, dynamic, and active. Objects formerly thought to be static actually comprise continuously moving molecules which maintain a constancy in terms of a whole, but

which have changes taking place in their parts.[25] Therefore, communication must be viewed without beginning or end.

The fourth model of communication is a transactional process. Its initial goal is to establish the most open and authentic communication possible between individuals. This new emphasis is relevant because people constantly affect one another, intentionally or unintentionally, while communicating.

Organizational communication models are the fifth area of concern to model builders. These models are an outgrowth of the other four types of models as communication has become of more and more concern to managers of complex organizations.[26]

1. Technical Models - One of the conventional communication diagrams adopted by many communication theorists and model builders is Claude Shannon's and Warren Weaver's information theory model (Figure 5). Their principal concern was transmitting accurate messages by way of Bell telephone equipment. Of all the contributions to the widespread interest in communication models, this one is the most important.[27] Components of this linear model include an information source sending a message through a transmitter, which produces a signal that will be picked up by a receiver, thus getting the message to the destination. Also built into the model is the noise source which can interfere with the reception of the message.

Another diagrammatic model to emphasize the technical, place-to-place flow of information was presented by Carroll. His model is at the top of page 25, after the Shannon-Weaver model.[28]

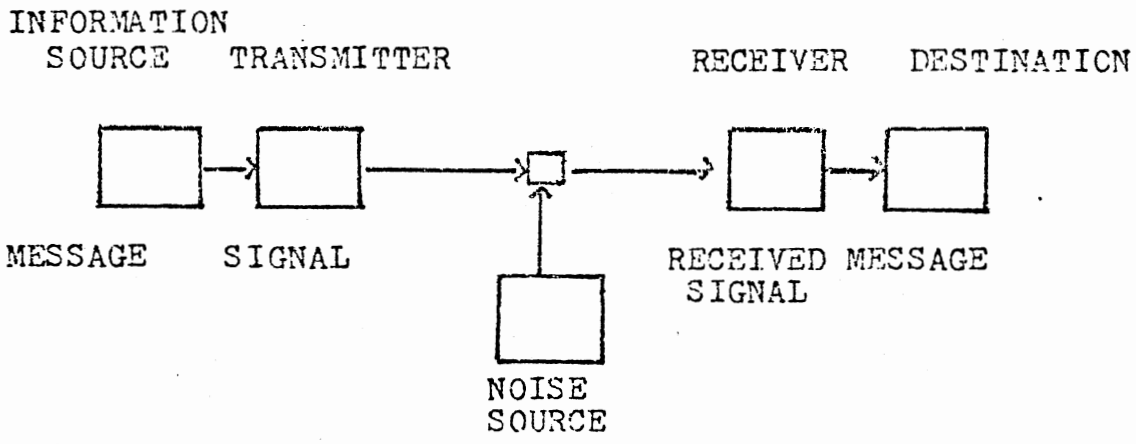

Figure 5. Shannon's General Communication System

Intentive Behavior of Speaker	Encoding Behavior of Speaker	Message	Decoding Behavior of Hearer	Interpretive Behavior of Hearer

This paradigm of what happens in any organismic communication situation may be interpreted accordingly:

1. The intentive behavior of the speaker presumes the speaker has information to transmit. "The events which take place prior to coding are summarized in the phrase 'intentive behavior' which connotes at once that these events are behavioral (that is, they are responses) and that they are in some sense goal-directed or adjustmental at least with respect to the reinforcing conditions of behavior."
2. Encoding behavior of the speaker can be viewed as a series of simultaneous and sequential decisions. Two choices in all encoding behavior are (1) the choice of whether to make an overt response, and (2) the decision to use a particular language system.
3. The message may comprise "a succession of sound waves, a series of marks on a page, or a pattern of bodily movements . . . plus random, nondistinctive variations of 'noise'."
4. Decoding behavior in the hearer is described as "a sequence of events which comprises perception of the message by the hearer and a series of discriminatory responses to the elements of the message as contrasted with the 'noise' in the communication channel."
5. Interpretive behavior in the hearer is based on the response a listener makes as understanding takes place.[29]

The major contributions of this model are its emphases on the human characteristics of intention and interpretation. Encoding and decoding are similar in nature to the machine processes in a technical model.

The final model in this section was created by Schramm. His model pictures the sender and receiver sharing the encoder, interpreter and decoder functions (Figure 6). The important dimension of this model is feedback and the recognition that multiple-channel situations do exist.

2. Human Behavior Models - There are several specific, widely-used models in the human behavior, interpersonal, or mass communication areas. One of the face-to-face communication models was constructed by Wendell Johnson. His model enumerated six steps in the communication process that occur in both speaker and listener: (1) event, or source of stimulation; (2) sensory stimulation; (3) preverbal state; (4) symbolic state; (5) overt expression, and (1') transformation of this overt expression into air waves and light waves which serve as sources of stimulation for the listener and thus initiate the same process for the listener.[30]

Johnson's model is important because it includes the internal processes of communication. When we communicate we symbolize an inner state. Our mind operates as a filter through which information must pass before it can be communicated. Communicators who recognize and admit sensory limitations (and thus a limited knowledge of what they are talking about) achieve better reputations among peers and subordinates than persons who reveal limitations by refusing to acknowledge them. This model also is important because it attempts application to other communication skills (e.g., reading, writing).

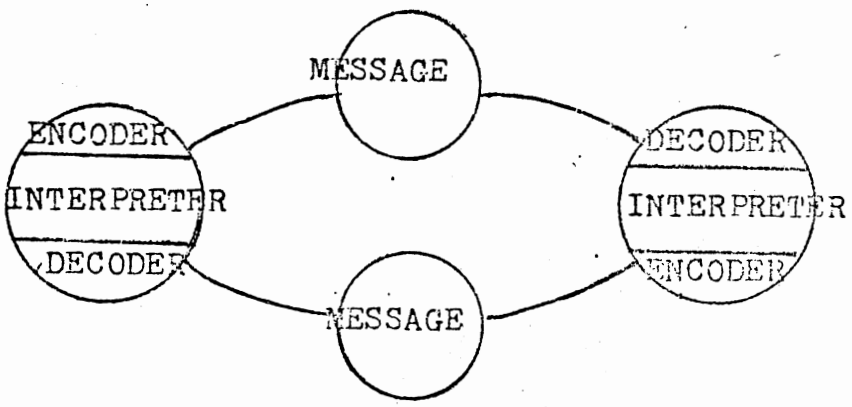

Figure 6. Schramm's Model of How Communication Works

Another interpersonal communication model was developed by Westley and MacLean. It can be expanded into a mass communication model as well. Their model represents the sequence of interpersonal communication as a communicator (A) comes into contact with environmental objects or forces (X/s) which influence him/her to send a message (X) to B who may or may not have the same forces working on him/her but will transmit feedback (f_{BA}) to A (Figure 7).

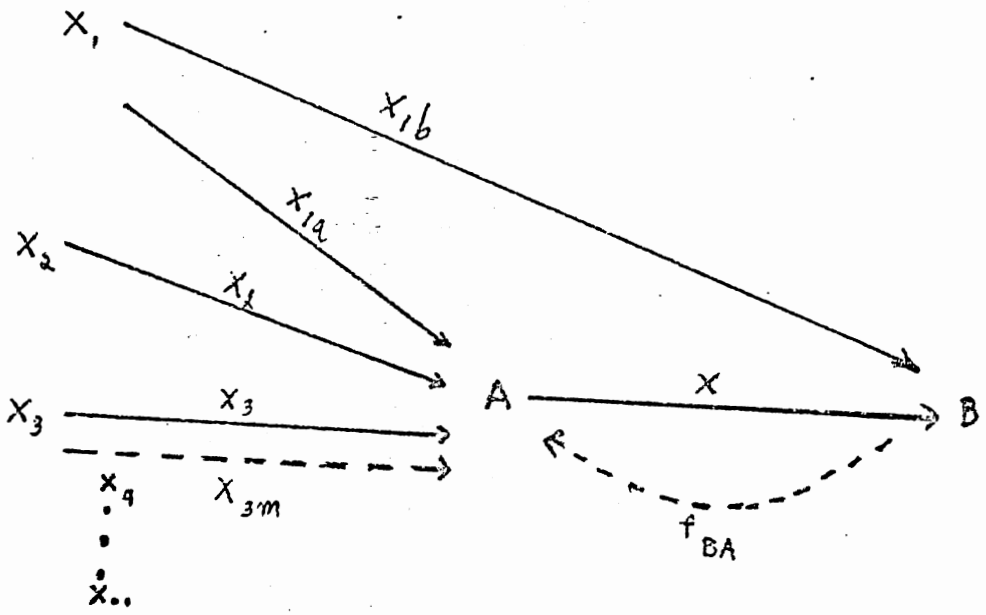

Figure 7. The Westley-MacLean Face-to-Face Communication Model

Westley-MacLean attempted to present a schematic general enough to treat all kinds of human communication from a face-to-face situation to an international/intercultural situation. Thus, their model can be expanded graphically (Figure 8) to illustrate a two-step flow of information or mass communication when other persons (Cs) are added.

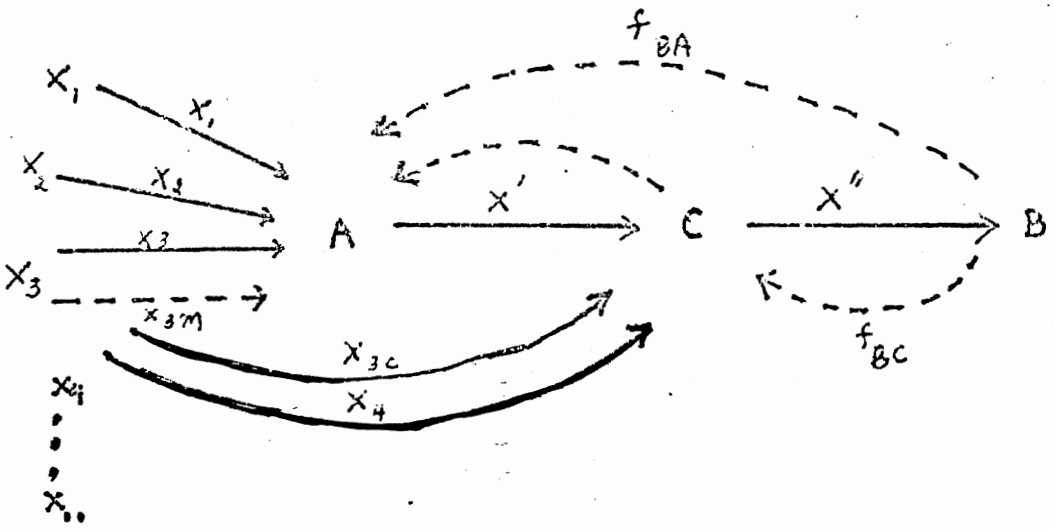

Figure 8. The Westley-MacLean Mass Communication Model

Actually C is a "gatekeeper" or "opinion leader" who selects information from A and transmits it to B. This process could be likened to many organizational situations if A is considered top management, C the supervisor, and B the worker. The message, obviously, reaches B only after it has been filtered through other people, and message X" may not be the same as message X'.

Although the Westley-MacLean model may be difficult to describe verbally from a diagram, its primary strengths are a perspective representation of the two-step flow of communication and the inherent nature of feedback.[31]

3. Process Models - To view communication as a process, we must also see it as meaning-centered. We interact symbolically; we sort, select and send symbols to evoke meaning in us and our listeners, who, in turn, do the same thing. The three important components of the process include an originator, a message, and a responding organism. These items suggest that observed behavior always generates meaning in the observer, although neither person may be aware of the cues.[32]

One attempt to schematize the process of communication is that of Berlo (Figure 9). His Source--Message--Channel--Receiver paradigm has had a definite impact on, and has made a significant contribution to, the study of communication.

Berlo's model shows the interactional qualities of those involved in the communication process. For example, the source and receiver correspond in nature since both possess certain communication skills, attitudes, and knowledge, and receive inputs from their social system and culture. The message transmitted is defined in terms of its content, elements, treatment, structure, and code. Thus, the formulation and transmission of a message is not a simple, isolated event: time and forethought are involved to ensure acceptance and the proper action. The channel for sending and receiving messages consists of the individual's five senses--seeing, hearing, touching, smelling, and tasting. Berlo emphasizes that communication is an interactive process without beginning, end, or a fixed order of events.

Another attempt to describe communication as a process was made by Whitehead. His interpersonal communication model can be visualized best by observing the chain detailed at the top of page 32.

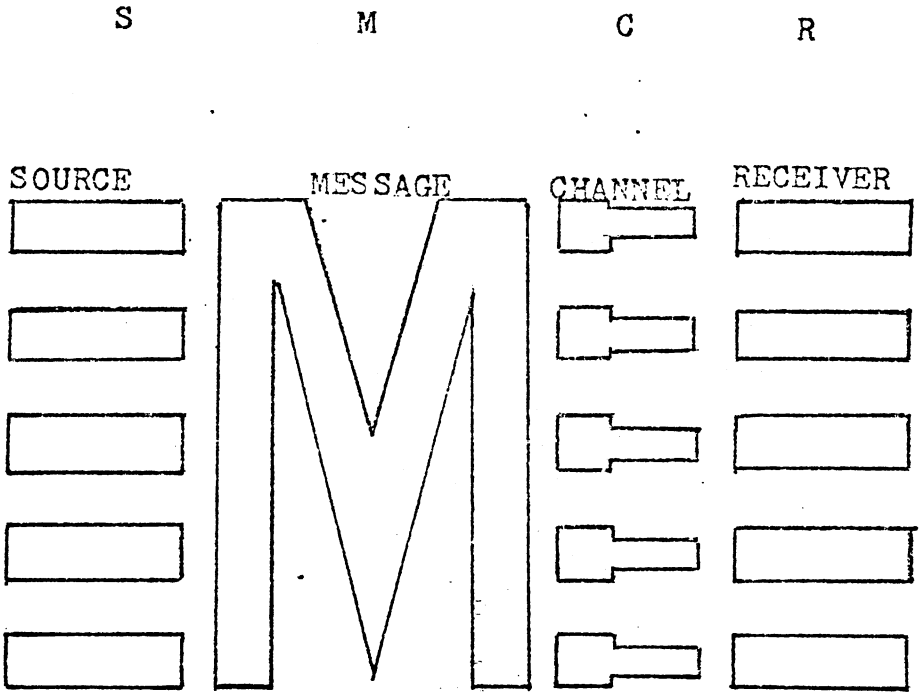

Figure 9. Berlo's S-M-C-R Model

Stimulus------Interpretive process------Meaning------Behavior

While this diagrammatic process has application to the sending of messages, its primary emphasis is on the receiving of messages and the process that hearers go through when they hear, comprehend, and act as intended. Thus when a meaning similar to the one motivating the message has been assigned to it by the receiver, we may say communication has been consummated.

4. Transactional Models - A transactional view of communication suggests that all persons engaged in sending and receiving messages do so simultaneously. Each affects the other as persons share information, ideas, and feelings.

A model based on the transactional idea was constructed by Barnlund (Figure 10). His model is based on the following communication postulates:

1. Communication describes the evaluation of meaning.
2. Communication is dynamic.
3. Communication is continuous.
4. Communication is circular.
5. Communication is unrepeatable.
6. Communication is irreversible.
7. Communication is complex.[33]

5. Organizational Communication Models - Three models may be classified within the organizational communication framework. The first is the Shannon-Weaver model discussed earlier.

The second model is one proposed by Lee Thayer (Figure 11, page 34).

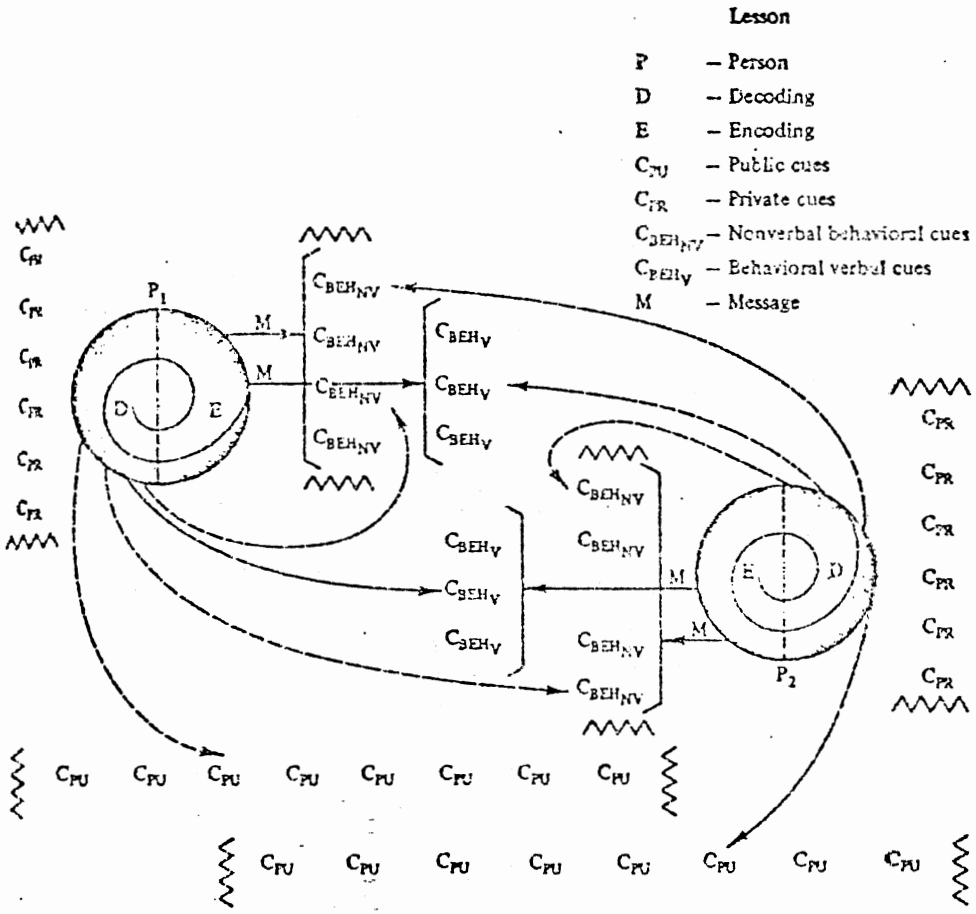

Figure 10. Barnlund's Transactional Model of Interpersonal Communication

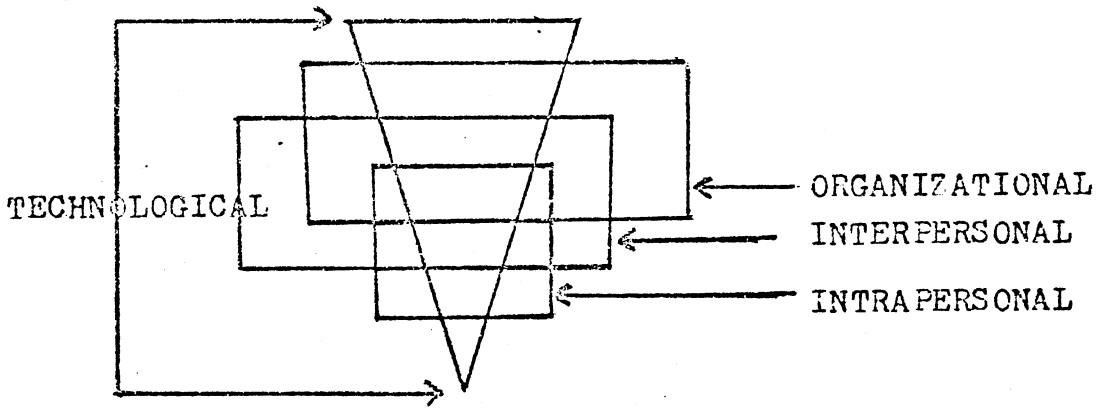

Figure 11. Thayer's Level-of-Analysis Model

His model is based on four levels of analysis, and he suggests that confusion in studying communication arises from our failure to be alert to the particular level of analysis being employed. For example:

1. Intrapersonal - Focus is on individual behavior such as observing, problem solving, thinking, listening or reading, seeking for or acquiring consumable information, speaking or writing--with particular emphasis upon the inputting and processing of information.
2. Interpersonal - Focus is upon two-person (or one person) systems of communication.
3. Organizational - Focus is with the networks of data systems that link organization members together and provide the means by which the organization relates itself to its environment--and with how these communication systems affect task-related decisioning and the efficiency and effectiveness of organization.
4. Technological - Focus is upon the technology of communication--equipment, apparatus, and/or the formalized "programs" for generating, storing, processing, translating, distributing, or displaying data--either for "consumption" by other pieces of equipment or for ultimate translation into information and consumption by human beings.[34]

The Thayer model basically views people as information processors.

The third organizational communication model is from Lewis, whose model is based on criteria set forth in the original definition of communication (the sharing of messages, ideas or attitudes resulting in a degree of understanding between a sender and a receiver), and is placed

within organizational contexts. Some of the common strands detectable in this organizational communication model are:

1. Organizational communication occurs as a complex open system.
2. Organizational communication involves message flow, patterns and channels.
3. Organizational communication considers the goals of management, the process of change, innovation, and growth.
4. Organizational communication involves people's attitudes, feelings, relationships, and skills.

The organizational-managerial model shows how transactional communication processes take place within an organization between a sender and a receiver. However, both individuals can be receivers and senders. Upward, downward, and horizontal communication can occur with this model, as can the grapevine. The communicators involved have their own frames of reference regarding events in the organization which have been influenced by their formal education, parents, peers, and environment. A frame of reference encompasses one's background, attitudes, prior knowledge, and experience accumulated since birth.[35] From this background the communicators must organize a sensible and coherent world for themselves out of an external environment which does not make sense in itself. Each must structure his world and the message received into a sensible design.

The semantic net existing in each person will allow the receiver to interpret and relate the message obtained to larger patterns. (Semantic net refers to the network of meanings and word associations available

for recall.) The communication skills of those involved--reading, writing, speaking, listening--can either strengthen or weaken understanding. Cues are provided via words for the receiver; these may take the form of behavioral verbal cues, behavioral nonverbal cues, public cues, and private cues. Whatever the form, the cue provides stimulus to the receiver that leads to speaking or acting.

Basically, the communication process depicted (Figure 12) is one of a manager or an employee sending a message to another manager or employee through some written or oral channel. The receiver accepts the message and then transmits verbal and/or nonverbal feedback, which requires a switch in roles between sender and receiver. The verbal feedback constitutes bodily actions of some sort. Noise is diagrammed to indicate that interferences may occur at any point in the communication process and distort effective understanding. Since the transaction takes place within an organization, that structure will also affect sending, receiving, and interpreting. Successful communication can only occur when the sender and receiver obtain similar degrees of understanding regarding the message. The provision of feedback allows for clarification and repetition until understanding is achieved.[36]

Subordinate-Superordinate Relationships

The social systems model can be examined structurally as a hierarchy of subordinate-superordinate relationships. On an operational basis, this relationship, or series of relationships, can be seen as the "locus for allocating and integrating roles and facilities to achieve the goals of the social system," according to Getzels.[37]

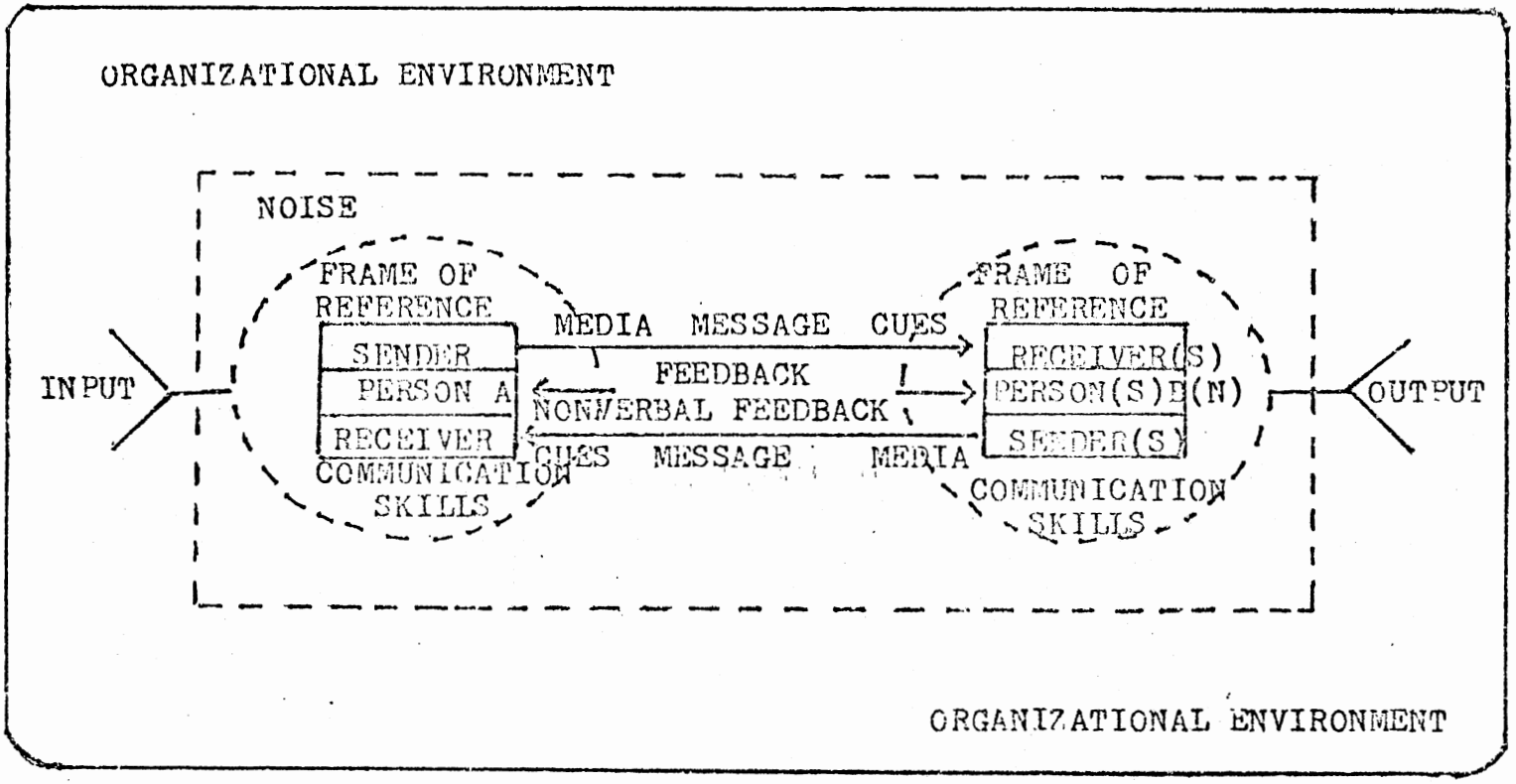

Figure 12. Lewis' Organizational Communication Model

The relationships, then, are seen as critical to getting organizational tasks completed. Their effectiveness increases as behavior is clearly communicated, rational, and logical; it decreases as emotionalism increases.[38] The role of management in the relationship can be viewed as one of facilitation, reconciliation, and coordination of the various relationships which can operate, at times, in contradictory fashion with the goals of the organization.

Each role relationship a manager or president has with a subordinate can be effective provided the relationship has meaning and value to the subordinate. Research reported by Cartwright indicates that subordinates' resistance to perform an organizational act is more likely to occur when a clash of wills is present in the hierarchical relationship with the superordinate.[39]

The clash of wills can be avoided if the manager sees to it the subordinates' basic needs are taken care of at work and, in addition, takes the approach that the subordinates are not seeking a soft and secure environment. They do seek recognition and worthwhile interpersonal relationships, which help them stabilize into role-congruent situations.

Croft has found that when work is organized to meet the needs of subordinates, organizational goals are met as well, and productivity and quality also are high.[40]

On the intrinsic level, considered to the highest level of subordinate satisfaction, superordinates should be concerned with several types of activities. Among these are developing in subordinates a sense of adequacy, altruistic service for the family or others, loyalty to the organization, and aesthetic and religious feelings.[41] The subordinate-superordinate relationship fosters this type of development and encourages

a flatter type of organizational chart. The willing support of subordinates is gained when a superordinate assures them that they are free to develop self-reliance, personal judgment, and individual choice in work-related decisions.

Because the achievement of goals hinges on the relationship of superiors-subordinates, the subordinate's perception of the climate on a day-to-day basis is of extreme importance. This relationship, being more important than "style" (such as democratic or autocratic), is based upon the deeper meanings and feelings which the superior brings to it.[42]

Halpin's concepts of "Initiating Structure" and "Consideration" help clarify the relationship involved and add a dimension to the social systems model.

Initiating structure concerns the leader's approach to structuring the relationship between himself and subordinates. Consideration for Haplin is seen as the friendly, trusting, respectful, and warm relationship a superior has with a subordinate.[43]

The Campus Rationale

As a faculty member and adviser, the subordinate in the college needs a balanced approach in terms of role and personality. If the role expectation is too rigid, chances are the personality and needs-dispositions of the adviser will adversely affect the goals of education which the colleges have contracted to provide for the students.

In a college or university, the president is the manager responsible for the organization's goal fulfillment. The actualization of the adviser's or faculty member's personal needs depends largely upon the campus climate the president creates. Internal demands, such as staff and student

scheduling, and external demands, such as community public relations, put the president in a position that causes him to mediate between both sets.

Presidential Management Style

Perhaps the president's most complex management task is managing the human component. Likert says that all aspects of any organization's activities are determined by the effectiveness, motivation, and competence of the manager's handling of human relationships.[44]

A degree of predictable behavior by the president gives faculty members, including the adviser, an overall perspective of likely future relationships. Consistency is a key element. Looked upon in the total situation, these predictable or consistent patterns of behavior, as perceived by the faculty member or adviser, may be called managerial style.[45]

Job Satisfaction of Advisers

A person's satisfaction, with regard to an organization, stems from the demands he brings to the situation and from the demands the organization makes in return. A balance must be reached between the two, for true satisfaction to be attained.[46]

Job satisfaction of college newspaper advisers is seen as one part of the organizational climate previously described. No attempt was made in the present study to measure this climate, but the adviser's perceptions of his place within the college organization was a matter of concern. Measures of climate are generally oriented toward the perception of external events that influence the organization, but job satisfaction is an indicator of the adviser's assessment of his internal feelings which include evaluations of experiences and events.[47]

The adviser, in the present study, was able to indicate perceptions and interpretations of job satisfaction based on his personal system of values. The result was a composite summary of selected individuals rather than a summary of an organization, as is the case when studying organizational climate.[48]

The values measure intrinsic rewards of the work itself, and these can be thought of as any which are near the top of Maslow's hierarchy of needs (such as self-esteem and self-actualization).[49]

Extrinsic rewards also must be present to fulfill the lower-order needs of the Maslow hierarchy. The ideal college situation would be one in which the adviser's perception of job satisfaction would be in a balance, with extrinsic rewards providing necessary physical motivation and contentedness, along with the intrinsic satisfaction.

The provisions of the teaching situation set by the institution are not necessarily constants of some predetermined master plan of success. Each faculty member or adviser has different needs, and each accepts different approaches to education. The lower-order needs such as pay, promotions, status, and security help mediate the individual differences.

However, the faculty member as a professional constantly will strive to fulfill the higher-order needs, such as approval, acceptance, a sense of personal worth, power and self-fulfillment, through a teaching or advising position.[50] When the college organization helps the adviser fulfill his own goals, then high job satisfaction will result.

Because job satisfaction seems to be related to challenging work calling for specialized skills and responsibilities, it follows that productivity and job performance would increase as the intrinsic factors of the job are actualized.

Quality of education depends on the coordination of the creative efforts of faculty members and administrators. To realize full organizational potential, the college administrator has the important task of maintaining faculty job satisfaction.

In this study, the subjective judgment of newspaper advisers was measured regarding feelings about their advising duties. Job satisfaction can be defined as the extent of satisfaction, as perceived by advisers, regarding fulfillment of their social-psychological needs on the job. Advisers with high job satisfaction, it is conceptualized, would be more accepting of organizational goals because the latter would be highly similar to their own.

Thus, the newspaper adviser-president relationship is thought to affect the organization's goal fulfillments as they pertain to the college newspaper's function in student education. The relationship, if positive, will help assure students' rights are protected and that democratic principles are able to be studied and applied realistically. If negative, conflicts over basic educational goals are likely. The freedom of the press issue lies at the center of adviser-president relationships. Agreement or disagreement regarding the freedom or limitations of the press will determine the direction of the paper, and it will affect the nature of the relationship to be examined.

Adviser's Role and Responsibilities

The newspaper adviser's position is common in journalism departments of both large and small universities. The adviser's responsibilities usually include overseeing the paper's financial and business affairs, being available to students for advice, guiding students in the paper's

production, suggesting story and feature ideas, critiquing student work, acting as liaison between student staff and the remainder of the university, and above all, teaching students the duties and responsibilities of journalists. The National Council of College Publications Advisers suggests that "the adviser serves primarily as a teacher whose chief responsibility is to give competent advice to staff members in the areas to be served, editorial and/or business . . ."[51]

According to Trager and Dickenson, advisers are more than teachers. Because they deal with management, finances, and personnel, they may also be considered administrators. This is where the problem--both ethical and legal--for advisers arises. They are expected not only to teach responsible journalism but also to administer the school newspaper on the college's behalf. The potential for conflict is obvious.[52]

Kopenhaver and Click have suggested that the adviser has an educational obligation to help students understand the role and responsibilities of the press in relationship to the society it serves and to develop the skills of the journalistic craft.[53]

The adviser should guide students in their everyday efforts to an understanding of the ethics and responsibilities of contemporary journalism, and the attendant ramifications. In the role of journalist, the adviser should guide the staff as it attempts to produce a publication that represents thorough, fair and accurate coverage in the best traditions of a responsible press in America. The concerns of the professional press also are the concerns of the student press.

Dvorak has pointed out that the newspaper adviser can, in many ways, be compared with an editor, a publisher, and a business

manager (though he is not the editor, the publisher, and the business manager) of a small-town weekly newspaper.[54]

Supervising, facilitating, instructing, coordinating, and guiding, along with other college requirements, "obviously impose a time-consuming responsibility."[55]

A good adviser also will make sure the college newspaper adheres to the high standards of responsible journalism. Allnutt, journalism educator and adviser, has suggested the job of adviser includes: teaching sound principles of journalism and their application; determining policies for working with the staff; planning staff organization; establishing guidelines for administrator understanding; and setting up practical policies for work with student organizations and printers.[56]

The adviser, then, is a stimulator of ideas and a person who is not afraid of making mistakes...it seems obvious that a great part of the learning process will be in faltering, stumbling, and then learning by such activity.[57]

The real benefit of the school newspaper is that the students can apply classroom theories to life situations. As such, the adviser cannot be a tyrant or a censor. He must be able to suggest alternatives, to question, to let students work things out for themselves, and to be a person in the background instead of the foreground.[58]

Studies back up these notions of the adviser as counselor and teacher. A 1970 survey by Campbell reported that 60 percent of the advisers responding agree that the adviser should be a counselor whose main duty is to give advice. The same study reported that the adviser should be a teacher who can explain, stimulate, and demonstrate the principles of journalism to staff members. Ninety-five percent agreed with this approach.[59]

Dvorak believes this type of role includes all teachers of the future; they will be questioners, listeners, rewarders, and openers rather than answerers, talkers, testers, and restricters.[60]

President's Role and Responsibilities

The function of the president is to preside...to lead the institution toward the fulfillment of objectives. The presiding function can be divided into three parts: organizing and advancing, operating, and preserving.[61]

In carrying out college aims through organizing and advancing, operating, and preserving, the president works through offices responsible for administration and instruction. The quality of people who head these offices, and the ability of the president to get the most out of them while keeping them reasonably happy, will determine nine-tenths of his success.[62]

College administrations differ widely in extent to which the president brings trustees into the foreground of college operations. In matters of property and finance, a committee of the board often joins the president and his business manager in periodic decisions. Development programs obviously require considerable assistance from trustees. The president's ability to coax board members to give, and to ask others to give, forms no small part of his success. In educational matters, less trustee participation normally is expected, according to Millet.[63]

Whatever the tradition of the college as to trustee involvement, it is the president's role to implement and integrate the board action with the college operation. He needs to become a tactician, as well as a diplomat, in encouraging the right kind and degree of trustee activity.

Millett says the role of the university president is to serve as agent of both the governing board and the faculty. Students would insist that the president is their agent as well, although that claim is somewhat more difficult to substantiate. The president is the professional adviser to the governing board. He also is the enterprise-conscious adviser to the faculty and to the other constitutent groups of the academic community. The president seeks to maintain a certain balance internally between the interests of faculty and of students, while fulfilling the obligations of budget execution. He also seeks to maintain a certain balance between the academic community and society. That the president is almost always the person in the middle ground in any controversy is a prescription for attack from two sides.

There is an external and an internal dimension to the role of presidential leadership in a university. The external role is primarily representational. The internal role is one of leading the academic community as a productive enterprise. Both roles are demanding and time consuming.[64]

The representational role of the president involves the many "publics" of higher education. For a state university which is part of a multi-campus system, presidential representation begins with the governing board. Presidential representation includes relationships with the adjacent urban community, with a state board of higher education, with the state chief executive (and staff), with the state legislature (and staff), with federal government officials (administrative, executive, legislative), with alumni, with media of mass communication, with professions, with business enterprises, with general purpose foundations, with various associations, with church bodies, and with

various "friends." This representation may be formal or informal; it may be handled personally, or by leadership colleagues, or by association executives.

The message of university representation is simple in theme, but complex in detail. The message is one of individual and social benefit derived from the multiple outputs of the university. The implication of the message is always that the individual and social benefits could be multiplied if the resources of the university were multiplied. The demonstration of these benefits in specific and readily understandable terms is the continuing challenge of university leadership.

Another part of the message is an appeal to permit faculty members and students to "do their thing" with minimum external interference and control. On the one hand, the president pleads for increased resources; on the other hand, the president pleads for institutional autonomy. To many persons comprising the "publics" of higher education, the two pleas are inconsistent. If increased resources are to be provided the university, may not the donor of those resources expect some assurances that the intended outputs from augmented income are in fact performed? There is a continuing tension externally between the search for funds and the imposition of controls. Presidential leadership of the university must cope with this tension, according to Millett.

The internal dimension of presidential leadership involves guidance of the enterprise as an enterprise. If the president cannot manage learning, he or she must manage the organization as a learning environment. Management entails more than a balancing of expenditures with income, vital as this balancing is. Management entails effective and efficient use of available resources to the fullest practicable extent.

Just as faculty and student participation in the internal governance process is desirable, even basic, to decision making about learning purposes, learning programs, and learning policies, so in turn presidential leadership is essential as a continuing reminder of the social expectations from the enterprise and of the external sources of support. Perhaps a president cannot "demand" certain decisions or behavioral characteristics on the part of faculty or students. For example, the president cannot lead faculty members in the design of course objectives, in the determination of course content and technology, and in the evaluation of student learning. The president cannot formulate a research project or guide faculty members in conducting a research project. The president cannot demonstrate tested skill in the application of specialized knowledge to a particular problem. In other words, a president cannot manage learning. Only faculty members can manage learning. But a president can point to the external consequences of those decisions or of particular behavior. Decisions and actions within the academic community engender certain external perceptions of that community, and external perceptions affect external support. If faculty members are content to have lesser compensation, if students are content to pay more of the cost of their learning, then external perceptions and external support may be given slight attention. The academic community confronts choices, and presidential leadership involves clarifying both choices and consequences.[65]

Millett concluded his discussion by observing that the president's leadership role is critical to the well-being of the university. The president is the link between management and government, between the internal "world" of learning and the external "world" of social

expectation and social support. The management of learning is the province of faculty members. The management of the university as an organized enterprise, as an environment of learning, is the province of the president. The university needs both if it is to achieve its high purpose in American society.[66]

Association with the Newspaper

Campus newspapers are produced by students within the context of an educational organization. Immediately above these student journalists in the organizational hierarchy is the newspaper adviser (who also is often the journalism teacher in colleges where such courses are taught), and the college president, to whom the adviser is accountable.

If the newspaper is a failure in a college, the president often must share the blame because he has the responsibility of helping develop student learning experiences consistent with democracy.[67] Conversely, good newspapers might best be produced in colleges where the president recognizes the value of the press and gives it the support it needs to publish successfully.

Several researchers have established the importance of the adviser-administrator relationship in successful school and college newspaper production.[68] But the president has certain responsibilities in the relationship with the adviser and the paper that are sometimes overlooked.

The newspaper does represent many segments of college life. If there is criticism of the paper, the president ultimately will receive it. Some campus papers have been candid in coverage of college issues, while others have not. The adviser-president relationship is thought to have

great influence on campus press freedom. This relationship is thought to be pivotal in establishing such an approach to the campus paper and in maintaining the atmosphere in which such communication can take place.

In a 1972 study of public school advisers and administrators in 12 states, Campbell found that both groups supported the authoritarian status of advisers and principals. Accordingly, they--not the students being taught--made decisions and chose the staffs.[69] Campbell opposed such intrusion.

The Los Angeles District also places the administrator in charge of regulating time, place, duration, and manner of distributing materials that are to have prior approval.[70] The thinking here is that students and schools are to be protected from exploitation and disruption.

Efforts to maintain high-quality newspapers in colleges have been uneven, even though presidents nationally have recognized the paper's value as both an internal and external public relations tool.[71]

In the successful programs for papers, presidents have been aware of communication skills development of students, of the production and business techniques learned, and of the increased expressive abilities of students. "They believe that publications work teaches responsibility, willingness to work and cooperate with others, and toleration for the opinion of others."[72] Enhanced student morale and critical thinking ability on the part of student journalists also are known values of the newspaper, according to presidents in successful programs.[73]

Trager noted that "fairness, reasonableness, and equality" are the essentials of democracy and should be the guidelines used by administrators in dealing with student newspapers.[74] Other practices for

building good newspapers include hiring qualified advisers, providing economic assurances or the means by which funding may be procured by student staffs so the newspaper publishes on a regular basis, scheduling at least one or more journalism classes to be taught by qualified teachers, appropriating funds for library and audio-visual materials pertinent to newspaper work, and providing adequate space and materials for newspaper production.[75]

Giles has proposed some philosophical guidelines for administrators in dealing with college newspapers:

1. Hire qualified advisers.
2. Allow adequate time for advising, teaching duties, and preparation.
3. Provide extra compensation for extra duties that require overtime, such as advising the newspaper.
4. See that proper equipment and facilities are provided.
5. Give full academic and departmental status to journalism.
6. Give administrative support to advisers and editors.
7. Have confidence that good student newspapers benefit the entire college as well as those who directly participate.[76]

When adviser and president are involved in cooperative decision making with regard to the college newspaper, the relationship is thought to have great influence on campus press freedom. This relationship may be pivotal in establishing an atmosphere in which free communication can take place.

Censorship

The variable of censorship may play an important role in the relationship of adviser and president. It cannot be assumed that all adviers accept or advocate total application of First Amendment principles to the college press. However, those advisers who work in autonomous situations, in which the presidents do not interfere with the editorial function, might be expected to perceive their work environments as being more acceptable than those advisers who must cope with presidential intereference.

The highest level of such interference, of course, is censorship. While many other factors determine the adviser-president relationship regarding the college newspaper, the censorship area is decidedly the most crucial, and thus its exploration in the present study.

First Amendment on the College Campus

The First Amendment's guarantee of freedom of speech and press is now generally construed to mean freedom of expression in many different forms and is one of the fundamental rights guaranteed by the Constitution. The Amendment states that "Congress shall make no law. . . . abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press . . ." In a series of decisions, the Supreme Court has held that the Fourteenth Amendment clearly protects a citizen's First Amendment guarantees of freedom of speech and press against infringement by state officials. Thus, while freedom of expression for students is based on the First Amendment, the doctrine is made mandatory for the states through the Fourteenth Amendment, section 1, clause 2:

> No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty or property without due process of law, nor deny to any person within it jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

Courts have held that the Constitution applies to all persons, including students, and when a public institution denies constitutional rights, a student has cause of action under the Fourteenth Amendment. As Justice Abe Fortas stated in Tinker, the leading case extending constitutional rights to students, "It can hardly be argued that either students or teachers shed their constitutional right to freedom of speech or expression at the schoolhouse gate." Students enjoy the same constitutional protection as other citizens, and a state may not impose limitations on this procedure as a condition to attending a state university. In numerous cases, school officials and administrators have been forbidden to censor expressions which they dislike. They have been reminded by the courts that they are not the "unrestrained masters of what they create," and have no power to tell a student what thoughts to communicate.[77]

While freedom of the press is stronger on the university campus than on the high school campus, that freedom is not absolute. In fact, freedom of the press and freedom of expression can give way to several administrative considerations. A landmark decision granting constitutional protection to the student press, Dickey v. Alabama State Board of Education, enunciated the major qualification. At Troy State College in Alabama, student editor Gary Dickey wrote an editorial critical of the state governor and legislature. The editorial was in response to criticism levied at a campus magazine after it published quotations from

such diverse persons as Bettina Aptheker, an avowed Communist; black power advocate Stokely Carmichael; and a former Army Chief of Staff, General Earl Wheeler. Members of the Alabama legislature contended that the college should not have allowed the magazine to be distributed. Frank Rose, president of the University of Alabama, supported the publication and was criticized for his support. Dickey's editorial supported Dr. Rose, but the newspaper's faculty adviser refused to allow publication. Dickey then asked Troy State President Ralph Adams about publication and was told that Troy State had a rule forbidding editorials which criticized the governor or legislators. Adams' Rule, as it later became known, said that because the college was a public institution owned and operated by the state and because the governor and legislature were acting for the state as owner, they could not be criticized. Adams said editorials laudatory of state officials were acceptable.

Dickey was given an article, "Raising Dogs in North Carolina," as a substitute for the editorial. Dickey refused to run the substitute and left the editorial space blank with the word "Censored" written diagonally across it. During the summer, he was informed that he would not be allowed to re-enter Troy State during the fall on the grounds of "willful and deliberate insubordination." In this significant case for student press freedom, the District Court quoted from a case cited with approval in Tinker in stating that "state school officials cannot

> . . .state school officials cannot infringe on their students' right of free and unrestricted expression. . . where the exercise of such a right does not materially and substantially interfere with requirements of appropriate discipline in the operation of the school.[78]

Thus, "material and substantial interference" is a qualification for freedom of the press on university campuses, just as "clear and present danger" is the signal for censorship in the public press.

In the second case involving a college publication, students at Fitchburg (Mass.) State College tried to reprint an article, "Black Moochie," written by Eldridge Cleaver. The article was censored by the school president, who also ordered that all future editorial material for the newspaper be approved by an editorial board made up of faculty members. While the District Court held that such an advisory board constituted direct and unconstitutional prior restraint on expression, the opinion noted that freedom of the press is not absolute. Free speech, the court said, does not mean unrestricted speech, and the rights of students "may be modified by regulations reasonably designed to adjust these rights to the needs of the school environment." The "needs" were defined as the school's obligation to "maintain the order and discipline necessary for the success of the educational process."[79] Thus, if a school-supported publication infringes on the order and discipline of the campus, censorship may be permissible.

Most school officials are not willing to wait until disruption occurs before censoring publications. Instead, most censorship is prior restraint based on a fear of some future and potentially violent disruption. The courts, however, have taken a second look at these soothsayer activities by administrators and have been unwilling to allow an unfounded fear of disruption to account for unharnessed censorship. For example, after officials at Texas Tech University prohibited circulation of a student organization's newspaper, the court said it was not enough that school administrators anticipated the possibility of some disruption,

saying that an unfounded fear of disruption cannot overcome the First Amendment guarantee of free expression.[80]

While the courts have stated that administrators must formulate reasonable regulations which do not impinge on a student newspaper's First Amendment rights, they have been vague as to just what constitutes "reasonableness." A great deal of latitude in regulations has been allowed, and administrators may control behavior "which tends to impede, obstruct or threaten the achievement of educational goals." The forms of administrative control are numerous, ranging from restriction of funds to disciplinary action against student editors. A new trend has developed whereby the students themselves are wielding a great deal of power, sometimes creating a chilling effect upon publications. Student newspapers receive funding from a variety of sources. In many larger universities, funding comes from mandatory student activity fees. In theory as well as in practice, it is possible for the student government to kill a student newspaper by restricting these activity funds. No court has yet ruled on whether this practice is unconstitutional.

In most cases, it is the administrators who cut funds. At North Carolina Central University, administrators stopped newspaper funds pending agreement on editorial standards. They announced that if no agreement could be reached, the paper would be suspended indefinitely and a new campus paper, sponsored by college officials, would be established. The Court of Appeals for the Fourth Circuit would not condone such action: "Censorship cannot be imposed by asserting any form of censorial oversight based on the institution's power of the purse."[81]

A more common form of administrative control is refusal to print or distribute a particularly offensive edition of a publication. This is easy to accomplish when the printing and distribution are handled by the university. There also may be difficulties when an offensive student publication is printed off campus. The printer may fear community pressure and the loss of other university printing business, or may simply find the publication objectionable on personal grounds and decline to print it.

The Supreme Court has held that non-campus newspapers, including those published by students, receive the same protection from administrative controls that on-campus publications receive.[82] However, administrators may make reasonable rules and regulations as to the time, place, and manner of distribution of off-campus publications and may take permissible steps to prevent substantial interferences with campus order.[83]

To avoid the possibility that unwanted material will get into a student newspaper, administrators and schools of journalism are fond of having an adviser or review board to oversee the publication. A Federal District Court has said that when such a review board or adviser acts as an approving or censoring agent, it is clearly an usurpation of First Amendment rights. However, if they only advise and review, this apparently is legal. Subtle pressures, though, quickly can change an "adviser" into a "censor."[84]

Many of these administrative controls can be used in concert, as occurred at Fitchburg (Mass.) State College, where the president not only refused to pay for the printing of articles he felt were indecent, but he also established an advisory board to oversee future publications. Similarly, at Troy State University in Alabama, an editorial

critical of the governor was not only censored, but the editor was refused readmission to the school. The court in Dickey said that "since

> . . . since this state-supported institution did elect to operate (the student newspaper) and did authorize Dickey to be one of its editors, it cannot . . . suspend or expel Dickey for this conduct.[85]

However, suspension, non-readmission, probation or firing--real or threatened--continue to be control measures on some campuses.

The courts have held that once a university has established a newspaper, it may not then place limits upon the use of that forum which interfere with protected speech and which are not justified by an overriding state interest in avoiding material and substantial interference with campus discipline.

Although courts in recent years have extended constitutional guarantees to student newspapers at public universities, this extension is not complete. School newspapers still do not enjoy the full protection offered the public press. The primary reason for the failure to extend full protection is the courts' reluctance to step into the academic world. While such cases as Dickey and Antonelli have limited sanctions, administrators may use to influence student publications, there still is much vague and indefinite language in the rulings. While some restrictions still can be legally imposed, many administrators choose to forego legal confrontations. Nevertheless, applying subtle pressures at sensitive points in the operation of a newspaper, administrators may violate the spirit of the law.

A Publication's Responsibilities

Libel. The courts consistently have held that libel, obscenity and slander do not deserve the full protection of the First Amendment (United States, 1957). For this reason, libelous material is feared by university officials who do not want costly court battles, large damage awards, and the good name of their institution smudged. The facts, however, seem to indicate that the student newspaper has a much better record than its privately-owned counterpart when it comes to libel suits. A survey conducted in 1973 indicated that only 19 libel suits had been brought against college publications since 1930. Of these 19, damages were paid out in only seven--one as a result of court litigation (this one involved an advertisement) and six in out-of-court settlements. However, these figures should not indicate that caution need not be taken in writing and editing the college publication.[86]

Libel is any visual communication (print, sign, or picture) which exposes a person to hatred, ridicule, or contempt, or which lowers the person's reputation, causes the person to be shunned, or injures the person's livelihood. Libel is traditionally a common-law offense, but recent holdings by the Supreme Court indicate that states must adhere closely to court decisions interpreting libel in light of the First Amendment.[87] Material may be libelous whether it is part of a headline, the story itself, or an advertisement or photograph. Defamation arising from carelessness, typographical error, or accident probably will be considered libelous, but libel growing out of such origins may be considered in mitigation, and may be helpful in lowering damage awards.

The plaintiff in a libel suit must plead and prove four elements--identification, publication, defamation, negligence and/or actual malice (reckless disregard for the truth or knowledge of falsity). "Negligence" has not been defined uniformly throughout the United States, and recent state court decisions should be consulted for the definition used in any particular state. If negligence is found, and the plaintiff suffered some damage to reputation or pocketbook, he or she may recover what are termed "actual" damages. If, instead, actual malice is found on the publisher's part, the plaintiff may be awarded not only actual damages for actual suffering, but also presumed damages, which are awarded because the court presumes some injury did occur even if no suffering was proved in court. Also, punitive damages will be awarded, not based on the injury, but as punishment to prevent similar libels. (Not all states recognize punitive damages because they are seen as having a "chilling" effect on the press).

The media have a whole array of defenses which may be used to allay or lessen damages. The most important--truth alone--is an absolute defense in most cases; in others, truth, qualified with "good motives," is a defense. Other absolute defenses include the statute of limitations and consent or authorization from the plaintiff to print the material.

Qualified or conditional defenses are, aside from truth, the most heavily used by media in libel cases. They include accurate reporting of privileged material, fair comment and criticism, and the constitutional or New York Times rule. In every state, the media have a constitutional privilege to report anything appearing in official reports and proceedings.

This includes meetings of boards of regents and trustees, municipal council meetings, open court proceedings and court records (after some official proceedings have been taken), school board meetings, legislative sessions, and meetings of most quasi-judicial, legislative, and executive agencies. Most states have open meetings and open records laws, which should be consulted before reporting some of the more obscure and lesser known meetings and records. Generally, a meeting will be privileged if it is required or provided by law. These privileged news reports, however, must be fair and accurate, or they will lose their qualified protection.[88]

In addition to the absolute defenses, a newspaper also has partial defenses growing out of mitigating factors, as mentioned earlier. These defenses are used to lessen the damages and include evidence of the plaintiff's bad reputation, provocation by the plaintiff, honest mistake, probable cause, and retraction.

Retraction is not only a partial defense after a suit has been brought, but may very well be the best way to avoid a libel action entirely. Any retraction must be full, fair, accurate, prompt and contain no lurking insinuations or additional charges.[89] Twenty-five states have laws which augment the effect of retraction and specify what is a proper retraction. State statutes should be consulted to determine what type of retraction is required and what format must be used; that is, phrasing, placement, deadlines, type size, and so on.

In a 1972 survey of 159 advisers, 98 said retractions had been printed by their publications, but only 30 were in response to the possibility of legal action.[90]

Despite attempts by student publications to prevent libel suits, the fear of costly libel actions coupled with a dislike of criticism is one reason administrators try to keep a tight rein on student publications. However, one court has found that prior censorship of possibly libelous material in a college newspaper or periodical is unconstitutional and unjustified under the First Amendment.

In Trujillo v. Love, Dorothy Trujillo, managing editor of the Southern Colorado State College Arrow, ran a political editorial critical of the college president. The Arrow's adviser found it possibly libelous and ordered it deleted. A month later, Trujillo submitted an editorial which characterized a local judge as a "small-time farmer." Again, the adviser said it was potentially libelous. Ms. Trujillo agreed to rewrite the article but was fired before she did so. A Federal District Court said that potentially libelous material is not subject to prior censorship. Speech, although potentially libelous, is protected, and the university is not justified in censoring it unless it is necessary to avoid material and substantial interference with discipline and order.[91]

In another case involving a criminal flag desecration law, the court said that although university officials might be subject to prosecution because they are involved to some extent in the publication, this does not allow them to apply a statute unconstitutionally.[92] It may be argued that this ame holding would adhere to libel statutes or state constitutions. Just as in any attempt at prior censorship, the school must prove a substantial and material degree of disruption in order to overcome the right to freedom of expression on the campus.

Privacy. Privacy is defined as the "right to be let alone" or the "right of a person to be free from unwarranted publicity."[93] Although privacy is not mentioned in the Constitution, most states, either by statute or judicial interpretation, have recognized a right to privacy.

Four types of invasion of privacy are recognized by most legal scholars: (1) intrusion on the plaintiff's physical solitude; (2) appropriation of some element of the plaintiff's personality--e.g., name or likeness--for commercial use; (3) publication of true but embarrassing or private facts; and (4) putting a plaintiff in a false light by falsification or fictionalization.[94]

1. Intrusion - This area only recently became critical because it involves how reporters gather news and what right, if any, they have during the news-gathering process. Intrusion involves the physical or non-physical invasion into a person's solitude. Intrusion is similar to the tort of trespass, which is the wrongful entry of a person onto another's property. Recent cases indicate that a plaintiff whose solitude has been disturbed by the media may sue for either intrusion or trespass or both.

Reporters can directly intrude into a person's privacy by entering private property under false pretenses or without permission, or by secretly photographing or tape recording without another's knowledge or under false pretenses. It makes no difference whether the story gained from the intrusion is published or whether it is newsworthy, for it is the intrusion itself, not the publication, which is the cause of legal action.

2. Appropriation.- The use of an individual's name, likeness, or testimony without consent and for promotional gain is a problem confronting advertising staffs. An early and famous case points out the problem advertisers may face. Franklin Flour Mills used Abigail Robertson's picture to decorate posters advertising flour. The child's parents sued for $15,000, because the picture had been used without her consent. Although the New York courts did not recognize the young lady's right privacy, the case prompted the New York legislature the next year to pass the country's first privacy statute. The new law made it a misdeameanor and a tort to use a person's name, portrait, or likeness in advertising without consent.

Since consent is a publication's only defense in an appropriation suit, consent forms or model releases are the best protection. Such a form gives the purpose for which the picture or likeness is to be used and includes a statement of consent to be signed by the subject.

3. Private or Embarrassing Facts - There have been few instances in which a newspaper has been successfully sued for publishing truthful accounts about a person. The defense available to the newspaper is broad. In every jurisdiction where right of privacy has been recognized, courts have held that if the matter published is newsworthy, the suit cannot stand. The only "private facts" action to come before the Supreme Court involved judicial records. In Cox Broadcasting Co. v. Cohn, a television station broadcast a sound-on-film news story about the trial of two rape and murder suspects. In the report, the newscaster gave the name of the 17-year-old rape victim. According to Georgia law, revealing a rape victim's name is a misdemeanor. The Court

held that the information as to name was a matter of public record both at the time of the rape and at the time of the trial and therefore could properly be reported.[95]

4. False Light or Non-Defamatory Falsehoods - One difference between "false light" and libel is the lack of defamation in the former. The first privacy case ever to reach the Supreme Court involved fictionalization of an otherwise true story. In Time, Inc. v. Hill, Life magazine printed a review of a play adapted from a book about a true incident involving the Hill family. The Hills had been held hostage in 1952 in their suburban home outside Philadelphia. When the play was produced in 1955, Life ran several pictures of the actors in the Hill's former home. The play, as well as the Life story, depicted a violent incident, whereas the Hill incident had not been violent. Hill brought suit against Life, arguing that the inaccuracies in the story were fictionalized and invaded his and his family's privacy.

The Supreme Court, in this landmark privacy decision, held that, although the Hill family had been involuntarily brought into the public eye, the matter was of public interest, and the plaintiff must prove that the publication was made with reckless disregard for the truth or with knowledge of falsity. Thus, the New York Times test of actual malice had been brought into the area of privacy. The 1967 ruling in Time, Inc. v. Hill has since been extended to all cases falling in the "false light" category.

Although there is a great deal of concern on the part of parents and administrators about obscenity in the campus press, a look at reported litigation reveals little actual obscenity in these cases as defined by the courts. The concern among administrators is primarily about "indecent"

or "offensive" language which enjoys First Amendment protection. The danger of obscenity prosecution, however, may be lurking nearby. The Supreme Court in 1973 defined obscenity with these guidelines:

1. Whether the average person, applying contemporary community standards, would find that the work, taken as a whole, appeals to the prurient interest in sex.
2. Whether the work portrays in a patently offensive manner sexual conduct specifically defined in state law.
3. Whether the work, taken as a whole, lacks serious literary, artistic, political, or scientific value.[96]

Most recently, courts have struggled to define the "community standard," and the results have ranged from a statewide standard to a neighborhood standard. "Community standard" is more commonly accepted as the standards of the city, town, or county from which the jury is drawn to hear an obscenity case. The question raised at the university level is whether the community would include just the university community of students, faculty and staff, or whether it would also include the town, city, or county where the university is located. If the university is accepted as the standard, would the standards be harsher or more relaxed? Some lower courts would argue that the standards in a university must be stricter and students should exhibit a higher standard of morals than persons off campus. The Supreme Court has rejected this double standard, stating in Papish that students should not be subjected to more demand standards of conduct than their counterparts off campus.
If standards are not to be stricter, can they be more relaxed? One argument is that students are more mature and more readily can see

the social value of communications which off campus may be seen as only vulgar or shocking. A good case may be made for the proposition that the community standard for obscenity in the campus press should be the audience--the community of students, faculty, and staff which reads the newspaper. If such an argument were successful, obscenity might be judged by separate standards on campus due to the attitudes of college students and the educational level and tolerance of faculty and staff members.

The question of a community standard has not yet been raised in a campus publication. The primary concern has been what control the university has over indecent or vulgar language--language which does not fall under the definition of obscenity. May the university attempt to curtail this type of language by using a review board? May the school suspend or otherwise discipline students engaged in such writing? May the school refuse to appropriate money, refuse to print, or refuse distribution privileges to newspapers that use indecent language? All of these controls have been used at one time or another to suppress or control student publications. However, courts have said that when the material is not obscene, all the safeguards of the First and Fourteenth Amendments must be adhered to. If school officials feel the material falls under the definition of obscenity, the most rigorous procedural safeguards must be offered the material until there has been a swift judicial determination of obscenity.[97]

In the landmark case in this area, Antonelli v. Hammond (1970), President Hammon refused to pay for the printing of an Eldridge Cleaver

article and required future editions of the Cycle to be approved by a review board that would certify expenditures and approve payments after the publication was approved. Although a Federal District Court felt obscenity in the campus press was not likely to cause disruption, the university still could take steps to control its appearance in the student newspaper. But the court warned that, when measures are taken to regulate obscenity, the state must be careful that protected expression is not caught in what the court termed "the regulatory dragnet."

To prevent prior restraint of protected expression, the court extended to the campus the same prior restraint safeguards used in movie censorship. First, the burden of proof that the material is obscene is on the censor. Second, a judicial determination must be made quickly. Finally, an avenue of appeal must be made available. Until such time as a judicial determination is made, the school administrators can regulate newspaper content only as long as it relates to the maintenance of order and discipline on the campus. The court said it could not see how indecent or obscene language would be disruptive, adding that the university setting of college-aged students creates a mature marketplace for the exchange of ideas.

The decision in Antonelli was an important step in advising administrators and faculty that just because the university funds a newspaper, it does not have total control over its content. Nevertheless, school officials continue to censor newspapers for indecent or unconventional language. When such cases reach their final appeal, courts have generally been unsympathetic to the administrators' viewpoints.[98]

The most recent case of censorship for indecent language in this review occurred at East Carolina University (ECU). William Schell, a student, wrote a letter to the editor of the ECU Fountainhead criticizing the school's dormitory policies and suggesting that President Leo Jenkins, who was seeking the Democratic nomination for governor, should choose between politics and education. The letter ended with the phrase, "Fuck you, Leo." President Jenkins attempted to fire Robert Thonen, the editor, but school regulations prevented it. Thonen had been warned earlier about the use of vulgarity in the publication. At that time, the president made it clear he had no intention of censoring vulgarity, but he also had no intention of condoning the use of such language in the school paper. It was only when the vulgar language was used in reference to the president himself that it was viewed as a totally unacceptable situation requiring disciplinary action. Jenkins expelled both Schell and Thonen. The Fourth Circuit followed the 1973 Papish and Bazaar decisions and held that the use of one vulgar word in a letter dealing with a subject of importance to the campus was not enough to justify suspending the editor and the letter writer.

Frequently, the problem of obscenity on campus has occurred as a result of the activities of so-called underground newspapers. In such situations, administrators would be wise to leave the matter to state law enforcement officials.

Although the Supreme Court has emphasized that First Amendment protections apply with equal force on college campuses and in the community, numerous cases have made it clear that once a public college or university makes an activity available to students, it must operate that activity in accordance with First Amendment principles.

Administrators are not powerless, however. To some extent they may be permitted to restrict expression on campus, depending on whether the restrictions are (1) direct limitations placed on the content, or (2) indirect limitations placed on conduct incidental to the expression; that is, time, place, and manner of distribution. Indirect limitations may be considered acceptable if they are reasonable, nondiscriminatory, and imposed for the purpose of maintaining public order. But direct limitations on content can be imposed only if there are special circumstances, usually meaning that the content will to a "material and substantial degree" interfere with school operations.[99]

Free expression does not mean unrestricted expression, and students' constitutional rights may be modified or must yield entirely when they interfere with the school's need to maintain order and continue the educational process.

While some theses and dissertations were incorporated into this review, others were not for various reasons, e.g., age of the study, lack of specific relevance to the problem at hand, etc. However, as many of these as seemed appropriate were listed in the bibliography for those researchers who may find them useful in some other aspect of the ongoing study of campus publications.

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CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND ANALYSIS

Data were analyzed from responses by 35 college and university newspaper advisers in Oklahoma*. Essentially, the advisers were asked to report perceptions of their jobs from three aspects by way of responding to statements which preceded a five-point rating scale.

Independent variables in this study centered on two rather broad categories: job aspects and experience.

Job aspects comprised three levels: Job Satisfaction, Relationship With the President, and Freedom to Publish.

Experience actually involved two variables: professional experience and years as adviser. Each of the experience variables, in turn, was dichotomized into Five Years or Less and More than Five Years.

Three major variables, then, were used in the quantitative analyses, as follows:

A. Job Aspects

   a-1 Job Satisfaction

   a-2 Relationship with the President

   a-3 Freedom to Publish

B. Professional Experience

   b-1 Five Years or Less

   b-2 More than Five Years

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*The opinionnaire was mailed to 45 advisers, but some responses were incomplete and some did not return the instrument.

C. Years as Adviser

c-1 Five Years or Less

c-2 More than Five Years

Normally, the above design would require a single analysis of variance of scores on three variables, comprising a 3 x 2 x 2 = 12-fold design. But the limited number of respondents (35) required analysis of two variables at a time. In addition, tests for differences among the three job aspects, disregarding either of the experience variables, were run.

The study's dependent variable was degree of agreement with statements relevant to the three job aspects. Each statement was accompanied by a five-point, Rensis Likert-type scale running from five, "strongly agree," to one, "strongly disagree." For example, the following statement comprised one of the indices of job satisfaction:

My job as newspaper adviser is very exciting and rewarding.

Strongly agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Strongly disagree
5 4 3 2 1

If an adviser checked blank "5," one could say he perceived his job very favorably. In other words, the degree of agreement with scale items can be viewed as an adviser's perceived favorability toward any three job aspects studied herein. In fact, agreement scale scores can be, and were, converted as follows:

5 = very favorable

4 = favorable

3 = neutral or equally favorable and unfavorable

2 = unfavorable

1 = very unfavorable

The author, henceforth, will discuss her findings from the standpoint of how favorably advisers perceived the various aspects of their jobs.

Similarities Among Advisers

Initially, the author planned a breakdown of advisers into those who held degrees in communication and those who did not. This plan was rendered unfeasible, since only five of the 35 advisers held degrees in areas other than communication. In fact, 21 held undergraduate degrees in communication and, of the 30 who also had graduate degrees, 20 held them in communication. Nine advisers with graduate degrees in communication held undergraduate degrees in another area.

Before discussing differences in advisers' Job Satisfaction, Relationship With the President and Freedom to Publish ratings, the author looked at their similarities from two standpoints.

Correlation of Favorability Ratings

Since the 35 advisers each rated the three aspects of their jobs on a five point scale, the three sets of ratings could be correlated. This showed similarity in the pattern of favorability assigned to the three job aspects. Table I shows the intercorrelations of ratings.

With a critical correlation coefficient of .449 at the 99 percent level of confidence, similarity of advisers' favorability rating patterns were significant on each pair of job aspects. However, much of the variance in favorability was unexplained. The average correlation of .62 from Table I means that 38 percent of the variance was explained ($.62^2$ = .38), leaving 62 percent to "noise" or unexplained variation.

TABLE I

INTERCORRELATIONS OF THREE JOB ASPECTS RATINGS ASSIGNED BY 35 COLLEGE NEWSPAPER ADVISERS

Job Aspects	Satisfaction	Relationship with the President	Freedom to Publish
Job Satisfaction	--	.74	.53
Relationship With the President	.74	--	.58
Freedom to Publish	.53	.58	--

NOTE: Critical r = .449, p. < 01, at df = .33

Put simply, on the average, advisers' ratings on one job aspect predicted 38 percent of the variation in ratings of another aspect. However, one pair of aspects had a higher-than-average correlation: Job Satisfaction and Relationship With the President. The .74 correlation means that approximately 55 percent of the variation in Relationship With the President ratings was shared by Job Satisfaction.

Consensus of Advisers

As a rule of thumb, if a rater's standard scores differ no more than a unit (one standard deviation) between the highest and lowest ratings given to several items, say, three job aspects, he is said to have similar feelings about the job aspects. Furthermore, he is in consensus with any other raters whose standard ratings differ no more

than a unit across those same three job aspects. Table II shows the standardized ratings of each adviser on each job aspect, as well as the difference between the largest and smallest rating, shown in the extreme right column.

Table II reveals that 22 advisers, or 62.8 percent, felt similarly about all three aspects of their jobs, as shown by the underlined entries in the extreme right column. Although this is another indication of high agreement among the advisers in pattern of response, none of these "consensus" advisers stood more than one standard score from the average rating on job aspects, which, as a rule of thumb, is interpreted to mean that they neither strongly favored nor disfavored their jobs.

Also, from Table II, the author used other common rules-of-thumb criteria to clarify the acceptance-rejection patterns further. For example, if an adviser's standard score on a particular job aspect was between .10 and 1.00, he was said to accept or reject (favor or disfavor) that aspect, depending on the sign of the standard score (plus or minus, respectively). If his standard score was less than .10 in either direction, he neither accepted nor rejected. All those whose standard scores exceeded 1.00 in either direction, as already stated, highly accepted or rejected the job aspect, respectively.

Table III shows the breakdown of number of advisers by levels of acceptance and rejection.

On Job Satisfaction, the advisers "split," so to speak, on rejection and acceptance. Eighteen either highly rejected or rejected, and 17 highly accepted or accepted. Thus, about half disfavored and

TABLE II

STANDARD RATINGS OF 35 COLLEGE NEWSPAPER ADVISERS
ON THREE JOB ASPECTS

Job Satisfaction	Relationship With the President	Freedom to Publish	Standard Differences
- .741	- .437	.099	.84
- .124	- .680	- .613	.56
- .398	-1.530	.099	1.63
.975	.049	.812	.16
- .398	1.021	.812	1.42
.288	.170	.099	.19
.632	1.021	.385	.64
.975	1.021	.812	.21
- 3.98	- .802	- .613	.40
-1.500	-1.290	-1.325	.21
1.250	.170	.385	1.08
1.250	1.750	.812	.93
- .124	- .316	.099	.42
.632	.608	.385	.25
- .398	.049	.099	.50
1.250	1.142	.812	.44
- .246	- .194	.385	.63
1.250	.413	.812	.84
-1.770	-1.896	-1.681	.22
.632	1.750	.812	1.12
- .398	.049	.812	1.21
.975	.838	.812	.16
.632	.377	- .613	1.25
1.250	-1.750	.385	1.37
- .124	- .680	.099	.78
.288	.838	- .256	1.09
- .124	.377	- .256	.63
- .741	- .437	.099	.84
- .741	- .680	.812	1.55
- .741	.049	.385	1.13
- .246	-2.380	-2.393	2.14
.288	- .194	-1.040	1.33
.632	.049	.385	.58
.632	.413	.812	.40
- .398	-1.430	.812	2.24

TABLE III

ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION FREQUENCIES OF ADVISERS ON THREE JOB ASPECTS

Rejection-Acceptance Levels	Job Satisfaction	Relationship With President	Freedom to Publish	Totals
High Rejection	2	6	4	12
Rejection	16	9	5	30
High Acceptance	5	6	0	11
Acceptance	12	9	19	40
Neither	0	5	7	12
Totals	35	35	35	105

NOTE: Neither frequencies represent advisers whose standard scores bordered on zero.

half favored their jobs, overall. The same was true on Relationship With the President. Fifteen fell on the favorable end and 15 leaned toward disfavor. In this case, however, five advisers registered ratings considered "neutral." Freedom to Publish drew a heavy favorable response. Nineteen advisers registered acceptance (favorable feelings) compared to only nine on the rejection end. Seven, however, were neutral on this job aspect. These findings are similar to those mentioned briefly in the following discussion in which the Likert Scale points are discussed in terms of degree of favorability toward job aspects.

Job Factors: Differences in Perception

Disregarding professional experience, education, years as adviser, etc., the 35 advisers, as a group, varied significantly ($F=33.72$, $df = 2/68$, $p < .01$) in mean favorability to statements about the three different aspects of their jobs--those aspects being Job Satisfaction, Relationship With the President and Freedom to Publish.

Freedom to ublish yielded the highest marks (4.53), followed by Job Satisfaction (3.79) and Relationship With the President (3.55). The difference between each pair of these means was significant at the .05 level (post-Hoc test critical difference = .215, $p < .05$). However, the variation between mean favorability scores explained only 20 percent of the total variation in advisers' ratings.

In this analysis, then, the advisers perceived their Freedom to Publish as leaning toward the "very favorable," while they bordered on a "favorable" perception of their jobs, and stood between "neutral" and "favorable" on Relationship With the President.

The above, of course, refers to the average favorability. Actually, the advisers ratings ranged from 2.25 to 4.90, when all three job aspects were considered. Sixteen advisers registered themselves as favorable or above, while only three leaned toward the unfavorable side of the Likert continuum. Another 16 fell between neutral and favorable.

On the Job Satisfaction aspect, 17 advisers, about half, perceived their jobs as favorable or better, while 14 leaned toward the favorable and four tended toward the unfavorable. Job Satisfaction scores ranged from 2.00 to 4.70.

Regarding Relationship With the President, perceptions ranged from a low of 1.60 to 5.00. Ten advisers perceived the relationship as favorable or better, while 19 fell between neutral and favorable. Another seven registered feelings less than neutral, tending toward the unfavorable.

All but six advisers gave a favorable-or-better rating on their Freedom to Publish. In fact, 12 felt very favorable about the leeway they were allowed. Only two leaned toward the unfavorable in their perceptions. Ratings ranged from 2.25 to 5.00. The two low-raters, by the way, also rated their jobs and Relationship With the President among the lowest. In fact, responses to the three aspects of the job showed a fairly high internal consistency, with a reliability coefficient of .84 (F between subjects = 5.81, df - 34/68, $p < .05$). Furthermore, the differences in the overall mean ratings of advisers accounted for 59.4 percent of the total variation in favorability scores.

In essence, this means that respondents favorable to one job aspect were favorable to the others and vice versa. It also means that the

three job aspects were measuring the same thing. This showed up in another way in the previous section when it was revealed that 22 of the 35 advisers gave similar ratings to all three job aspects.

To clarify the above a bit more, an adviser who wasn't satisfied with his job, more likely than not, perceived his relationship with the president as less favorable than an adviser with high job satisfaction. The less-satisfied adviser also would perceive his condition as less favorable in terms of freedom to publish.

Professional Experience and Job Perception

In this, an analysis for interaction of years of professional experience and the advisers' three job aspects, the author dichotomized professional experience into Five Years or Less and More Than Five Years.

Mean favorability scores in Table IV suggest that, overall, professional experience was positively related to job aspect ratings. However, the interaction of job aspects and professional experience did not hold across the board (Interaction $F = 396.47$, $df = 2/66$, $p < .01$).

On Relationship With the President and Freedom to Publish, Table IV shows those advisers with longer professional experience tended to feel more favorable (3.59 v. 3.48 and 4.61 and 4.09, respectively). However, Job Satisfaction had nothing to do with professional experience (3.81 v. 3.74, critical difference = .093, df = .66, p. < .05).

Probability estimate on the above interaction should be regarded with caution, since the number of cases in the professional experience cells were unequal: 12 and 23, respectively.

TABLE IV

MEAN FAVORABILITY SCORES ON THREE JOB ASPECTS AS ASSIGNED BY 35 COLLEGE NEWSPAPER ADVISERS: BY YEARS OF PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Professional Experience	Job Aspects			Mean Totals
	Job Satisfaction	Relationship With President	Freedom to Publish	
Five Years or Less	3.74	3.48	4.09	3.77
More than Five Years	3.81	3.59	4.61	4.00
Mean Totals	3.79	3.56	4.43	3.93

Years as Adviser and Job Perception

As shown in Table V, mean favorability scores, when Years as Adviser was considered, revealed a pattern similar to that when professional experience was associated with job aspects. But in this case, there was only a tendency toward interaction, that is, significant interaction.

Again, time--in this case, Years as Adviser--was positively related to favorability, regarding Relationship With the President and Freedom to Publish. However, the difference between these two pairs of means in Table V would occur by chance approximately 20 times in 100 such studies (Interaction $F = 1.95$, $df = 2/66$, $p < .20$). Further, as was the case with professional experience, Years as Adviser made no difference in the degree of Job Satisfaction.

The author, again, hastens to note that the number of cases per cell was unequal: less than five years as adviser, 24; five years or more, 11.

TABLE V

MEAN FAVORABILITY SCORES ON THREE JOB ASPECTS AS ASSIGNED BY 35 COLLEGE NEWSPAPER ADVISERS: BY YEARS SERVED AS ADVISER

Years Served as Adviser	Job Aspects: Job Satisfaction	Job Aspects: Relationship With President	Job Aspects: Freedom to Publish	Mean Totals
Five Years or Less	3.81	3.45	4.32	3.86
More than Five Years	3.74	3.79	4.67	4.06
Mean Totals	3.79	3.55	4.43	3.93

Miscellaneous Findings

Some of the data were not amenable to any of the commonly-used probability estimates. But the author felt they should be included, if for no other reason than they provide comparative information for readers of the dissertation who, for one reason or another, might need such data to compare with their own.

Income-Related Matters

Five of the 35 advisers reported their college newspaper income came from three sources: student activity fees, advertising and university budget.

1. Ten reported income from student activity fees and advertising.

2. Two derived income from activity fees and university budget.
3. Eight reported income from advertising and university budget.
4. Seven were supported totally by the university budget.
5. Three were supported totally from activity fees.

As stated above, 30 of the 35 newspapers, or 85.7 percent, derived income from one or two sources. Table VI shows how many fell into the single- or dual-source of income categories.

TABLE VI

PERCENTAGE OF COLLEGE NEWSPAPERS DERIVING INCOME FROM ONE OR MORE SOURCES

Sources		Sources			
		Activity Fees		Budget	
		Funds	No Funds	Funds	No Funds
Advertising	Funds	42.8%[a]	22.9%[a]	37.1%[b]	28.6%[b]
	No Funds	14.3%[a]	20.0%[a]	25.7%[b]	31.7%[b]
Activity Fees	Funds	--	--	20.0%[c]	42.9%[c]
	No Funds	--	--	37.1%[c]	00.0%[c]

[a]Chi Square = 1.78, $p < .20$, df = 1, coefficient of contingency = .219

[b]Chi Square = 1.15, $p < .30$, df = 1, coefficient of contingency = .178

[c]Chi Square = 15.50, $p < .001$, df = 1, coefficient of contingency = .554

From Table VI, the "a" cells indicate that the highest percentage of papers derived income from student activity fees and also from advertising. The "b" cell percentages indicate that those papers receiving income from the university budget, more likely than not, derived funds from advertising. The "c" cells show that, of the total papers deriving income from activity fees, less than half also were funded from the university budget. On the other hand, if a paper derived no income from activity fees, the more likely it would be funded from the university budget.

Summing up: A paper with advertising income was more likely to be partially funded by activity fees than was a paper without advertising income, but the strength of the relationship was weak (coefficient of contingency = .219).

A paper with advertising income was more likely to be partially funded from the university budget than one without advertising income, but, again, the strength of this relationship was weak (coefficient of contingency = .178).

A paper with income from activity fees was less likely to be funded from the university budget than a paper not funded from activity fees, and the strength of the relationship was moderate (coefficient of contingency = .554).

Management and Policy Matters

More than half the advisers said they had no policy manual for their newspapers. As for who holds the post of publisher, the college president and journalism department chairmen were the most frequently mentioned.

On the basis of ethical considerations, nearly two-thirds of the advisers (22) said they had rejected advertising felt to be in poor taste.

Thirty advisers reported no serious conflict between what is taught in journalism classes and what is practiced on the student newspapers. In fact, more than two-thirds of the advisers (27) said at least 50 percent of their job involved classroom teaching. Only one taught no courses at all. Only five advisers said they sometimes had trouble with students not understanding differences between the real situations of the work-a-day world and the lab.

As to legal and regulatory matters relevant to student publication decisions, advisers reported they got most of their information from textbooks, lawyers, and journals and other media-related publications.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

In essence, this study's findings, to a great extent, can be viewed as an index of how happy 35 college newspaper advisers were with their jobs. This contention stems from the fact that each adviser responded to an opinionnaire comprising statements purported to gauge how favorably he perceived three aspects of his job: Job Satisfaction, Relationship With the (College or University) President and Freedom to Publish.

Several opinion statements comported to each of the jobs aspects. Each was accompanied by a five-point Rensis Likert scale running from "strongly agree" (very favorable) to "strongly disagree" (very unfavorable). An adviser's mean score on a job aspect, then, was interpreted as a favorability rating. On a five-point, equal-interval scale, scores running from five to one were interpreted as follows:

5 = very favorable (to the job aspect)

4 = favorable

3 = neutral (no more favorable than unfavorable)

2 = unfavorable

1 - very unfavorable

Mean scores generated from an opinionnaire whose components comprise several items rarely result in whole numbers such as those

represented in the interpretation key above. Decimals usually are involved. Interpretation, then, was accompanied by qualification. For example, one whose mean job satisfaction score was 4.79 could be characterized as leaning toward the "very favorable" level, but not reaching it.

The first independent variable--jobs aspects (three levels)--was accompanied by two others: years of professional experience and years as adviser. Each of these, in turn, was dichotomized into Five Years or Less and More Than Five Years. Addition of these two variables enabled the author to derive a factorial analysis design allowing for testing of interaction of the two latter variables with the job aspects.

First, however, the author looked at the patterns of advisers' responses to opinion statements regarding the three job aspects. In other words, did an adviser's Job Satisfaction have any relationship to his Relationship With the President? Freedom to Publish? And did Relationship With the President have any bearing, so to speak, on Freedom to Publish?

The answer was "yes" in all cases. One could predict, to varying degrees, an adviser's favorability toward one job aspect, given the favorability score on either of the others.

Job Satisfaction ratings, for example, were correlated .74 with Relationship With the President. This means that 55 percent of the variation among advisers on Job Satisfaction was "explained" by their relationships with their presidents, or vice versa. Freedom to Publish was not as good a predictor of Job Satisfaction, since these two correlated at only .53, explaining only 28 percent of each other's

variance. The relationship was significant, however, as was the .58 correlation between Relationship With the President and Freedom to Publish, which showed only 34 percent shared variance.

Another indication of significant association among responses to job aspects was the fact that 22 advisers, or 62 percent, deviated less than one standard score between their lowest- and highest-rated job aspect. To qualify this point, however, the advisers split about half-and-half in rating Job Satisfaction and Relationship With the President as favorable and unfavorable. On Freedom to Publish, a heavy majority registered at the favorability level.

These findings, so far, really did not address themselves specifically to mean differences in ratings of the three job aspects or to the interaction of professional experience and tenure as adviser with job aspects. On both these counts--experience and advisal tenure--the story was "the more the better" on two of the job aspects: Freedom to Publish and Relationship With the President.

Those advisers with More Than Five Years professional experience rated Freedom to Publish and Relationship With the President significantly higher than did those with Five Years or Less. But--on degree of job satisfaction--professional experience made no significant difference.

Findings followed the same pattern when years as adviser were compared. The longer the tenure, the better the Relationship With the President and the more favorable the view on Freedom to Publish. Again, advisal tenure, as with professional experience, was not related significantly to Job Satisfaction.

Several blocks of data would not yield to probability estimates using continuous, interval-level data measurement. Other data were

clearly at the nominal measurement level and were amenable only to descriptive statistical analysis in which generalization, or external validity, was not a permissable question to address. One such analysis was sources of income for the college newspapers.

From Table VI one might conclude, with caution, that of the three sources of income--advertising, student activity fees and university budget--advertising income was the factor most likely to be accompanied by another source of income.

Conclusions

Results of this study cannot be generalized to any population of college newspaper advisers other than, perhaps, that of Oklahoma. Even the latter is questionable, considering the loss of ten respondents from the original 45. The study should be considered as exploratory in nature and to be used for hypotheses in future studies. From that standpoint, it serves as a benchmark, so to speak, from which to build future and more refined investigations into the college newspaper adviser's role and the freedom he has in that role.

The author, in retrospect, realized that some questionnaire items comprised an unmanageable number of subsets to yield any meaningful comparisons while dealing with the small number of respondents. This is in reference to items regarding college degrees held, professional positions held, various content categories in policy manuals, number of honorary and professional group affiliations, etc. These items, though ambitious in intent, defied a very basic axiom regarding the interdependence of research design and sample size.

Nevertheless, results did provide evidence of probable relationships among the three aspects of college newspaper advisers' jobs. From this evidence, the author was able to offer some thoughts and suggestions pertaining to possible underlying "whys" of the findings.

First, it should be pointed out that the salience to one another of Job Satisfaction, Relationship With the President and Freedom to publish left a substantial amount of variance yet to be explained. On the average, nearly two-thirds of the variance among the three job aspects scores was not shared. This means there are other variables which bear on the favorability scores of advisers.

Given the above, however, the relationship of each job aspect to another was significant. In other words, if a person knew how satisfied an adviser was with his job, then he would know something about the adviser's relationship with the president and the amount of freedom to publish news, editorials, etc., in the campus newspaper. In general, the higher the job satisfaction, the better the relationship with the president and the more freedom the adviser felt he had to publish material he deemed worthy. But, as stated, the prediction would be far from perfect. A unit increase in Job Satisfaction would not be accompanied by a corresponding unit increase in Favorability toward Relationship With the President or in Freedom to Publish.

What this means is that other aspects of the job or, perhaps, attributes, were related to the three aspects addressed in this study. In some cases, it was pointed out, for example, that the journalism department head or school director was the newspaper publisher. Perhaps relationship with the unit administration would have added information, had it been built in as another job aspect. Or, "Relationship With the

publisher" might have increased the systematic or explained variance among adviser scores and decreased the "noise" undoubtedly created by use of "relationship with the president." Other opinions probably should have been solicited regarding the newspaper's equipment, attitude toward teaching and/or other job responsibilities, salary, etc.

Also noteworthy is the 63 percent of the advisers who were in "consensus" in that they rated all three job aspects similarly. That is, there was no more than one standard score difference between their highest- and lowest-rated job aspect. Yet, standard scores of these "consensus" advisers showed them to be neither strongly favorable nor unfavorable. That is, their standard scores did not exceed 1.00, either above or below the average standard score of zero. This leaves a great deal of room for improvement, perhaps from the standpoint of job aspects addressed in this study, as well as from those not addressed.

Certainly, Relationship With the President indicated need for improvement in this study, as far as Job Satisfaction was concerned. These two job aspects drew significantly lower mean favorability than did Freedom to Publish. Advisers were significantly less favorable toward the status of their Relationship With the President than with their over-all Job Satisfaction. Yet, these two job aspects showed the highest correlation of any two in this study. Thus, any improvement in adviser-president relationships would have significantly more effect than, say, more freedom to publish. The fact that years of professional experience and years as adviser had no relationship to Job Satisfaction may have been due to the heavy role that Relationship With the President played in that respect.

On the other hand, professional experience and tenure as adviser were positively related to Relationship With the President. This further suggests that job aspects other than those addressed in this study are important to the adviser--perhaps as important, or more so, than Relationship With the President. All evidence available leads the author to this conclusion.

One of the strongest points of evidence, deliberately withheld until this point in the concluding remarks, is the fact that only 20 percent of the total variation in the advisers' scores was explained by the mean differences in favorability assigned to the three job aspects. This is another way of saying that, as advisers "bounced from one aspect to another" during their ratings, there was very little effect, even though it was significant. Obviously, other factors must be included in future studies.

Another important concluding remark must include the emphasis on causal factors and press freedom, as intimated in the introduction; indeed, as suggested by the very title of this dissertation. This emphasis turned out to be somewhat of a misnomer, although the author had no way of knowing during the conceptual stage of this study.

Though the three job aspects "hung together" in the advisers' minds, elementary linkage analysis[1] of the correlation matrix in Table I shows that Relationship With the President was the "typical representative" of the three job aspects. In other words, it was most correlated with other job aspects, on the average. Yet, its highest correlation was with Job Satisfaction. Freedom to Publish was the "distant cousin" in the triangle, having the lowest correlation with the other aspects.

However, the reader will recall that Freedom to Publish received

a significantly higher mean favorability score than did either of the other two job aspects. So, with a weaker correlation with, and a higher mean score than, the other two aspects, Freedom to Publish seemed to "stand more alone"--away from the others. Restraint on Freedom to Publish did not appear to be a problem for the average adviser in this study. Neither Relationship With the President nor over-all Job Satisfaction seemed to be critical with respect to this freedom.

Perhaps future studies emphasizing restraint on press freedom should deal with opinion statements specific to sensitive issues, such as pornography, obscenity, controversial actions by the college or university, etc. The four items dealing with publishing restraints in this study were of a general nature. Typical was the third item under the freedom to publish component: "Generally speaking, I have few problems with the administration over censorship and prior restraint." Perhaps an adviser might give a favorable rating to such an item by registering strong agreement. But what if he were asked an opinion about what might happen if a story about a heretofore, unencountered, controversial issue landed on his desk, and a student reporter was waiting for his decision on whether to public?

Finally, the author feels that too much information was requested in this study. Much could not be used. Some, perhaps, was not as critically relevant as first thought. Fewer information questions and more factors relevant to the adviser's role is advised, in retrospect.

The author feels, however, that this dissertation could serve as a valuable springboard in pointing future investigators to other possible factors that might prove to be valuable additions to the present one in studies of the campus press.

ENDNOTE

[1]L. McQuitty. "Elementary Linkage Analysis for Isolating Orthogonal and Oblique Types and Typal Relevancies," Educational and Psychological Measurement, XVII (1957), pp. 207-229.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

OPINIONNAIRE

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY • STILLWATER
School of Journalism and Broadcasting 74078
(405) 624-6354

November 2, 1982

Dear

One of our graduate students, Ms. Darunee Hirunuk, is beginning her research for a dissertation on some aspects of campus newspaper-administration relationships. I am directing her study, and am most anxious to assist her in any way possible.

I would consider it a personal favor if you would take a few minutes to complete the enclosed questionnaire. We'll be glad, of course, to send you a summary of the findings.

Thanks, and all good wishes for an excellent academic year.

Sincerely,

Harry Heath
Regents Service Professor

OKLAHOMA COLLEGIATE PRESS ASSOCIATION SURVEY
OF ADVISER-ADMINISTRATION RELATIONSHIPS

Your name: _____ Title _____
Name of College or University: _____ Address: _____
Name of your student newspaper: _____ Frequency: _____

I. Your educational and professional background

1. Undergraduate degree(s) held:
   a. BA with major in _____ and minor(s) in _____
   b. BS with major in _____ and minor(s) in _____
   c. Other (please specify): _____ with major in _____ and minor(s) in _____

2. Graduate degree(s) held:
   a. MA with major in _____ and minor(s) in _____
   b. MS with major in _____ and minor(s) in _____
   c. Ed.D. with major in _____ and minor(s) in _____
   d. Ph.D. with major in _____ and minor(s) in _____
   e. Other (please specify): _____ with major in _____ and minor(s) in _____

3. Please indicate below the professional positions you have held in journalism or other mass communication media:

Medium	Give Title You Held (Fill in blanks below)	Years Experience (Circle correct response)
Weekly newspaper	_____	1 2 3 4 5 More
Daily newspaper	_____	1 2 3 4 5 More
Radio	_____	1 2 3 4 5 More
Television	_____	1 2 3 4 5 More
Wire service	_____	1 2 3 4 5 More
Magazine	_____	1 2 3 4 5 More
Public Relations	_____	1 2 3 4 5 More
Other (please specify):	_____	1 2 3 4 5 More

4. How is your time divided on your current job?

Duty (Check those which apply)	Percentage of Full Load
_____ Publicity/public relations	_____
_____ Teaching	_____
_____ Advising student newspaper	_____
_____ Advising student yearbook	_____
_____ Other (please specify): _____	_____

5. How long have you served as an adviser on your present job? _____
   How long in previous adviser positions? _____

II. How You Feel About Your Present Duties

1. My job as adviser to the student newspaper is exciting.

strongly agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ strongly disagree
5 4 3 2 1

2. My job as adviser to the student newspaper is rewarding, i.e., it gives me a sense of self-satisfaction.

strongly agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ strongly disagree
5 4 3 2 1

3. In general, I am satisfied with the administration of this institution.

strongly agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ strongly disagree
5 4 3 2 1

4. My job requires me to be too involved in non-journalistic activities.

strongly agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ strongly disagree
1 2 3 4 5

III. Your Relationship With the President of Your Institution

1. In matters pertaining to the college newspaper and my job as an adviser, I feel that communication from the college president is

very good ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ poor
5 4 3 2 1

2. Regarding willingness to seek information from me in matters involving the newspaper, I rate the president

very high ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ very low
5 4 3 2 1

4. The president's ability to establish and maintain a good working relationship with me is

very good ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ poor
5 4 3 2 1

5. The president's ability to maintain a good working relationship with the newspaper staff is

very good ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ poor
5 4 3 2 1

6. On occasions when the president directs me to take some action regarding the newspaper, I find, for the most part, his directives to be

well advised ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ill-advised
5 4 3 2 1

7. Through written communication, the president keeps those with whom he works as well informed as possible.

strongly agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ strongly disagree
5 4 3 2 1

8. The president is good at providing channels for the expression of grievances.

strongly agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ strongly disagree
5 4 3 2 1

9. The president is efficient at solving problems through conferences, committees, and other group efforts.

strongly agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ strongly disagree
5 4 3 2 1

10. The president delegates enough responsibility to subordinates to permit them to do what they feel is necessary.

strongly agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ strongly disagree
5 4 3 2 1

11. The president creates a comfortable atmosphere when communicating with subordinates.

strongly agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ strongly disagree
5 4 3 2 1

12. The president encourages employees to speak up when they feel there is a breakdown in communications.

strongly agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ strongly disagree
5 4 3 2 1

13. In general, the president is adept at making important announcements at the right time and place.

strongly agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ strongly disagree
5 4 3 2 1

14. The president consistently shows a readiness to hear my suggestions regarding matters pertaining to the newspaper.

strongly agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ strongly disagree
5 4 3 2 1

15. The president expresses a personal interest in the newspaper's staff members.

strongly agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ strongly disagree
5 4 3 2 1

16. The president usually has time for conversation with me concerning the newspaper.

strongly agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ strongly disagree
5 4 3 2 1

IV. Views Regarding Censorship or Prior Restraint

1. The number of topics I've been told directly by the administration not to deal with is

very high ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ very low
1 2 3 4 5

2. Both the administration and I generally agree upon topics which would be inappropriate to publish.

strongly agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ strongly disagree
5 4 3 2 1

3. Generally speaking, I have few problems with the administration over censorship or prior restraint.

strongly agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ strongly disagree
5 4 3 2 1

Page 4

4. I have been "called on the carpet" after publication

often ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ rarely
1 2 3 4 5

V. Miscellaneous Information

1. Do you have a policy manual for your newspaper? yes ___ no ___

2. If yes, please check the content included below:

_____ News policy
_____ Editorial writing policy
_____ Letters to the editor policy
_____ Advertising policy
_____ Other (please specify): _____

3. Check below the sources from which your paper draws its financial support and give amounts received in AY 1981-82.

_____ Student activity fees $_____
_____ Advertising income $_____
_____ College/University budget $_____
_____ Other (please specify): _____ $_____

4. Have you rejected any advertising in the past year on the basis of ethical considerations or poor taste? yes ___ no ___

If yes, briefly describe the content of the ad and the basis for your rejection:

5. What is the principal title of the person who is designated as publisher of your newspaper? _____

6. Where do you get most of your information about media law and regulatory matters which might affect your student newspaper? _____

_____

7. Please indicate below the journalism-related honorary and professional groups with which you are affiliated:

_____ Society of Professional Journalists, Sigma Delta Chi
_____ Association for Education in Journalism & Mass Communication
_____ National Council of College Publications Advisers
_____ Journalism Education Assn. (Jr. College affiliate of AEJ/MC)
_____ Other (please specify): _____

8. Do you find any serious conflict between what is taught in journalism classes and what is practiced on your student newspaper?

yes ___ no ___

If yes, please briefly describe the conflict and your feelings about it in the space below. Add extra sheets if necessary.

9. Would you like to receive a summary of this survey? yes ___ no ___

APPENDIX B

LIST OF COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES PARTICIPATING IN THE OKLAHOMA COLLEGIATE PRESS ASSOCIATION

Bacone College

Bartlesville Wesleyan College

Bethany Nazarene College

Cameron University

Carl Albert Junior College

Connors State College

East Central University

Eastern Oklahoma State College

El Reno Junior College

Langston University

Murray State College

Northeastern Oklahoma A & M

Northeastern State University

Northern Oklahoma College

Northwestern Oklahoma State Univ.

Oklahoma Baptist University

Oklahoma City University

Oklahoma Christian College

Oklahoma City Community College

Oklahoma State Tech

Oral Roberts University

Rogers State College

Rose State College

Panhandle State University

Phillips University

St. Gregory's College

Sayre Junior College

Southeastern State University

Southwestern Oklahoma State University

Tulsa Junior College

University of Science and Arts in Oklahoma

University of Tulsa

Southwestern State University

APPENDIX C

NCCPA CODE OF ETHICS

NCCPA Code of Ethics *

As a member of the National Council of College Publications Advisers, I believe that my obligation is one of public trust which requires that, to the best of my ability, I

SHOULD BE:

A professional counselor whose chief responsibility is to give competent advice to student staff members in the areas to be served — editorial or business.

A teacher whose responsibility is to explain and demonstrate.

A critic who will pass judgment on the work done by the staff and who will commend excellence as well as point out fault.

An adviser whom staff members will respect for professional ability and my contribution to the college or university publications.

MUST:

Have personal and professional integrity and never condone the publication of falsehood in any form.

Be firm in my opinions and convictions while reasonable toward the differing views of others.

Be sympathetic toward staff members, endeavoring to understand their viewpoints when they are divergent from mine.

Seek to direct a staff toward editing a responsible publication that presents an unslanted report.

SHOULD:

Direct the staff or individual members whenever direction is needed but place as few restraints as possible upon them.

Never be a censor; but when staff members are intent on violating good taste, the laws of libel, or college or university principles, I should be firm in pointing out such errors.

Make suggestions rather than give orders.

Be available for consultation at all times.

Instill in the staff a determination to make the publication as professional as possible by being truthful and recognizing that fidelity to the public interest is vital.

Lead the staff to recognize that the publication represents the college or university, and that the world beyond the campus will in part judge the college or university by the product.

Encourage accurate reporting and see that editorial opinions expressed are based upon verified facts.

*Taken from Ethics and Responsibilities of Advising College Student Publications, by Lillian Lodge Kopenhaver and J. William Click 1978, pp. 38-43.

I realize that, in many instances, interpretation of a code of ethics becomes a matter of personal judgment, but I hold that a sincere effort to implement the spirit of these principles will assure professional conduct of credit to the profession and give honest service to the staff, the administration, the students, and the general public.

APPENDIX D

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF COLLEGE PUBLICATIONS ADVISERS

CODE OF PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS FOR ADVISERS

National Council of College Publications Advisers

Code of Professional Standards for Advisers

Adopted March 15, 1974

In this era when each day brings increasing pressures on the campus press and on advisers to college publications, it is more obvious than ever that these advisers need to be aware of this Code of Professional Standards for Advisers when selecting new persons for these positions.

I. ETHICS OF ADVISERSHIP

Ethics of the Professional Journalist

The student press should be viewed as a training ground for the profession. Therefore, student journalists, as the professional press, must be free to exercise their craft with no restraints beyond the limitations of ethical and legal responsibilities in matters of libel, obscenity and invasion of privacy.

The journalist serves the public best with timely, factual and complete news reports and gives his first duty to fairness and accuracy. Accordingly, the adviser should encourage the staff toward editing an intelligent publication that presents a complete and unbiased report, and that reflects accurate reporting and editorial opinions based on verified facts.

As his counterpart in the profession, the student journalist should be as free as other citizens to probe every facet of the campus community, nation and world without fear of reprisal.

The adviser should be able to lead the student journalist to a full knowledge and understanding of the ethics, and most importantly, the responsibilities of the profession of journalism. The adviser should, therefore, fully understand the nature and function of contemporary journalism.

Ethics of the Professional Educator

The adviser serves primarily as a teacher whose chief responsibility is to give valid advice to staff members in the areas to be served, editorial and business, and to be readily available to the staff. As a teacher, the adviser is a professional educator whose responsibility is to explain and demonstrate and who will be respected for his professional ability and integrity.

An academic community requires freedom to exchange information and ideas. The adviser should promote, initiate and sustain institutional policies which will provide students the freedom to establish

their own publications and to conduct them free of censorship or of faculty or administrative determination of content or editorial policy.

II. RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE ADVISER

To the Student

As a supervisor, the adviser must guide rather than censor. Availability of the adviser is of utmost importance. The adviser should let it be known that he or she is willing to give guidance, provide counseling and be available when needed. As a supervisor, the adviser helps students understand that the publication must come out on schedule, that deadlines must be met and that professional standards and ethics should be followed at all times. He uses the supervisory position to instruct, knowing that he is in a position to teach more and do a better job than when in a formal classroom setting.

It is important that the adviser be knowledgeable in the production techniques of the publication he advises. This role involves primary concern with the total quality of the publication rather than the day-to-day operation which is properly handled by student staff members.

As a counselor, the adviser has the responsibility to guide students to an understanding of the nature, the functions and the ethics of the student press. As a natural corollary, it is the adviser's job to have firm, professional contacts in the community in order to serve as an effective liaison between the professional media and the students, both in making available the best possible models and in providing career information.

As a teacher — and this is perhaps the most important job of the adviser — the adviser should provide instruction that will result in a better publication. The effective adviser tries to emphasize individualized instruction and allows for individual differences in the staffers' abilities to learn. He points out weak areas and works with students to strengthen their abilities in these areas. He makes his students confident of what they can do. He tries to shape their minds in the direction of a realistic career. Most important, the adviser must make sure that every staffer has an opportunity to develop as fully as possible his potential within the framework of the publication.

To the Administration

The adviser functions as a liaison with the administration for an understanding of the ethics and responsibilities of a free press and of student publications. In this role, the adviser must ensure full communication of administrative policy to student editors as well as communication to administrators of the duty of the institution to allow full and vigorous freedom of expression.

The adviser must ensure an honest understanding of each side and its objectives by the other and a belief in the principles of full exchange of information in all cases.

If he acts as business manager, the adviser should help maintain the fiscal stability of the publication and should ensure that the publication reaches its long-range financial goals.

As editorial adviser, his role is to encourage the student staff to be accurate, fair, complete, intelligent and reasonable in carrying out their publications functions.

As a consultant in printing, the adviser should provide both technical and fiscal advice so that the product attains high quality.

To Colleagues

The adviser is a member of the institution's professional staff with obligations to his profession, both as a college teacher and as an adviser.

As a liaison with regard to the role of the student press, he must function as an adviser to other faculty and college staff members about the nature and functions of the college press.

The adviser should establish a working relationship between the administration and student publications, never losing sight of the rights and functions of the student press and facilitating a clear understanding of them on the part of the administration.

The adviser should, at all times, remain a respected professional educator and in that role he can best provide, through example and through dialogue, an effective basis for the successful functioning of ethical student publications.

III. STANDARDS AND PREPARATION

Education

The ideal minimum standard for a publications adviser should be a master's degree in journalism. However, if he or she has a bachelor's degree in journalism and a master's degree in another field, or possesses a minor in journalism, it is recommended that the course work have included the following areas:

Newswriting-Reporting
Editing and Makeup
Communication Law
Photojournalism
Editorial Problems and Policies
Theory of Mass Communication
Advertising-Economics of the Media
History of American Journalism

Graphic Production Techniques
Advising Student Publications
Mass Media and Society

In addition to journalistic course work, the person assigned to advise student publications should have some experience in working in the professional media, particularly in the area of advisership. In this regard, the kind of professional experience is more important than the length of service and the following professional work is strongly recommended: reporting, editing, advertising and photojournalism.

The adviser could gain this experience in any number of ways and in varying lengths of time. It is strongly recommended that those involved in advising, both as new and as experienced advisers, gain or renew media work experience during summer breaks in the academic year.

A clear combination of both academic course work in journalism and professional media experience best fit an individual to be a competent adviser.

Related Experience

In addition to the basic academic and professional media background, certain other experiences are strongly recommended.

First, work on student publications as a staff member or editor is valid background experience, as is a graduate assistantship working with a student publication.

Second, an internship or course for advisers is recommended for those who have had experience, and a combination of these plus a professionally related seminar is recommended for those who have not had experience. All advisers should be strongly encouraged to take courses or serve internships at intervals in their careers; an adviser should strongly consider a refresher course every four years.

Advisers could participate in a short-term observation or exchange session with experienced advisers in their regions.

Third, professionally related seminars and membership in state, regional and national organizations and participation in their conferences should be an integral part of each adviser's activity during the year. He should be an active contributor to and participant in these meetings, which offer him the best opportunity for exchange with other advisers.

Fourth, advising experience, even at a high school with a high quality journalism program, is desirable in someone being considered for an advising position. This type of experience, if successful, could compensate for initial deficiencies in educational background.

VITA

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