

**JOURNALISM CAREER PREPARATION: OPINIONS  
OF SELECTED NEWSPAPER EDITORS VERSUS  
THOSE OF HEADS OF ACEJ-ACCREDITED  
NEWS-EDITORIAL JOURNALISM  
SEQUENCES**

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

The growth in journalism education from approximately 10,000 students in 1955 to more than 64,000 in 1976 has been described as perhaps the most significant development in higher education during the period.<sup>1</sup> Although the growth rate has stabilized recently, many students, educators, and professional journalists apparently believe this growth has caused both over-crowding in the job market and reduced standards in journalism education.<sup>2</sup>

Concern about the future of higher education in journalism apparently has become widespread. In 1977, Bugeja surveyed the previous ten years' issues of six major journalism periodicals. He found that articles published about journalism education had increased dramatically in recent years despite a general decline in the sizes of publications themselves.<sup>3</sup>

One article estimated that, as recently as 1965, there were more than twice as many news media job openings as there were students to whom journalism degrees were granted.<sup>4</sup>



Since then, however, a combination of factors has almost reversed the ratio of graduates to job opportunities in the news industry. From 1970 through 1976, enrollment skyrocketed each year. Many large publications went out of business and the circulation of others dwindled. The predicted deluge of new, smaller newspapers did not materialize. Furthermore, advances in newspaper technologies continually reduced production time required for many newspaper operations.<sup>5</sup>

While it is true that a number of special interest publications and suburban newspapers have begun publication, college-trained journalists consistently have outnumbered journalism job openings since 1974.<sup>6</sup> The magnitude of the problem faced by graduates seeking newspaper jobs was typified by Newspaper Fund statistics for the 1976 academic year. The Fund's survey showed that, of the 47.8 percent of the 1976 class who were news-editorial majors, only 52.8 percent found newspaper or wire service jobs by the spring of 1977.<sup>7</sup>

Although it appeared likely there would be wide regional variance in the newspaper job market, predictions based on statistics for 1977 and 1978 showed no improvement nationally in journalism job prospects in the foreseeable future.<sup>8</sup> Despite the fact that many journalism majors have found employment in non-journalism information processing of various sorts, the buyer's market situation outlined above made it

clear that even the best qualified students had little chance of exercising preference in geographical locations or job specializations in newspaper employment.

### The Problem

As a result of the foregoing observations, a study of current journalism education with the purpose of identifying areas of needed improvements seemed worthwhile. Before changes logically could be suggested, however, a consensus of what comprises the elements of adequate educational preparation for careers in newspaper journalism appeared to be useful.

It was assumed that one valid measure of these elements should come from the group of persons who would be most likely to hire graduates of journalism programs. It was further assumed that another measure of adequate journalism education should come from administrators of existing journalism programs.

Newspaper Fund statistics for 1977 identified the group of persons most likely to hire journalism graduates--editors of daily newspapers with circulations of fewer than 100,000 each.<sup>9</sup> The heads of schools and departments of journalism whose news-editorial sequences were accredited by the American Council on Education for Journalism (ACEJ), since it is

the only group recognized by the National Commission on Accrediting and HEW, were selected to represent the second group.

The problem investigated in this study was the need for improvement in journalism education. This was undertaken in the hope that the relationships between and among the agreement levels of the two sample groups might be valuable in the effort to formulate a prescriptive definition of ideal journalism education from which improvements in the offerings of journalism departments might be undertaken.

#### Purpose of the Study

If there ever was a time when the mere possession of a baccalaureate degree in journalism was sufficient to secure for its owner a newspaper job, that time has passed. As noted earlier, only those graduates with the best possible preparation will have substantial chances of successfully competing for the few newspaper jobs available. This study was undertaken in response to the apparent need news-editorial majors have for the finest educational experience possible.

The specific purpose of this study was that of helping future journalism students obtain the best possible college education by helping define what comprises such an experi-

ence. With this definition, it was hoped that journalism program planners might formulate and implement degree plans which would better prepare graduates for placement in the newspaper industry.

### Background and Value of the Study

Preliminary study of the literature about journalism education revealed one apparent point of substantial agreement among critics, educators, and professional journalists. Most agreed that promotive interaction among journalism educators and professional journalists was of utmost importance in the improvement of journalism education. It seemed doubly important, therefore, that this study should utilize data from both working professionals and journalism educators.

Bugeja noted that respected individuals and professional groups, from their various viewpoints, have made recommendations for improvements in journalism education.<sup>10</sup> Relatively few attempts have been made, however, to draw these ideas together and analyze them. In this light, it seemed clear that a comprehensive summary of the best current thought on improvements in journalism education was needed. The review of the literature which follows this chapter was an effort to present such a summary.

Bugeja further noted, with regret, that while articles about journalism education had increased the percentage of articles written by practitioners had decreased in recent years.<sup>11</sup> Therefore, new research pertinent to the question of what comprises adequate journalism education according to journalism practitioners seemed to merit investigation. The survey section of this study was an effort to obtain and analyze data from educators and practitioners which would provide a synthesis of the opinions about improvements in journalism education from both groups. The details of this segment of the study were outlined in a later chapter on methodology.

#### Definition of Terms

Several terms were used repeatedly throughout this study. In the interest of precision, the following definitions were applied to these terms:

1. Journalism major was treated as if it meant a journalism student in a news-editorial curriculum.
2. Accredited journalism program was used to denote news-editorial sequences accredited by the American Council on Education for Journalism.
3. American Council on Education for Journalism was abbreviated ACEJ.
4. SDX was used to represent the Society of Professional Journalists, Sigma Delta Chi.

5. ASNE was used to denote the American Society of Newspaper Editors.
6. ANPA was used to indicate the American Newspaper Publishers Association.
7. The Associated Press Managing Editors was represented by the term APME.

## FOOTNOTES

<sup>1</sup>John DeMott, "We're Doing a Better Job Than Ever," The Quill (September, 1975), pp. 16-19.

<sup>2</sup>Joseph M. Webb, "Technology: Nightmare," Journalism Educator (April, 1976), pp. 20-21.

<sup>3</sup>Michael J. Bugeja, "Periodicals Publish More About J-Education," Journalism Quarterly (Summer, 1977), pp. 382-385.

<sup>4</sup>DeMott, pp. 16-19.

<sup>5</sup>Webb, pp. 20-21.

<sup>6</sup>DeMott, pp. 16-19.

<sup>7</sup>"Papers Hire Large Share of J-Graduates," Editor and Publisher (April 9, 1977), p. 13.

<sup>8</sup>Dierdre Carmody, New York Times (March 6, 1977).

<sup>9</sup>"Papers Hire Large Share of J-Graduates."

<sup>10</sup>Bugeja, pp. 382-85.

<sup>11</sup>Ibid.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The literature about journalism education revealed that, from the beginning of the first four-year journalism education program at the University of Missouri in 1908 to the present, the content of higher education for journalism has been the subject of lively, often heated debate. At Missouri, in response to the urgings of the Missouri Press Association, the curriculum followed the model of the newsroom with students and faculty producing a daily newspaper. This represented a "practical" approach to journalism education which was emulated by a number of other schools for two decades.<sup>1</sup>

At Missouri, laboratory work in journalism skills was coupled with classes in English, composition, history, economics, sociology, psychology, philosophy, logic, government, finance, and newspaper management and publishing.<sup>2</sup> Although many schools including Missouri have followed this model to the present day, other trends not only have come to the fore, they have received blessings of highly respected figures



in higher education.

The years from the start of the Missouri program to 1925 were marked by rapid development of other approaches to journalism curricula development. Journalism professors were torn between the desire for academic respectability and the demands of the working press for graduates trained in the techniques of journalism.

By 1918, instruction in the social sciences was considered at many institutions to be basic to the educational preparation of journalists. Finding existing classes to be unsuited to the needs of journalists, a number of journalism schools tried to initiate their own survey classes in the social sciences.<sup>3</sup>

According to Dressel: "By the late 1920's, there was evident a trend toward thinking of journalistic education as a broad liberal education with a minimum of attention to techniques."<sup>4</sup>

Dressel further noted that the entire movement toward formalized higher education for journalists, as opposed to the "learning through experience" which had gone before, was in large measure the result of a move by members of the press to counteract the sensationalism of the day. The press had emerged as a powerful social force and had become an employer of college graduates. Therefore, colleges and

universities introduced journalism courses and programs which catered to the need for vocational specialization in the field of journalism.<sup>5</sup>

Willard G. Bleyer, one of the early trend setters in journalism education, defended specialized journalism training in these words:

As it has been found necessary to protect society against ignorant, unscrupulous quacks and shysters, is it not equally necessary to protect society and government against immature, self-educated, unscrupulous journalists?<sup>6</sup>

But Robert Maynard Hutchins, a veritable giant in his effect on higher education generally, in 1938, countered with:

So the shadiest educational ventures under respectable auspices are the schools of journalism. They exist in defiance of the obvious fact that the best preparation for journalism is a good education. Journalism itself can be learned, if at all, only by being a journalist.<sup>7</sup>

Hutchins already had noted in 1936 that:

My contention is that the tricks of the trade cannot be learned in a university, and that if they can be they should not be . . . they get out of date and new tricks take their place . . . Tricks can be learned only in the actual situation in which they can be employed . . . All that can be learned in a university is the general principles, the fundamental propositions, the theory of any discipline. The practices of the profession change so rapidly that an attempt to inculcate them may merely succeed in teaching the student habits that will be a disservice to him when he graduates.<sup>8</sup>

In his treatise on Universities: American, English,

German, Abraham Flexner, another strong influence on American higher education, gave his opinion of the quality of journalism education in 1930:

On a par with university faculties of cookery I place university schools of journalism . . . Journalism is not a profession in the sense in which law and medicine are professions.<sup>9</sup>

Frank Luther Mott noted in American Journalism that a growing sense of professionalism was one of the primary reasons for the initiation of journalism instruction. As well-educated men became more common in prominent positions in the news industry, particularly in the East, they began thinking of themselves as professionals. Therefore, the efforts to begin college courses in journalism grew steadily.<sup>10</sup>

Professional or not, the demand for formal instruction in journalism was deemed necessary in many quarters before 1900. The growth of the press as a popular institution coupled with changes and diversifications in the gathering and presentation of news created a growing demand for trained practitioners of these crafts. The vital importance to the public of the quality of these efforts caused responsible journalists and educators to seek ways of elevating the intellectual base upon which journalism was being practiced.<sup>11</sup>

By 1931, the American Association of Teachers of Journ-

alism (AATJ) displayed the depth of concern felt by many for quality journalism education by forming a committee of teachers and practicing journalists. The purpose of the committee was to help place journalism on a "dignified, professional basis." In its report to the AATJ convention, the committee speakers noted the need for a broad general education for informed work in journalism and declared that schools of journalism were necessary to supply this background in its relation to newspaper work.<sup>12</sup>

The emphases placed on "practical journalism skills" and a "broad general education"--and particularly the dividing line between these areas--has, almost from the start, been a subject of controversy. In 1931, its journalism education committee reported to the American Society of Newspaper Editors (ASNE):

There is considerable criticism on the part of many newspapers that the personnel of the faculties is not kept as fresh as desirable. The complaint is frequently made that too much emphasis is placed on pedagogy and teaching ability of instructors and too little on their actual practical knowledge of present-day newspapers. A lecturer or instructor who is thoroughly imbued with the practical aspects of the present-day newspaper office will impart his knowledge to his classes readily and need not be particularly learned in the principles of pedagogy and the art of teaching.<sup>13</sup>

Many informed educators and practitioners today feel it unfortunate that the ASNE committee's call for a moderate

solution to the differences of opinion on this matter went unheeded in many quarters. As a result, the controversy between proponents of academic respectability and those who promote immediate technical practicality in journalism education remains heated to this day. Curtis D. MacDougall, one of the most prominent observers of journalism education, wrote in 1947 that:

. . . journalism educators must destroy the idea that a broad liberal arts background is preferable to a special curriculum emphasizing courses in journalism . . . . As teachers of journalism we have to spend fully half our time teaching or reteaching these liberal arts illiterates the background they should have mastered long before coming to us . . . . Most of the faults that journalistic employers find in our product are faults of their liberal arts training which we just didn't have the time to correct.<sup>14</sup>

Thirty years later, in the preface to his book, Interpretive Reporting, MacDougall wrote:

All journalism is really reporting. New theories and methodologies are not going to change the basic responsibility of journalistic media to serve the cause of democracy which is why the free press exists.<sup>15</sup>

In the development of journalism curricula, Chilton R. Bush at Stanford University produced a counterpoint to the theme of MacDougall which has been accepted at many colleges and universities. At Stanford, in 1933-45, the Division of Journalism was a part of the college of Social Sciences and the degree was "Social Sciences: Journalism" rather than

simply "Journalism." Bush said it was the division's intention to do for the student something that would make him successful twenty years later, rather than just enabling him to start on a small daily.<sup>16</sup>

The Stanford University Register for 1938-1939 said that journalism education must provide:

1. General social intelligence
2. Specific knowledge of certain social, fiscal, industrial, and political principles and data
3. An intelligent comprehension of the role of the newspaper as a social institution
4. Some technical ability in journalism.<sup>17</sup>

Some observers of journalism curricula design have tended to categorize specific programs along a continuum which has, as its extremes, an ultimate emphasis on the importance or relative unimportance of "practical" journalism skills. At one extreme might be placed the Bush-inspired Stanford curriculum in which journalism was viewed as an important social institution subservient to the social and behavioral sciences. At the opposite extreme might be placed the curricula of universities such as Northwestern and Missouri at which the apparent philosophy was that journalism, practiced honestly and artfully, could be a shaper of behavior and society.

Quite naturally, as might be expected, most institu-

tions have adopted programs which represent a synthesis of these extremes. The American Council on Education for Journalism (ACEJ) has set, as its standard for accreditation, a curricular mix of one-fourth professional journalism classes to three-fourths social sciences, behavioral sciences and humanities.<sup>18</sup> While ACEJ programs represent only approximately 68 news-editorial sequences, Bob A. Carroll, Louisiana State University, found in his 1977 sample of 30 accredited and 30 non-accredited programs that:

The greatest differences occur in the Social and Behavioral Sciences and the Journalism Theory and History subdivisions where accredited schools required 2.60 and 1.63 more hours, respectively, than non-accredited schools . . . .

With few exceptions, news-editorial students in both the accredited and non-accredited programs received well-distributed instruction in the basics of reporting, editing, communications law, theory, history and responsibility of the mass media as recommended by ACEJ.

The Carroll study also showed there is no appreciable difference in the ratio of arts and sciences courses to journalism courses if accredited and non-accredited schools are compared as groups. Both groups required between 75 and 76 percent of the curricular load in the arts and sciences.<sup>19</sup> In 1977, the year of Carroll's study, 247 schools and departments of journalism were listed as offering the major in journalism.<sup>20</sup>

Although the Carroll study indicates that some uniform-

ity has developed in the curricula of schools offering journalism majors, it contains no data about the quality of instruction or the content emphases of the classwork in these programs. That these and other matters warrant attention in efforts to improve journalism education was shown by the dissatisfaction editors expressed in both the pilot study for this paper and an article entitled, "Editors of Smaller Newspapers See Weaknesses in J-Education" by Clifton O. Lawhorne in Journalism Educator.<sup>21</sup> Far from the Bush dictum that journalism education should prepare the student for responsibilities twenty years after graduation, Lawhorne found editors of smaller newspapers commenting that

. . . journalism education is being so oriented toward the theory and ideal that it fails to give students a solid grasp of reality, of the practical side of the profession . . . . They want graduates that journalism programs have prepared to jump right into major assignments . . . . What we want from these graduates and their schools is a solid knowledge of how to cover a story, how to write a story, how to lay out pages, how to use pictures well, how to write columns, and how to write editorials . . . . These graduates should also be able to have a working knowledge of the shop because they have to supervise make-up there . . . . I don't think a J-school grad should leave school without at least a basic knowledge of news, advertising, photography and production--at least one semester in each.

William R. Lindley, in Journalism and Higher Education:

The Search for Academic Purpose, stated that

Perhaps the most important developments thus far



for journalism and communication as a part of higher education have been the alliance with the social sciences and the introduction of communication research.<sup>22</sup>

So indeed it must have been because the controversy these developments have caused is so common as to have been given a name which is recognized throughout journalism education: "'Chi Squares' versus 'Green Eyeshades.'" This title, derived from the warring factions which supported a social sciences-behavioral sciences-communications research approach to the teaching of journalism versus those to whom the practical-professional emphasis was all-important has represented a schism within the ranks of journalism educators which remains unresolved. Theodore Peterson, at the University of Illinois, wrote in the late 1950's that

Communication is more than journalism writ large, and no dreary little journalism trade school is going to work a wondrous improvement by changing its designation from journalism to communications. The change must rest on a re-orientation of faculty thinking, on a re-orientation of the instructional program and on a distinctive approach to the subject matter of the courses.

Another danger is that while paying lip service to intellect in recruiting our faculties we will continue in silent worship of the great god Practical Experience. I have never quite fathomed the assumption that 20 years of newspaper experience automatically qualifies one for a faculty position in a major university--or a minor one, for that matter . . . .

On the other hand, I have never understood, either, the blind reverence in which some journalism administrators hold the Ph.D., which, after all, may be as much a testament to endurance as

anything else . . .

Yet another danger I detect is in our research, I cannot but feel that a good share . . . is busy work that contributes little more to a true understanding of our field than the inactivity of the 1920's and 1930's. Much of it proceeds from a preoccupation with method rather than a concern about significant questions that need answering. Much of it has an air of gimmickry about it.

Still another danger is that in both our research and in our graduate programs we will look too exclusively to the behavioral sciences for the answers to our questions and for patterns to our curriculums. If we do, we will see our world through a narrow window--one which at times indeed may be on the wrong side of the house.<sup>23</sup>

That something less than moderation has often been used in the attempt to gain academic respectability for journalism education prompted Jake Highton of Wayne State University to point out in Journalism Educator in 1976 that a Midwestern university had named as dean of its College of Communication Arts a chap who had no newspaper experience.<sup>24</sup> Highton further noted that the Association for Education in Journalism had elected a president who had never worked a day for any media.<sup>25</sup>

The trend toward an emphasis on theory and methodology which developed in the 1950's and early 1960's is apparently being turned around. Highton quoted Bill Fisher at Kent State University as saying that, "Today's kids are looking for someone to stimulate them. Students don't give a damn about a teacher's degrees," Fisher says. "They care about teaching."

Highton further noted that Fisher is optimistic that the trend is "back the other way--toward more experience." According to Highton, this trend is partly due to pressure from the "pros," such as the American Newspaper Publishers Association Foundation task force looking into journalism education.<sup>26</sup>

Right or wrong, indications from the pilot study for this study (see page 73) and the Lawhorne study were that editors of smaller newspapers were interested more in the practical rather than theoretical aspects of the knowledge of prospective employees. Whether this is necessarily "good" or "bad" for journalism is beyond the scope of this study. What became apparent from these and other sources in the literature on journalism education was that many editors were not satisfied with the extent and quality of skills of recent journalism graduates. This observation led to formation of several hypothetical questions about journalism education and the status and expectations of it held by journalists and journalism educators.

First, if editors are not satisfied with the skills of recent graduates, where should changes be made? What level of expertise do editors expect of journalism graduates? In what areas? Is the current four-year curriculum in journalism education adequate to the challenge of preparing gradu-

ates with adequate entry-level skills for newspaper employment? Should journalism education comprise a five-year professional program culminating in a master's degree? If it is unreasonable to expect students to invest five years in preparation for careers in newspaper journalism, how should existing programs be changed to prepare graduates better?

These questions all were given consideration in designing this study. Hopefully, the findings shed some light on the areas under consideration so that future efforts to improve journalism education may be more fruitful. It was hoped the findings would prove valuable to three groups with interests in journalism education:

1. Students might use the findings in tailoring their programs to the requirements of the job market.
2. Journalism educators might find the study helpful in their efforts to improve journalism programs and instruction.
3. Journalism practitioners might gain insight into the problems involved in providing students with adequate educational preparation for careers in journalism and thus be motivated to give aid to these efforts.

The major contention of this study, which was taken to be self-evident, was two-fold. First, it was contended that higher education in journalism should arm graduates with the skills necessary for employment in their chosen field. The second contention was that journalism education should

motivate students to try to improve the quality of the journalistic product to the mutual benefit of both society and the news industry.

Constraints imposed by the need to keep this study as timely as possible dictated certain limits in its scope. More journalism students were in news-editorial sequences than any other and most future job openings would most likely be found at daily newspapers in the under-100,000 circulation class.<sup>27</sup> Therefore, the data gathered in this investigation were those which related most directly to the educational preparation of news-editorial majors for jobs with daily newspapers in this circulation class.

Diversity of opinion expressed by various highly respected sources as to what should comprise adequate journalism education made it somewhat surprising that any coherence at all exists among journalism education programs. Questions about what should be taught, by whom, and to what ends have posed problems for program planners from the earliest days of journalism education. One must applaud efforts of dedicated administrators and faculty who, despite powerful influences, have synthesized journalism programs which have served students, the news industry, and the American public, as well as they have.

As noted earlier, such educational luminaries as Robert

Maynard Hutchins said in the 1930's that proper preparation for journalists was a "good education," which, in Hutchins' view, comprised a liberal education in the arts and humanities. Persons could learn to be journalists, Hutchins said, only by being journalists. This implies an apprentice system of learning the "trade" by doing it, based on a foundation of eternal verities. As head of the Commission on Freedom of the Press, Hutchins, and the commission in their report, A Free and Responsible Press, concluded, however, that news media in the 1940's provided little in the way of journalistic performance worth emulation by fledgling journalists.

Past and recent surveys of the opinions of many newspaper editors indicate that many want beginning journalists proficient in all basic journalistic skills the first day on the job. This implies a highly vocational approach to journalism education which would pass along the "state of the art" and very little more.<sup>28</sup>

The synthesis developed between these two extreme views of what should comprise proper preparation for careers in journalism is a testimonial to the foresight and adaptability of journalism program planners. Unfortunately, this compromise of three-fourths general studies and one-fourth "professional" journalism skills has become increasingly difficult to attain and maintain. Increases in the com-

plexity of both the technical skills required of practicing journalists and the problems of society about which journalists must report, coupled with the flood of students seeking journalism training, present educational problems which perplex many educators, editors and students.

To what loyalty should journalism educators bend their efforts? Should they try to equip students with skills which will aid them in gaining immediate employment or with knowledge and skill which will make them shapers of media quality? Should they try to instill in the students journalistic values which will make them watchdogs of the public interest? Should they promote the acquisition of the knowledge of the methods of science which will allow impersonal objective presentation of facts from which the public can draw its own conclusions? Should they inculcate value-based reportage which molds the awareness and opinion of the public?

These are all questions which will, depending upon the source, evoke affirmative answers. The practical problem emerges when an attempt is made to develop productive curricula in all these areas within the constraints of the traditional four-year undergraduate program. What classes should be added to the program and which subtracted? How, indeed, can journalism effectively be taught to the huge groups which populate many journalism classrooms? This

chapter is an attempt to draw together opinions and recommendations of persons cited in journalism literature regarding these and other questions.

### Critical Issues Facing Journalism Education

Any consideration of ways to improve journalism education must comprise components which deal, in some way, with what it should do, whom it should serve, to what ends it should serve and to what extent it should be expected to perform its service. Within this context, several critical issues face decision-makers in journalism education.

#### How Should Journalism Education Cope With the Flood of Students Seeking Admission to Journalism Classes?

Some observers, David Rubin among them, view the success of journalism education in attracting large numbers of students as the factor which has elevated the study of journalism at the college level to a "respectable status." In his article about the journalism education boom published in Change magazine in 1977, Rubin typified the viewpoint of a number of journalism educators who did not believe results of the enrollment growth have all been bad. Rubin said that, at



many institutions, journalism is the only area outside applied science that has grown in enrollment recently. Journalism education, according to Rubin, has become the "golden goose" of academia which lays tuition-filled eggs that help nourish many other emaciated departments. Rubin said many journalism educators believe the enrollment boom, and the Watergate affair, have established the legitimacy of journalism education. One journalism administrator, quoted by Rubin, said that journalism education is here to stay, whether the other departments on the campuses like it or not, and that any leveling off in years ahead will be at a much higher plateau.

Rubin quoted Thomas Engleman, executive director of the Newspaper Fund, as having said the job market for journalism graduates is not as dark as painted by many. "There is a job for anyone who wants a job (although one might have to move to Montana to claim it)." Engleman said he had data showing as many as 40 percent of the students majoring in journalism never seek employment in the field, noting that many students find journalism a useful major as preparation for entry into law or graduate schools.<sup>29</sup>

While noting the dangers of enrollment increases without commensurate increases in funding, John DeMott wrote for The Quill in 1975 that

Most mystifying of all the criticism (of journalism education) is that journalism schools are turning out too many graduates. The premise of such judgment appears to be that journalism professors should manipulate the educational system to match journalistic talent to the need for it . . . . Today's job market is going to reduce the number of students going into journalism as a profession without schools having to deny young people access to the education they want.

The peculiar thing, in retrospect, is that it has taken otherwise intelligent and perceptive people so long to realize that journalism is an intellectual pursuit of knowledge deserving the best efforts of a modern university, and that true excellence in preparation for our profession is indispensable to the successful functioning of a democratic society.<sup>30</sup>

Many journalism educators evidently believe the flood of students seeking admission to journalism programs must be reduced if quality instruction is to be maintained. DeMott himself set the tone of this argument when he wrote for

Journalism Educator that

If we don't curtail enrollment, our educational quality will suffer unless compensating means of operating more efficiently are created and put into use--promptly and rigorously, even ruthlessly, at times.<sup>31</sup>

DeMott made several recommendations aimed at promoting cost effectiveness in journalism education. Among these was the suggestion that journalism schools should employ the expertise of schools of business in performing systems analyses of the fiscal operation of journalism programs. DeMott said journalism educators should initiate studies by pro-

fessional organizations with the goal of adding equipment and personnel resources to the assets of journalism programs. To enlist the aid of off-campus professional groups, DeMott recommended that journalism schools provide continuing education in the form of institutes and seminars for working professionals.

A study conducted at Syracuse University by Becker and Schulte in 1977 indicated journalism enrollment is more than temporary. Becker and Schulte surveyed more than half the journalism schools which offer four-year journalism programs. They found that a majority of the heads of schools with more than 300 students said they expected enrollment increases at the current rate or greater for at least three years. Two major reasons were given for this anticipated growth. Some believed any losses in enrollment due to perceptions of a tight job market in the field would most likely be offset by increases in students taking journalism classes despite intentions to enter other fields. Other respondents noted that journalism education offers one of the few remaining general education (non-specialist) degree plans which can be applicable to a great many occupations.<sup>32</sup>

Contributing factors aside, comparative statistics published in The Masthead in 1977 by Curtis D. MacDougall reveal the severity of the problem of high journalism enrollment in

relation to the profession it serves.

There are 164 approved law schools with 117,451 students to be absorbed into a field of 425,000 lawyers in the U.S.A.

There are 121 medical schools with 56,244 students to be added in time to a total of about 400,000 doctors in the U.S.A.

There are 60 dental schools with 21,012 students who will join the nation's 124,659 dentists.

There are 312 journalism major programs with 54,151 students to be absorbed into a job market of about 40,000.<sup>33</sup>

Questions concerning what attracts such numbers of students to journalism education, and what sort of students journalism attracts, have prompted considerable research. In a study conducted at the University of Kansas in 1976, Del Brinkman and Donald Jugenheimer sought to determine factors which had major influence on students' decisions to major in journalism. They found the first factor was exposure to journalism in high school.

Most important to students' final decisions to major in journalism was perceived job or career opportunities. In order of decreasing importance, other factors listed were first college journalism course, liking for journalism faculty, journalism job experience, influence of friends or peers, exposure to high school journalism and a liking of writing.

When specific sequence choice was taken into account, news-editorial majors most frequently said the most import-

ant reason for choosing the journalism major was that they enjoyed writing. Career opportunity was listed most frequently by advertising and broadcast majors and photojournalism majors simply said they "enjoyed" photojournalism.

In their report, Brinkman and Jugenheimer said the implication is clear that, by manipulating the influential factors, schools could continue or cease to attract students.<sup>34</sup>

From the Brinkman-Jugenheimer study, it can be seen that, despite the bleak job market forecast for beginning journalists, students in the survey believed they had better chances of finding employment in journalism than in other fields. From this, the direct implication can be drawn for occupational related instruction. This evidence apparently supports Highton's contention in Chapter I that schools of journalism should not slight the practical aspects of journalism education.

In sheer numbers, journalism education and, ostensibly, the field of journalism, obviously is attracting a giant share of students. But what of the quality of the students? James Reston wrote in 1967 that media have a difficult time attracting and keeping the nation's most serious and intelligent students because of increasing competition from universities, foundations, the law, government and business.

Reston warned that many intelligent young persons no longer are eager to work for newspapers where they have to put up with "the endless grind of daily deadlines."<sup>35</sup> In 1973, Richard Gray, journalism chairman at Indiana University, told a conference of journalists and educators that, although there is no lack of students, honor students are scarce and that first-rate minds should be recruited. Gray and others noted that many students no longer seek employment at metropolitan dailies because they do not care for the life style in larger U.S. cities.<sup>36</sup>

In 1976, Fred Fedler and Phillip Taylor released the findings of their study which dealt with the question, "Does journalism attract quality students?" These workers noted that, in 1974, only 60 of the 3,598 National Merit Scholars listed journalism as their major. In their study of data obtained from the Florida Twelfth-Grade Test (FTG), they found journalism students scored only slightly above average in the verbal and quantitative aptitude sections of the FTG. Their survey of juniors and seniors at a Florida university revealed that

1. High school seniors who selected journalism did not score better on the FTG than did non-journalism majors.
2. Journalism students had no higher GPA than other students.
3. Journalism students took more electives in

economics, U.S. history and political science than other majors.

4. Journalism students typed no better than the average.
5. Significantly more journalism majors had worked on high school and college publications.
6. Journalism majors were no more involved in the campus and community than the average.
7. Journalism students scored significantly better than average on grammar tests.
8. All groups scored poorly in spelling.<sup>37</sup>

The foregoing suggests that journalism planners are faced with a multi-faceted problem. On the one hand, journalism enrollment is swelled with students, many of whom have only moderate aptitude for assuming career positions in the field. Many others have no intention whatever of pursuing careers in journalism. Few cream-of-the-crop students, however, are attracted to journalism. In addition, program planners are pressured to produce students capable of professional performance the first day they work for newspapers, while their responsibility to the public welfare demands that they equip students with both motivation and the capability of improving media quality.

In 1975, Curtis MacDougall stated that

It's taking money under false pretenses from serious minded, professionally oriented students to louse up their classes with others who are just

there hoping to get by well enough to qualify for a degree . . .

It should be apparent that the best faculty in the world, with the finest equipment, can't possibly handle the huge enrollment that now exist. As much as possible, professional journalism instruction should be individualized . . . There must be personal contact between teacher and student. You can't teach most journalism courses effectively by the lecture method, certainly not to hundreds at a time.

For the problem of overcrowding in journalism schools, MacDougall suggested two remedies: First, since journalism is as important to American democracy as any of the other professions, and since it is essential that its products be of the highest possible quality, journalism schools should be elevated to independent status, in which the schools have complete control over admissions, faculty appointments and curriculum and degree plans. Second, MacDougall suggested that schools of journalism could teach two curricula, teaching journalism to students who want to become journalists and teaching about journalism to the thousands who do not plan to enter the profession.<sup>38</sup>

In their text on media responsibility to the public, Rivers and Schramm state that media might accelerate the professionalization of the practice of journalism by upgrading salaries, professional recognition for jobs well done, initiative and freedom accorded their staffs. These authors noted that, while workers in the communications industry are no



longer notoriously under-paid, their salaries are considerably below those paid by businesses hiring graduates with scientific or business training.<sup>39</sup>

In the same vein, Mort P. Stern, dean of the School of Journalism at the University of Colorado, urged a conference of editors and educators to look not only at what they expected of journalism graduates but also to consider what the graduates expect from schools and newspapers.

The young people who are graduating from our schools today are not quite like the earlier generations who accepted with little question the conditions that existed on the job.

They want and expect imaginative leadership from their on-the-job supervisors. And they expect that leadership to be directed toward treating the social problems in a way that serves the public interest.<sup>40</sup>

Several implications for journalism education and the news industry can be drawn from these comments by Rivers, Schramm and Stern. First, if journalism education is truly to be responsive to needs and desires of its students, journalism coursework should be presented in the context of the responsibility of the media to the public. Second, if media products are to be improved in the public interest, the industry should be ready to provide rewards in terms of recognition and salary, which will attract the most intelligent and talented students to journalism education and the profession.

Many observers have attributed the rise in journalism enrollments during the Seventies to some glamorized concept of the news industry generated by the Watergate affair and the motion picture portrayals of the news "heroes" of that period. But Professor Paul V. Peterson, the official chronicler of journalism enrollment statistics for the AEJ, made the observation in 1977 that many among the youth of America were being drawn to journalism as a way of "changing the world" as early as 1970.<sup>41</sup> Within this context, concern expressed by even those students who do not plan to enter journalism careers presents a strong argument against denying journalism instruction to all who desire it.

Are not citizens who are informed and appreciative of the efforts of a responsible news industry important to the continued improvement of news media products? Arguments along this line have been brought forward in support of MacDougall's suggestion that a second curriculum, teaching about journalism, might be justified, both as a method of relieving the pressures on professional journalism education, and as a way of promoting public awareness of the importance of responsible news media performance.

According to David Rubin, some college administrators have responded to the growing student demand for journalism instruction by adding faculty in journalism programs. Al-

though this has made journalism education one of the few areas of fluidity left in the higher education job market, faculty additions are apparently the response of a minority of administrators because student-teacher ratios in journalism education climbed from 24:1 in 1970-71 to 33:1 in 1974-75.<sup>42</sup> Apparently the simple strategy of adding to faculty teaching loads is a more common approach to dealing with high enrollment than is the adding of new faculty.

Another tactic for dealing with increased enrollments is gaining widespread acceptance nationally. Many schools are adopting the simple expedient of setting limits on enrollment in the face of increased "consumer" demand. Others are establishing entry requirements for journalism education programs which exceed the general requirements of their colleges and universities for entry into most other programs.

In Journalism Educator, April 1977, Margaret G. Davidson of the University of Wisconsin-Oshkosh detailed the far-reaching decision by the administration of the Wisconsin higher education system to strictly limit the growth of journalism education in that state. Some of the findings which prompted this decision, and some of the questions it raised, follows:

A Department of Academic Affairs report showed that programs at current levels were filling the job market needs of the Wisconsin area and quoted sta-

tistics from the Bureau of Research and Statistics of the Wisconsin Department of Industry, Labor and Human Relations which were interpreted to mean that there was a chronic surplus of communications specialists in the job market and that the state of Wisconsin news industry would need only 2,240 new journalists between 1970 and 1980, while the system was graduating almost 400 each year.

The Department of Academic Affairs stated that

1. It "emphatically discourages further growth in existing journalism programs."
2. No new programs be added to the system.
3. Some campuses should consider combining journalism with other mass communications programs.
4. Plans for ACEJ accreditation should proceed only with central administration approval.
5. Since no institution had made a case that there is currently an unserved need in its service area for additional communications specialists, no provision should be made for preparing them.
6. Full support should be given to those aspects of journalism programs which serve the non-specialist student.

Davidson noted that despite a "notorious" over-supply of English teachers, no regulations were imposed on the number of secondary education majors hoping to teach English and raised the following questions:

1. Should a state system limit journalism enrollments when similar action is not being taken in other areas despite statistics which indicate there is an over-supply of applicants in every area which draws from college graduates?
2. To what extent should schools decide for their students their course of studies?
3. Might not an increasing need for non-news journalism jobs change the employment picture for journalism graduates?
4. When a department is training any prospective journalist, should it not be encouraged to strive to meet those accreditation standards many feel represent marks of excellence?<sup>43</sup>

In a paper prepared for presentation to the American Federation of Negro Affairs in 1977, Samuel L. Adams of the University of Kansas outlined results of a study he conducted under auspices of the Gannett Newspaper Foundation. He dealt with considerations of the controversy surrounding the use of entry and exit-level English proficiency examinations by schools of journalism. Questionnaires were sent to schools of journalism which had more than 500 majors each in 1975. Of the 42 institutions, 31 responded. Among the findings were the following:

Eight of the 31 responding schools, 26 percent, require that transfer students entering journalism pass an examination if they are from non-accredited programs.

Twenty-three percent require that students completing pre-journalism at their own institutions pass an examination before entry is granted.

Eight of the 31 responding schools that use exams for entrance to either journalism classes or to the journalism programs use the test results only as diagnostic rather than screening tools.

Half the respondents said they believed entrance examinations should be required and all but one of these said such exams should be administered during the freshman or sophomore year.

Eighty-seven percent of the schools surveyed are publicly funded colleges and universities.<sup>44</sup>

That a wide variety of approaches is taken to application of screening tests was evident in written responses to the Adams survey. The following were selected as representative of this variation.

Indiana University--uses a computerized spelling and grammar test which students may take as

many times as they wish until the desired standard is reached. Students must spell out correctly 45 of 50 words before a grade for the beginning reporting course is issued.

At Penn State University, students who score poorly on the entrance examination are advised to consider withdrawal from the beginning writing course. The test, according to Penn State spokespersons, is not, however, used as a disqualification.

Students may not enter the journalism program at the University of Minnesota until minimal levels on the Minnesota English Test are met.

A spokesperson for the University of Nebraska said at the time of the study that plans were being made to develop a series of tests for the sophomore year programmed to certify minimum standards to be met by those permitted to continue.

In a 1977 article in Editor & Publisher, Robert U.

Brown quoted Ralph Darrow, associate professor at Kent State University, as having said that journalism school enrollment at KSU had grown from 318 in 1967 to 1,000 in 1975 with no increases in operating budget, space or faculty. In view of this, Darrow said KSU had instituted enrollment restrictions aimed at maintaining quality instead of quantity in journalism education. With "extreme reluctance" due to state funding based on the number of students enrolled, a journalism faculty committee set limits of 150 new students each year, Darrow said.

Since 1977, students have been admitted to the KSU journalism program in accordance with the following conditions:

High school students with ACT scores of 26

or higher have been admitted without meeting further criteria, provided the student accumulated a C+ average in the first 48 hours of college work.

Students have had to pass a typing test with a net score of 30 words per minute.

Students must have compiled 48 hours of college work with a grade point average of at least 2.5.

Students must have passed a class in Principles of Economics and three natural or physical science classes.<sup>45</sup>

From the foregoing it can be seen that three different strategies, with variations, are commonly used to deal with problems resulting from increases in journalism enrollment. Some schools are trying to make increases in journalism school resources commensurate with the growth in enrollment. Others are trying to limit enrollment with new-student quotas and/or quality-based entrance screening devices. Still others apparently are trying to maintain "open door" admissions without increases in budgets or faculties.

Compliance with recent AEJ accreditation guidelines results in an indirect enrollment limitation for schools with frozen budgets. The AEJ recommends that no skills laboratory course involve student teacher ratios higher than 15:1.<sup>46</sup>

What Should Journalism Education be Doing  
About Decreases in Student Language Skills?

In August 1976, the Los Angeles Times published a

series of articles about the startling decline in academic achievement of American students during the previous decade. According to education writers Jack McCurdy and Don Speich, this decline crossed virtually all educational levels and most academic disciplines and was of an unprecedented magnitude in American history. Further, the declines, as reflected in a wide range of test results, showed signs of getting worse.<sup>47</sup>

McCurdy and Speich pointed out that, paradoxically, the decline in academic achievement had been accomplished by an inflation in the grades issued to students. At the high school and college levels, they said "A" and "B" grades have become the common currency for work which probably would have earned "C" grades ten years earlier. Further, the "C" grade is relatively rare and "D's" and "F's" are virtually non-existent.

Thus, the knowledge that students can demonstrate on objective tests is declining, but the subjective ratings of students by teachers are producing higher grades than at any time on record.

And, although appearing anomalous at first glance, the two phenomena are inexorably linked.

Together, they represent an apparently unique occurrence in educational history. They provide a complete picture of what transpired in schools and colleges during the last decade and how grade in-



flation at least partially blinded many to the reality of the achievement decline.<sup>48</sup>

While these are sweeping and serious charges, the writers apparently documented their work. They cited corroborating research evidence obtained by such respected figures as David Wiley of the University of Chicago and Frank Armbruster and Paul Bracken at the Hudson Institute in New York, among many others. In underscoring the trend, the writers quoted James Gray of UC-Berkeley's School of Education as having said the loss in the ability to write is a loss in the ability to be educated.

After testing most of the likely causative agents and finding them insufficient, McCurdy and Speich concluded the major cause of decline in scholastic achievement was the trend toward reduced required work in the basic skills in favor of more electives. They cited the exception that tests the rule in that the first three grades in public schools have not suffered declines of the magnitude of later levels. Like the elementary grades' achievement levels, those within the disciplines of science actually have risen in contrast to the trend. The authors further remarked that, generally, the two areas had not been affected by either grade inflation or elective substitution.

Whether the educational picture is as dark as McCurdy and Speich painted it is beyond the scope of this study.

What is important is that many media managers in charge of hiring journalism graduates are concerned about apparent declines in language skills.<sup>49</sup>

David Rubin wrote in 1977 that the major problem facing education for journalism was not so much the overcrowding of the field but the reduction in language skills. Rubin noted that, unlike the days when it safely could be assumed that most students entered journalism as a result of a talent, or at least an interest in writing, today's students enter journalism study for a variety of reasons. He said many students don't really like to write and have been poorly prepared to write by secondary schools. Moreover, many students avoided almost all writing in college by selecting from the smorgasbord of courses made available to them by many journalism departments. The wide array of classes on use of media hardware and communications theory, Rubin said, too often makes it possible to push fundamentals aside.<sup>50</sup>

No matter where fault lies, Rubin said, editors who hire journalism graduates hold the schools responsible for declines in language skills. Rubin quoted Ronald Einstoss, publisher of the Visalia, California Times-Delta, as having said editors he surveyed in 1974 believed the schools were not furnishing students with the tools they expected. Einstoss said too many applicants "lack a working knowledge of

the English language" and that "some can't even type." Einstoss also noted that half the graduates seeking jobs in his office thought a "board of supervisors" was plural. He said their spelling is atrocious, that fewer than half could spell such commonly used words as accommodate, commitment, and judgment.

Rubin quoted Hillier Krieghbaum, past president of the AEJ, as having said there always have been writing problems, but they are more acute now, since the nonreading TV generation is hitting the colleges in full force. The AEJ officially recognized the communications skills problems among college students by establishing a committee on language standards at its 1976 convention. Rubin quoted committee chairman, David Grey, of San Jose State University, as saying the AEJ was "sick and tired of editors bitching about language skills and making journalism education the scapegoat." Grey hoped newspapers and other media around the country could be persuaded to investigate the quality of public school language instruction so that students would not come to college so ill-prepared.

What are schools and departments of journalism doing to cope with the lower language skills of students seeking entrance into journalism education? Apparently, the strategy chosen at many institutions is the same as that used to deal

with overcrowding. In 1977, Warren K. Agee wrote that

Grammar proficiency tests, required for admission either to schools or to news writing courses, are common as the ability to deal competently with words becomes a pressing concern.<sup>51</sup>

Since August 1974, the School of Journalism and Mass Communications at the University of Minnesota has required a passing grade on the Minnesota English Test and successful completion of three pre-journalism classes before entry into the journalism major has been granted. The required pre-journalism classes are Introduction to Mass Communications, Visual Communications, Reporting or Principles of Advertising or Beginning Photojournalism. Twenty-nine months after the program was initiated, statistics revealed that approximately 30 percent of the pre-journalism majors had been lost to attrition.<sup>52</sup>

A number of articles in the professional journals cite positive results from use of communications skills achievement tests coupled with remedial language skills laboratories. Two examples which follow are typical.

West Virginia University has joined North Carolina, Wisconsin and a host of other schools requiring acceptable scores on diagnostic English examinations as a condition for admission to journalism programs or to specific entry-level journalism classes. The tough West Virginia test comprises 100 items--30 for spelling, 35 for punctuation, and 35 for

grammar usage. Students who score less than 70 percent on the test are denied admittance to the journalism degree program and to journalism classes which require beginning reporting as a prerequisite.

WVU students who fail the entry-level test, but are still interested in pursuing journalism, are referred to the Writing Skills Lab (WSL). The WSL is not a quickie course designed to simply help students pass a given test.

It's a tough, in-depth study of grammar, spelling and punctuation, and it's run by a full-time professor in the School of Journalism who has had substantial media experience and who teaches other courses in the school.<sup>53</sup>

WSL work centers on E. L. Callahan's Grammar for Journalists and comprises one two-hour session each week for 12 or 13 weeks. Exams are given at the end of each class session on spelling and the lecture materials from the class.

Before each class, instructors discuss upcoming sessions and prepare lecture materials. Any inconsistencies concerning English usage among the instructors are worked out at that time.<sup>54</sup>

In the fall of 1976, 54 students who had flunked the English test and had taken the WSL course took the test a second time. Of the 54, 49 passed and the mean score for the group increased from 56 percent to 76 percent. More than 90 percent of the students who took the WSL in 1975-76 said it improved their performance in the first writing course and 63 percent said they would advise their

friends to take the class.<sup>55</sup>

At Ohio State University, students enter one of three levels of beginning English courses based on an English skills test score. The school is considering an English test to be administered before students are graduated.<sup>56</sup>

The University of Alabama administers a diagnostic test to identify problem areas to be addressed in the beginning reporting course. Some students are advised to enroll in the university's writing lab. The test is given again at the end of each semester to check improvement. The School of Communications was (at the time of the Adams study) instituting school-wide courses to be required for entry into all professional courses in each department of the school.<sup>57</sup>

At the University of North Carolina, students entering the school must pass the English proficiency test to be graduated. This policy, school spokespersons believe, allows some students with substandard skills in spelling and grammar to enter the school of journalism, identify particular problems, and improve weaknesses.<sup>58</sup>

In answer to the question, "Does everyone who meets the criteria to enter college, and who passes English courses, deserve the opportunity to study undergraduate journalism?" the Adams study evoked a variety of responses. Terry Hynes, writing coordinator at California State-Fullerton, said that

entry level tests would "permit the department to stabilize enrollments using some kind of quality criteria."<sup>59</sup>

Claron Burnett, chairman of the Department of Agricultural Journalism at the University of Wisconsin-Madison, answered, "Yes. We view our role as teaching, not keeping students out." Many others, noting declining communication skills achievement scores and inflated grades, answered "no" to Adams' query. David B. Witaker said that journalism entry tests are used at Western Kentucky University to "weed out the casual 'shopper'."<sup>60</sup>

In September 1976, the Department of Communications at California State-Fullerton instituted an English Usage Test (EUT) comprising 85 multiple-choice items covering three areas:

1. Precise use of language including word and brevity of expression (30 items).
2. Spelling (25 items).
3. Grammar and punctuation (30 items).

Passing grades on the test have been required as prerequisite to entry into both upper and lower division writing classes.

California State-Fullerton faculty have found the test a "useful predictor" of performance in the department's writing classes. In addition, the test has helped students recognize and correct language weaknesses and has helped the department stabilize enrollments with some elements of

quality, rather than simply quantity, criteria.<sup>61</sup> At California State-Fullerton, 20 percent of the students who wanted to enter the beginning communications course in the fall of 1976 were excluded because of poor scores on the EUT.<sup>62</sup>

In 1976, William Trombley quoted Professor Harold Nelson, University of Wisconsin School of Journalism, as having said that, at the University of Wisconsin, a student must pass a test covering grammar, spelling, punctuation, and English usage before moving into the pre-journalism writing course. About 50 percent of the sophomores who take the test fail. "This is our main instrument for cutting down on the numbers. A lot of kids just go away. The motivated ones stick with it and make it."<sup>63</sup>

Trombly noted that some educators cautioned against screening tests. Edward Bassett, director of the University of Southern California School of Journalism, said that

You've got to recognize that English Proficiency is pretty low across the board. You might lose some pretty good prospects that way. Kids will select themselves out as we do a better job of counseling.<sup>64</sup>

In addition to Bassett's rather mild statement, arguments made of sterner stuff have emerged in the controversy concerning worth (and legality) of screening tests. In his study, prompted by the proposal at the University of Kansas to institute screening tests, Samuel L. Adams noted that



While proficiency exams such as the one recommended by the KU journalism school committee may reasonably predict which students will do well, that exam cannot measure potential. Potential and predictability, while related, are not identical . . . Any requirement that students pass a test to gain admission to journalism may be unwise.<sup>65</sup>

Adams quoted Hunter A. Breland as follows:

In summary, top performers on tests tend to perform at a lower level than their test scores would lead you to expect, and the low scorers perform better than their scores predict . . . They do fail to predict the performance of 12 percent of the students examined.<sup>66</sup>

According to Adams, some have hypothesized that the problem of declining writing ability among American students may not be due to ability but to a lack of specialized instruction. At San Jose State University, it is believed by some, according to Adams, that considerable improvements in students' writing skills are due to a remedial English program which features well-directed instruction in sentence elements, arrangement, recognition, rhetoric, special punctuation, spelling, and use of sources and documentation.

As the use of screening tests becomes more widespread, the discriminatory aspects of the practice become frequent subjects of controversy. Milton G. Holmen and Richard F. Doctor of the University of Southern California at Los Angeles stated that,

. . . Tests designed for Caucasians may discriminate against minorities . . . Tests may be assumed

to measure innate, rather than acquired, characteristics . . . They cannot consider future behavior or performance . . . Test scores may influence teacher expectation regarding student potential.<sup>67</sup>

From the experiences of all manner of institutions which have used quantitative testing as admission criteria, it has become obvious that the results of such tests must be used circumspectly if civil rights of students are not to be infringed upon. Adams noted that a survey of 10 schools with accredited sequences in news-editorial journalism conducted by the University of Kansas had determined that the majority opinion was that screening tests should be used primarily as diagnostic tools.

Literature about journalism education suggests that three major strategies are used in dealing with communications skills deficiencies among incoming journalism majors. Some institutions very simply set standards of English-use proficiency and deny entry to students who cannot demonstrate the minimum level on tests which supposedly measure achievement in this area. Others use the test to inform students of their language-skills deficiencies and leave to the student the responsibility of remedial work. Still others use the tests to indicate deficiencies and refer deficient students to some organized form of remedial work. Among the latter, some institutions employ remedial work outside the

department of journalism and others designate specific classes in departments of English.

The ACEJ, in its pamphlet on accreditation of journalism sequences, recommends that students include in their programs "wide study in such fields as . . . English, languages and literature" in addition to the basic elements of factual writing and editing set in a strong background of liberal arts studies.<sup>68</sup> In addition, the ACEJ is currently investigating ways of establishing communications with high school students and faculty to advise them about the requirements for language skills in journalism education.

How Can the Increasing Complexity of  
Modern Society Upon Which Journalists  
Must Report be Dealt With by Journalism  
Education?

Informed, intelligent reportage of the proceedings about which American citizens need to be informed demands, at once, specific knowledge about highly specialized subject matter and the ability to render it meaningful to the general public. This presents an obvious immediate problem for journalism education. How specific and how general should journalism education be?

Some journalism program planners have concentrated upon

areas which, in their view, need particular attention in the preparation of beginning journalists. Since 1968, the University of Wisconsin-Madison has offered an interdisciplinary master's program to train environmental communicators.

Stated purposes of the program are threefold:

1. To identify students with aptitude for environmental communication.
2. To enhance abilities to help translate ecological concepts into public action.
3. To prepare for positions in what might be called the environmental communications "eco-system."

According to spokespersons for the Wisconsin program, the more than 60 graduates have been "well placed" in ecologically concerned organizations. These persons, and the activity which went into their preparation, have created the beginnings of a literature for the field.<sup>69</sup>

Obviously, the Wisconsin master's program has no direct bearing on undergraduate news-editorial sequences, other than the spill-over to faculty and student thinking. The Wisconsin model, however, might be worthy of the study of undergraduate program planners who perceive an inter-disciplinary approach to journalism education.

Due to widespread criticisms of journalism graduates' failure to understand economic systems, and their inability to relate business developments and problems to readers, the University of Missouri at Columbia (UMC) Department of Economics recently instituted a specialized economic analysis

course for journalism majors developed by Professor Gerald E. Auten. The course not only has been awarded the International Paper Company Foundation Award in Economic Education, but was given a student evaluation score which placed it in the 99th percentile among all courses at UMC.

The course was designed as second-level to follow the general economics course required of journalism students at UMC. Rather than focusing on theory and policy from a general standpoint, the economic journalism course presents such issues as the sources and meaning of data and institutional policy details. Organized around a series of important economic issues, economic analyses are related to topics with generous use of case studies. Four major divisions comprise course content:

1. Basic economic concepts, sources and background.
2. Interpretation of corporate financial reports.
3. Topics in macroeconomics.
4. Application of basic economic principles and concepts to selected current issues.

Strong emphasis is placed on economic analysis of news stories and the use of various sources of information related to economics, as they apply within the following course outline.

Part

- I. Introduction to Economic Journalism
  - A. Review of Basic Economics
  - B. Sources for Economic Journalism
  - C. Major Schools of Economic Thought in the U.S.

- II. Accounting and Financial Statements
- III. Topics in Macroeconomics
  - A. Review of Basic Macroeconomics
  - B. Inflation: Historical Perspectives, Measurement, Problems, Types, and Policies
  - C. Unemployment: Historical Perspectives, Measurement, Types, and policies
  - D. The Trade-off Between Inflation and Unemployment
- IV. Applications to Major Current Issues
  - A. The Economics of Crime
  - B. The Economic Analysis of Pollution
  - C. The Energy Crisis
  - D. A Strategy for Using Economics in Journalism

Articles from the Wall Street Journal are used extensively throughout the course, and students are exposed to the Journal stock and bond tables in great depth. Other specific topics in the course include Keynesian, Monetarist, Galbraithian, Radical and Institutionalist schools of economic thought, interpretation of profit-loss statements, construction of the Consumer Price Index, the Wholesale Price Index and the GNP. Through all these presentations, the role of the press is emphasized.<sup>70</sup>

Although many institutions are hard pressed to maintain current programs in the face of tight budgets and overflow enrollment, it has become obvious that journalism education must deal in some way with the pressing social issues which have emerged since World War II. The Wisconsin and Missouri models, and others which treat such issues as the energy crisis provide steps in the direction accepted as progressive.

After serving as a "catalyst speaker" for a seven-state journalism symposium in the fall of 1974, Ronald Einstoss concluded that the feeling of the group was that journalism education is doing a better job than ever, but that is not good enough. "Readers expect us to know, not a little bit, but a lot about everything . . . Readers pay for a professionally done product and expect one," Einstoss said.<sup>71</sup>

MacDougall said in 1975 that

It is unthinkable that any journalism student should not take courses in criminology, urban sociology, state and local government, labor problems, public finance, race relations, population problems and more of the same.<sup>72</sup>

When these areas are added to the traditional liberal arts disciplines and the professional skills requirement of journalism education, the adequacy of the traditional four-year undergraduate journalism course becomes highly questionable. Later sections of this literature review summarize suggestions made and steps implemented to deal with this problem.

How Should Journalism Education Deal  
With the Sophisticated, Expensive Media  
Technologies Which Are in Use by Today's  
Newspapers?

As computerized editing and sophisticated cold-type

production becomes commonplace at even smaller newspaper plants, the expense of equipment required for "hands on" experience has become a serious problem for journalism education. While newspapers can claim as much as one-third reduction in composing room personnel to justify the move toward automation, many journalism schools can only view this aspect of meaningful journalism instruction as an unaffordable luxury.

A few schools of journalism, due to generous funding, foundation grants and/or benevolent alumni have kept pace with industry in acquisition of expensive new media hardware. For many others, however, this extra burden simply is another example of what many view as the media's unrealistic demands on journalism education at taxpayers' expense.

In stating his case for including instruction in the new technologies as part of journalism education, John J. Clarke, Ohio State University, wrote for Journalism Educator in 1975 that

The graduate who is at home with the new technology clearly will have an edge in the tight job market . . . editors at newspapers switching to VDT's want to hire reporters they won't have to retrain at the start. The portent seems clear. (In 1974, Clarke's university, Ohio State, received a \$50,000 grant to purchase VDT equipment.)<sup>73</sup>

In 1977, Nancy L. Harper, head of the Mass Communications program at the University of Iowa School of Journalism,



proposed that the last two years of journalism education should provide students with an "analogic" approach to their preparation for employment by news media. Harper's model, the University of Iowa's Mass Communications program, has as its goal the development of "media generalists." During the final four semesters of undergraduate work, it gives students practice in a number of journalistic skills to prepare them to enter a variety of media professions.<sup>74</sup>

After an initial semester spent in familiarization with, and evaluation of, contemporary media forms and content, students form mass communications production teams. The teams conceive, plan, produce, and distribute communication products to a mass audience. These products are systematically evaluated both quantitatively and qualitatively by as many as 200 persons. After content analysis of the evaluations, the teams revise their products accordingly.

During the program's third semester, students continue to develop production skills, but turn much of their attention toward media management. The teams become production companies and, for each production period, major concerns are how best to conceive the company, establish production guidelines and audience distribution procedures, mediate disputes within or between production teams, and keep company members informed of issues, resources, and events

relevant to the approaching publication.

Major activities during the final semester at Iowa are focused on consultation in which students research areas of concern to the companies and participate in in-service training of members of production teams. The Iowa "team" experience assures competency in the use of production tools such as writing, photography, graphics, audio and video. It also develops the "producing" skills of organizing for professional production, working for, and managing a production company, and the related skills of distribution to a mass audience which entails analysis of the needs, expectations, and responses of publics.

Harper noted that the analogic approach solves a variety of problems while meeting the primary objectives of providing students with professional preparation. The system overcomes the shortage of internship positions so common to educational communities. It allows students to reap many of the benefits of internship programs without sacrificing classroom time. The analogic approach allows a faculty to meet the diverse needs of larger numbers of students without proliferating courses. Thus

. . . investments of faculty time is reduced and, more importantly, students are not only accommodated but enriched.

The analogic approach can be adapted to a variety of needs. The Mass Communication sequence

at Iowa centers on the needs of students primarily interested in a broad range of professional careers in media production, broadcasting, and consulting. With modification of content and focus the same approach can be adapted to fit the needs of students with almost any conceivable set of career objectives.

The significance of the approach is its flexibility as a solution to student demands for diverse career-oriented education, swelling enrollments, and to limited resources in the universities and the job market.<sup>75</sup>

A survey of emphasis given to media technologies in instructional programs, and the published opinions of editors regarding the importance of hands-on experience with the technological hardware, reveals wide differences of opinion. At some well-endowed institutions, students gain experience on the latest state-of-the-art equipment. At others, acquisition of electric typewriters is a major problem. On the editorial side, a few editors have been quoted as having said they would not consider applicants without electronic editing experience. Others apparently believe that a motivated worker can master the mysteries of video display terminals in a few hours, but are worried that too many journalism graduates cannot write concise, complete, declarative sentences.

Should Journalism Education Try to  
Tailor Programs to Fit Immediate Needs  
of News Media or Should it Try to

Provide Instruction Designed to  
"Professionalize" The News Industry?

Apparently there are at least three major schools of thought regarding the major purpose of higher education in journalism. First, is that journalism education should produce graduates capable of "cutting it" or "carrying their own weight" the first day on the job. This approach is both possible and highly appealing. Graduates with this skill level immediately would justify their salaries and satisfy employers. Einstoss noted that editors do not label stories as having been written by beginning, intermediate or advanced reporters. They expect as much from the novice as any other.<sup>76</sup> With highly concentrated upper-level instruction steeped in practical experience, a talented beginner should be able to meet this test. The problem is that very little else but practical experience at a "state of the art" level would be possible in an educational program of this sort. A second problem arises in the form of an assumption that standards of the "state of the art" practice of journalism are acceptable.

Many, however, believe that standards outlined above are insufficient for the practice of professional journalism. At the 1978 AEJ convention, outgoing president James

Carey called for a "new spirit of intellectualism" in journalism education. Carey said journalism education should transcend the idea that its major concern should be "service to the profession." He said the task of journalism education should be to "put some harness on the ideology of professionalism." (Referring to professionalism in a vocational sense.)

Carey said the goals of specialized professions too often cultivate a self-serving climate for their members, often having the effect of eroding "the moral basis of society." This leads, according to Carey, to such developments as rationalizations for secrecy, "professional prerogatives" and a certain "imperial quality" with which some professions cloak themselves. Instead of following the idea of service to the profession, journalism education, Carey said, "must conceptually restore the idea of service to the public."<sup>77</sup>

At a Wisconsin conference of newspaper editors and journalism professors in 1976, there was strong agreement that newspapers have to improve. Ralph Olive wrote for Editor & Publisher that the conferees believed improving newspapers meant the employment of young men and women who are better educated, more skilled and generally more professional than today's journalists.<sup>78</sup>

At the same conference, John L. Dougherty, then managing editor of the Rochester, New York Times-Union, voiced a third opinion, held by many, regarding the purpose of journalism education. Dougherty said that, despite the problems of journalism schools, from an editor's viewpoint, he would like to see the schools produce a "renaissance man or woman." He said he wanted persons who can find the hole in the city manager's budget, who can quote the place names in Emily Dickenson, who can lay out page one and who can sense the social change in a neighborhood. Dougherty said he knew accomplishment of such a task was impossible, "but you can try."<sup>79</sup>

In their text on the responsibility of the news media to the public, published in 1969, Rivers and Schramm described most post-secondary journalism education as

. . . quasi-professional schools of journalism and communication (which) have only begun to develop the substantial and unique body of knowledge that is essential. So far, they can only introduce students to some of the skills required and prepare them to go understandingly into the occupation by exposing them to the history of the craft and discussing its social responsibilities, its relationships to other social activities, and the way it works.<sup>80</sup>

In his critical analysis of journalism education in the March 1977 issue of the Atlantic Monthly, Ben H. Bagdikian noted that, despite all the shortcomings he found in his

study of the opinions of editors, educators, and former students of journalism education, two justifications persisted for journalism in higher education. In his summary, Bagdikian may have detected the major flaw in the professionalization of journalism education:

The trade prefers to let the cost be borne by the students or their parents or, in public institutions, the taxpayers, all the time becoming more strident in its demands and complaints about 'ivory tower professors.'<sup>81</sup>

Bagdikian's first justification for journalism education is

. . . to give beginners sufficient technical training to let them know the true nature of the work so that they can decide whether the appropriate choice has been made. Anyone who can't learn that part of journalism in a few months belongs in another line of work.

The other justification is more appropriate for institutions of higher learning: to impart to the potential journalist a knowledge of the proper role of journalism in society, the ethics implied by this role, an encouragement of empathy with people they will study for the rest of their careers, and some advice on what academic programs will provide lasting insight into society. Technical training without this comprehension is meaningless--it merely makes propagation of ignorant journalism more efficient. The charade 'journalism education' in places that teach mostly technique and typing will simply perpetuate the curse of what Walter Lippman called 'untrained accidental witnesses.' . . . News companies are increasingly corporate giants, bureaucratic and impersonal. They are in danger of sterility unless they are constantly fed generations of new journalists lively in spirit and mind, formed by something other than the corporate ethic. This kind of men and women will not come from journal-

ism schools turning out typewriter jockeys trained largely to avoid embarrassing their alma mater during the first week on the job. They will come from institutions which still nurture the humanities and creative teaching and that produce journalists who, whatever problems they have the first week with an electronic typewriter and computer, will, ten years later, still have the capacity to understand a changing human condition.<sup>82</sup>

In his introduction to a 1975 Quill series on journalism education, Dr. DeWitt C. Reddick said that, due to the complex nature of our society, journalism education must constantly grow and improve and that

. . . journalism education must take into account the changes in some aspects of the information industries while at the same time having the discernment to continue to stress the precious and indispensable fundamentals . . . Journalism education, by all logic should be ahead of professional journalism in projecting changing approaches to the interpretation of news, for education is to prepare for tomorrow.

Too often, the person who looks into the future is labeled, derogatorily, a theorist. The judgment gains strength when the theories lack practicality and are based on daydreams of an individual who knows little about the functions of the news media. It is true, also, that the professional journalist who concentrates only on the practical application of techniques to his daily task is likely to remain only a craftsman, never becoming an innovator, creator, and leader . . . In reality, practical work and research must be welded together for the journalism professions to flourish in this world of continuous change.<sup>83</sup>

At the 1978 AEJ convention, Ben H. Bagdikian was cited as "journalism's most perceptive critic." In response to the American Society of Journalism School Administrators who



sponsored the top critic award, Bagdikian made the following observations.

We are in a transition period. We are leaving behind the tradition of the individualistic proprietor of a newspaper or magazine or book house who may have been good, bad, or indifferent, but who was good, bad, or indifferent with one publication. We are passing from that era into the present one in which large national and multinational corporations make these decisions, not for one newspaper or magazine or broadcast station, or book house, but for dozens in one stroke. As time passes the leadership of these large companies that came through some form of journalism disappears; the new corporate leaders are technicians trained in the control and growth of corporate structures. Their talents and instincts are not to create but to acquire, and they remain in power only so long as they produce reliable products and profits with a minimum of investment. No distinguished newspaper or magazine was ever created by such entities. The imperatives of massive corporate management make distinction an unnecessary luxury.

. . . Thus, we see the steady Felkerization of newspapers and magazine policies, deliberately turning away from entire constituencies like the moderate and low-income families, the aged, minorities and rural citizens, and concentrating on the 18-to-49 affluent consumers in the suburbs . . . Already the big operators are rejecting circulation in the central cities and among the non-affluent, not because you can't make money there--you can--but because you can make more money elsewhere with less trouble . . . .

Ultimately the chief executive officer of each corporation sets policies. He or she does not necessarily control individual news stories, though that is not unknown. More important, and more prevalent, is the executive's determination of the amount of news to be produced, who will be in charge of producing it, how large the staff shall be, and what will be the pattern of content.

Mobil Oil says it is in the market for a major daily newspaper. We know that Mobil Oil has strong opinions on how the news should be covered,

but today those opinions are limited to paid ads. When and if Mobil Oil buys its newspaper or newspaper chain, it will no longer have an opinion but a policy . . .

We do not trust Big Government to control our information. But what happens when the conduit for most of our information is controlled by so few people that all of them--the controllers of the majority of our newspaper, magazines, broadcast and book sales can all fit in one room? And what happens if they are part of such large economic units that they have a basic stake in public attitudes toward politics and the economy?

Against this dreary assessment of certain trends in the conglomerate ownership of news media, Bagdikian set his appraisal of the current generation of individual news-persons:

In the past 20 years we have seen the most serious and skilled generation of journalists ever to move into American journalism. There have always been some good journalists, but there is a great deal of romantic nonsense about the generality of reporters and editors of the past. The really good ones were a tiny minority, and most of the rest either corrupt or incompetent . . . . Anyone who doubts this ought to crank through the microfilm in a good library for a representative sample of newspapers 30, 60 or 150 years ago . . . . . . . in newsrooms large and small across the country there are reporters and editors in greater numbers than ever before who no longer regard news as a distillation of local crimes and the utterances of authority figures. Instead we have a growing corps of professionals who understand political and economic forces and who have an expanded arsenal of talents with which to sense and to create an understanding of the social environment. They no longer regard as inviolable the doctrine of the inverse pyramid that recites detached public statements. They know that some stories are best told by recreating the emotion and atmosphere of an event and that there is no

longer any justification for journalistic writing to be different from real writing.

These new professionals know that some stories are best told by systematic unearthing of information that otherwise would remain deliberately concealed. More of them know how to use social science techniques to avoid impressionism and superficiality. They realize that in addition to honesty and accuracy a journalist is also under obligation to make events understandable and, to the extent that informed reasoning permits, to interpret events.

These new trends in American reporting are more challenging than anything the generality of our profession has ever undertaken before. They are full of pitfalls and often they result in work that is inadequate and wrong. But they are the only sensible way to approach the needs of the public.

We are not a profession in the sense of requiring a license or having sanctions to reject practitioners. But we are a profession in the sense that we do not have a master-servant relationship with our employers and we do instead have a code of performance that demands above all else that we serve the public's need for sound information. This is not just another industrial product.<sup>84</sup>

Bagdikian foresaw a conflict between the new professional in journalism and the "marketing concept" administrative practices of many media organizations.

. . . the conflict may come, for one reason, because to maximize profits in a monopolistic market you don't need distinction. The usual spur for distinction is the personal ego for vision of individuals, and that is precisely the kind of variable that giant corporate structures cannot tolerate . . .

What this tells me is that we must do all we can to protect the professional practice of journalism. This means the continued education of serious and dedicated journalists. It means standing together whenever freedom of the press

and freedom of reporting are threatened. I think it means that professional staffs should elect their own editors and have a representative on their news company's board of directors.<sup>85</sup>

Bagdikian quite obviously placed much of the responsibility for future quality of American journalism upon individual sense of professionalism displayed by practitioners. His inference also seemed clear that this sense of professionalism should be developed in schools of journalism, since it is not likely to be reenforced by influences of newspaper managements whose primary motivation is toward marketing principles rather than journalistic excellence.

In her commentary on the landmark Hutchins Commission study on freedom of the press and its summary report, A Free And Responsible Press, Margaret A. Blanchard noted that concern for professionalization of media and journalism education was strong even in 1947. It was the commission's goal to goad the silent public audience into action designed to improve media performance and journalism education.

Through public pressure, non-profit institutions such as colleges and universities could be motivated to work on projects designed to upgrade the quality of the mass media. Journalism education could be improved through the same public pressures; here the commission thought that those studying to become journalists should be exposed to much broader liberal arts backgrounds in order to give them knowledge on the subject matter they covered as reporters. Public demand for quality reporting could result in all such changes, the report said.<sup>86</sup>

In this vein, Curtis MacDougall said in 1975 that

. . . Journalism faculties should assist the students in obtaining insight and perspective as regards the news they expect to cover, pointing out as much as possible the practical application of the non-journalism courses the student must take . . . You've got to show students how to do it, guide and watch them and criticize their performance by personal observations . . . .

If college presidents and boards of trustees are to be persuaded that a good sized rescue job is needed before journalism schools become so sick that the only solution is to put them out of their misery, it's going to have to be practicing journalists who lead the campaign. It's been discouraging trying to obtain outside help. Journalists never have been as interested in the operations of their schools as have lawyers, doctors, and other professionals in their alma maters. Today, however, interest is developing . . . Any professional journalistic organization, as a state press association, that sincerely wishes to improve journalism education should campaign for . . . independent status for the schools.<sup>87</sup>

Improvement and professionalization of news media and journalism education in the sense referred to by the Hutchins Commission implies application of ethics in both the teaching and practice of journalism. Yet, Clifford G. Christians observed in 1977 that, compared with other programs having a professional dimension, journalism seemed less developed in the teaching of ethics by a substantial margin. Christians noted that his survey of teaching of ethics in schools of journalism showed that only 27 percent offered specific ethics classes, while 39 percent of undergraduate schools of business have such classes.

Christians was disturbed by indications that showed very few respondents concerned about consciously distinguishing the law and ethics as different frames of reference. He stated that, while the complexity of modern ethical dilemmas would seem to require a specific course in the curriculum and a teacher who has specialized in ethics as a discipline, only 10 percent of those teaching ethics classes are fully trained in philosophical ethics.<sup>88</sup>

Professor John C. Merrill, of the University of Missouri, recommended in 1978 that ethics classes deal with the first principles of ethical positions and that students be given the opportunity to see that "truth" is not often the goal of media. Merrill said media codes of ethics should be tested and that attempts should be made to write better ones.<sup>89</sup>

In a differing opinion on teaching of media ethics, James W. Carty, Bethany (W.Va.) College, said ethics courses for journalists should be taught outside journalism schools. Carty said that, after "reflecting on the wisdom of the ancients and their own experiences, students can create their own ethical philosophies, based on a historical position or their own created eclectic perspectives."<sup>90</sup>

In light of the Hutchins Commission findings and recent trends toward consolidation of media ownership by primarily

business-oriented interests, it would seem necessary that primary stress be placed on journalistic ethics. Apparently, the media themselves are in no great hurry to upgrade the quality of their products so long as income on investment figures remain at the current high levels. Therefore, it would seem that improvements of media products in the public interest will have to come from an influx of highly motivated beginners instilled with the principles of public service journalism by their educational experiences.

It seems reasonable that efforts to improve media ethics should include, as a major element, criticism of media in journalism education. Strentz, Starck, Anderson, and Ghiglione, however, commented in 1974 that, although journalism education was becoming more involved in news media criticism, the over-all record has not been impressive in this area. These writers stated that journalism educators can and should participate in criticism of news media in the classroom, in the community, and in concert with news media. 91

In 1978, Michael Ryan outlined standards he believed would make journalism school media criticism more effective. Ryan said it should be made clear to all concerned that journalism faculty should be free, as individuals, to criticize media performance, but that if schools as wholes engage

in criticism, it should be done through journalism reviews or local news councils. Ryan said that working professionals should be consulted in order for criticism to be tempered with reality. Based on experience, Ryan said media councils and journalism reviews probably could be expected to improve media performance.

Ryan noted that two cautions should be considered in journalism school criticism of local media performance. First, taking public stands does not usually result in reductions of funding but often causes opposition from the media which receive criticism. Secondly, Ryan cautioned that well-done media reviews are likely to absorb both faculty time and departmental funds which may be in short supply.<sup>92</sup>

Data obtained on opinions of editors of small newspapers in the Southwest done as a pilot study for this paper indicated that most responding editors were much more concerned that journalism graduates be proficient in basic journalism skills than be prepared to improve quality of newspaper products. A strong majority of respondents evidently believed exit standards for spelling, typing, and composition are too low in journalism schools. Very few respondents, however, placed strong importance on practical experience with campus or commercial publications during



college years. Apparently, these editors believed the college classroom was the proper place for acquisition of journalistic skills and that colleges and universities were not performing at acceptable levels in this area.

### What Steps Have Journalism Education

### And The Profession Taken to Improve

### Journalism Education?

One of the few systematic and wide-ranging attempts to improve journalism education is the continuing effort of the American Council on Education for Journalism (ACEJ) to establish quality standards for the accreditation of sequences in various areas of communications education. In the September 1975 edition of The Quill, Professor John Paul Jones, former dean of the College of Journalism and Communications at the University of Florida, Gainesville, described the over-all purpose of ACEJ accreditation in these words.

Its purpose is to assure higher and higher standards generally in journalism education. The visiting team seeks to assure that the accredited programs are taught by better-than-average teachers from the standpoint of both their practical backgrounds and their academic preparation, that the school has better-than-average facilities and administrative support; that the school maintains good relations with the media in its area, and has the respect of the media; that the school maintains contact with its alumni and keeps better-than-average records; that the school sets high standards for its faculty as teachers and demands

good teaching, that student and faculty morale is high; that budgets are adequate; that the administration of the school, department or college is good.

Accreditation is not the total answer to improvements in journalism education, but the fact it is there, that it exists year after year as a watchdog, financed heavily by the communication media, is certainly important in the development of better personnel, better administration, and improved conditions generally in our schools.<sup>93</sup>

At the plenary session of the 1976 AEJ convention, a panel comprising Milton E. Gross of the University of Missouri, James W. Schwartz of Iowa State University, and James W. Carey of the University of Iowa made the following comments about ACEJ accreditation:

. . . accreditation has a number of purposes, but the most important is 'to guide prospective students in choosing a school that will adequately meet their educational needs.'<sup>94</sup>

Other purposes were:

. . . to improve journalism education through the process of continuing reviews; to pinpoint and describe departments worthy of public recognition; to serve as a guide for employers; to promote closer relationships among media, research organizations and schools, and to provide self-study guidance to schools preparing for eventual evaluation.

Ultimately, however, all the objectives point to one direction . . . and that is 'to help the student of journalism.'<sup>95</sup>

Gross denounced administrators who would use accreditation to build enrollment or as "greasepaint for self-enhancement."<sup>96</sup> (ACEJ literature stresses that only

sequences are accredited, not entire departments, divisions, schools or colleges. Only those sequences actually accredited may be so designated. ACEJ recognizes that a school's use of the accreditation designation may be misapplied and, at times, even misleading.)<sup>97</sup> The panel acknowledged that two other problems associated with accreditation needed attention. First, there have been difficulties in ironing out inequities which occur because of differing philosophies of journalism among visitation teams. Secondly, the problem of insuring that innovation and experimentation are not discouraged among schools seeking accreditation worried the panel.

Regarding the latter, Schwartz said many in journalism education felt accreditation tended to encourage conformity. Carey noted that current accreditation standards imply "minimum" standards and that they tend to encourage mediocrity among schools.<sup>98</sup>

Questions about the relative merits of ACEJ accreditation standards have come from other quarters. In 1976, Lee Smith, National Council of Editorial Writers, asked if the ACEJ-recommended 75/25 ratio of liberal arts classes to journalism classes is adequate, since journalism schools frequently have to supplement general education topics, missing in other departments, with their own class content.<sup>99</sup>

Don Carson, University of Arizona, and others have questioned the value of some liberal arts requirements at certain institutions. In particular, Carson questioned the value of 16 hours of languages, two hours of physical education and eight hours of science and math required at the University of Arizona.<sup>100</sup>

As background for his 1976 survey of curricular changes in progress at 125 schools and departments of journalism, Warren K. Agee listed 10 events and trends he believed have caused changes in journalism education programs. They included:

1. Growth which far exceeded the growth in general university enrollment.
2. Substantial increase in the non-journalism majors in journalism classes.
3. Recession which resulted in a shift from liberal arts to career-oriented fields.
4. Decreases in budgetary support for higher education in the wake of public disillusionment with higher education after student revolts of the 1960's.
5. Revolution in communications technology which called for changes in preparing students.
6. Increases in research and public interest in journalism.
7. New journalism teachers hired in the first third of the 70's introduced new research interests demanding outlet in journalism curricula.
8. A nationwide decline in verbal skills among college students that has caused increased demands to teach the fundamentals of language usage in journalism programs. Journalism education has been held accountable for writing preparation by such outside constituencies as editors and publishers.

9. The increasing difficulty of reporting and interpreting American Life has created demands for improving the education of journalists in such fields as public opinion reporting, investigative reporting, ethics, law, and research.
10. Major cost of compliance with equal opportunity laws in force at colleges and universities.<sup>101</sup>

Agee wrote in his analysis of the data from 111 responding schools that the most striking feature was that

. . . change is a fairly strong, ongoing factor in the development of these curricula--that much more activity is taking place, even among courses long considered standard, than might normally be supposed.

The second most noteworthy outcome of the study is the discovery that, despite criticisms leveled by many practitioners to the effect that journalism school news-editorial sequences are devoting an inordinate amount of attention to studies characterized pejoratively as 'communications,' such evidently is not the case. The seven highest ranking subject areas in which new courses recently have been added all fall within the professional skills category: news writing and reporting, internships, photojournalism, management, broadcast news, editing and makeup and magazine editing-production.

Aware of a need to supplement classroom and laboratory instruction with off-campus work experience, the schools reporting recently have added 32 internship courses.

Instruction in photojournalism is expanding rapidly, with the addition of advanced courses being the most common development reported in this field. Some comments: 'We do not believe majors are equipped to work in journalism without an understanding in photography . . . . We have added a seminar in visual communications . . . . We believe a reporter who can also take pictures is a more valuable employee, particularly for smaller newspapers.'<sup>102</sup>

Agee said constant references were made to the difficulty of teaching increased numbers of students with limited resources. This has made curricular reorganization necessary at many schools. Some courses not regarded as indispensable to the curriculum have been abandoned or offered less frequently. With some subjects, such as journalism history, their content has been incorporated into other courses.<sup>103</sup>

In 1975, Wayne A. Danielson and Nwabu Mgemena released their descriptive study of 960 active journalism teachers from 315 institutions in 48 states and Washington, D.C. These researchers found that, in the sample they studied, the doctorate was the model degree with 48.9 percent claiming that distinction. Those with the master's degree comprised 44.8 percent, and 5.3 percent held the bachelor's degree. One percent held no degree whatever. Percentages of persons holding full professorships, associate professorships, and assistant professorships were 28.3 percent, 23.3 percent, and 26.7 percent, respectively. Of the total, instructors comprised 8.2 percent; lecturers, 2.7 percent; teaching assistants, 4.9 percent; and various non-ranked personnel, 5.9 percent.

Danielson and Mgemena noted the majority of journalism teachers worked in the midwestern states and that 88.8 percent were males. Most respondents listed newspaper journal-

ism as their teaching specialty (60.2 percent) and a strong majority (74.3 percent) claimed professional experience in newspaper work. Age spread for the group comprised 27.3 percent in the 22-35 range, 36.4 percent in the 36-48 strata, 31.1 percent between 49 and 61, and 5.2 percent 62 and over. In summary the report noted that most college journalism teachers were male, young to middle-aged, fairly evenly spread among academic ranks, and that the doctorate was the most common degree.<sup>104</sup>

The climbing level of academic achievement earned by journalism faculty, as outlined by Danielson-Mgemena, is not universally viewed as a sign of progress. In 1975, Curtis D. MacDougall said he believed

The Ph.D. has been vastly overrated and considerably cheapened in many areas. In journalism it can't compare in value with twenty, ten or even five years of reporting experience on a newspaper, but college presidents must be convinced of that fact.<sup>105</sup>

MacDougall implied that autonomous status for journalism schools would, to a degree, solve the problem of over-emphasis on academic credentials, by reducing outside pressures in that direction. MacDougall pointed out, however,

The internal fight by those of us who warned and resisted the influx of Chi-square fiends (advocates of quantitative research) is over. We did our best and we lost . . .<sup>106</sup>

It seems that, given the increasing complexity of the media and the society upon which they report, instruction from both seasoned professionals and persons trained in systematic examination of developing trends within society is called for. The apparent danger here is the possibility that a particular faculty might be overbalanced toward one side or the other.

Lowenstein and Merrill sought, in 1976, to determine the extent to which another attempt to improve journalism education, student evaluations of faculty, existed and how they were used. The responses the researchers obtained from faculty at 66 institutions revealed the following:

1. Only two of the schools had no system of student evaluation of teachers.
2. In 40 of the 66 schools, results of student evaluations are seen by both faculty concerned and administrators.
3. In 13 schools, evaluations are seen by the faculty member only.
4. At three schools, evaluations are seen only by administrators.
5. At seven schools, evaluations are seen by administrators by permission of faculty.
6. At 38 of the 66 schools, evaluations were required and were used for purposes of promotion, tenure and/or merit pay raises.
7. Twenty percent of the reporting faculty were not sure to what extent the evaluations were used by administrators in determining promotion, tenure, and salary.<sup>107</sup>

While many faculty indicated that student evaluations of faculty were unreliable as bases for administrative con-



siderations of promotion, tenure and merit raises, due to a lack of appropriate forms for different types of classes and the lack of student knowledge and expertise in making judgments about instructors' qualifications and performance, they also indicated that: "students can 'feel that they are having a part in the journalism program' as it relates to the process of teacher tenure, promotion, and salary."<sup>108</sup>

Outright objections were lodged by many faculty on grounds that student evaluations of faculty are a kind of threat to academic freedom, that they cause many faculty members to concentrate on "entertainment" and thus lower the substance and rigor of their courses, and that there is also a tendency of professors to grade higher than usual in hopes of getting better student evaluations.<sup>109</sup>

At Middle Tennessee State University, a student advisory committee has been established to "reduce student frustration and dissatisfaction about a lack of channels for meaningful input into the operation and curriculum of the university." The 15-member student advisory board comprises representatives from the seven sequences of specialization within the Mass Communications Department degree program and the related student organizations. Committee members pledge to stay in touch with their constituents and to bring to the committee's attention subjects suggested by their fellow students. Glenn

A. Himebaugh of the MTSU faculty reports that student morale has been high and a past worry of faculty and administration that the legitimate needs and concerns of students had been denied an audience has been alleviated. <sup>110</sup>

For the second year, a \$25,000 Gannett Newspaper Foundation grant has funded a seminar in better teaching methods for teachers new to journalism education. In 1978, the seminar was conducted for 14 new journalism educators at the University of Indiana during late July. Purpose of the seminar is to help these people make the transition from the newsroom to the classroom smooth, productive, and pleasant. <sup>111</sup>

At the University of Utah, the recurring problems of how best to help students prepare for what faces them after graduation and how to synthesize what they have learned have been attacked through the addition of a required, exit course for graduating seniors. Milton C. Hollstein wrote for the January, 1978, Journalism Educator that, previous to implementation of the exit course, an exit examination and a two-credit-hour seminar had been used in attempts to deal with these problems and both had been found inadequate. Neither of these approaches required students to draw on theoretical concepts or to think of journalism as a coherent discipline. The Utah faculty settled on a colloquium

pattern designed to cut across course boundaries and pry students out of compartmentalized thinking.

The course is organized into four 'units,' of two or three weeks each: (1) production and delivery systems; (2) media content; (3) media organization, management and control, including opportunities in the media; and (4) dominant themes in media ethics and criticism. Within each unit students have wide latitude to select topics, although some guidance is provided by a listing of possibilities in the course outline. For example, in the first unit a student may choose to deal with such subjects as satellites, lasers, ultra-fax, cassettes, and the postal crisis and its effects on the media.<sup>112</sup>

Two research papers are required for completion of each of these units, and standards are the same as for graduate seminars. Each student reports on a substantial article or group of articles from the trade, professional and scholarly journals or from a book or related chapters from several books. A 1,000 word paper is required each week. Half of each paper comprises an abstract of the literature and half is devoted to the student's comments. Each paper is duplicated for the class and an oral presentation is made to the class to stimulate discussion. One paper in each unit is drawn from the literature in the student's own sequence and one from the general literature or from another sequence.<sup>113</sup>

In 1975, John DeMott surveyed some of the efforts to promote the professionalization of journalism and journalism education. Among these were the following:

SDX is studying the need for more continuing education in journalism. For years, this organization has promoted journalistic excellence among college students through the granting of regional and national recognition and scholarships.

Journalism education committees of the APME and ASNE continually investigate ways of promoting interaction between professional journalists and journalism educators.

The ANPA has sponsored, through its foundation, conferences among leading professional groups and journalism educators in the hope of promoting greater understanding between the profession and higher education. In addition, the group has initiated projects designed to provide better materials of instruction for courses in newspaper economics and publishing.

The Newspaper Fund continues to expand its scholarship program and provide a reporting service on trends in enrollment and hiring in the news media.

The Gannett Foundation makes generous annual gifts to developing schools and departments of journalism.

Readers Digest Foundation supports news research travel.

The Hearst Foundation makes a number of journalism awards.

Generous grants for graduate study are made by the Minneapolis Star and Tribune, The Argonne Laboratories, The Nieman Fellowships at Harvard, The Pulliam Fellowships, and Medill News Services.<sup>114</sup>

While this list of attempts to improve journalism education is by no means exhaustive, it is representative and typical of the kinds of efforts currently being made. In most cases, efforts are made to finance state-of-the-art instruction in journalism or add courses in ever more specialized areas of reportage. In very few instances are the basic goals of journalism education being investigated. Few

really innovative steps have examined the adequacy of current curricular organization and subject matter emphases. Apparently, questions such as, "How are we going to fund a program which will accommodate all these students?" receive precedence over questions like, "Should we even attempt to teach intimate familiarity with the latest media hardware?"

What Suggestions for Improving  
Journalism Education Have Been Made by  
Authoritative Sources?

As might be expected when any institution tries to serve both an industry and the best interests of society, higher education for journalism has received many suggestions about how it should structure its goals and purposes. Some of these have come from persons who place paramount importance upon the altruistic aspects of the practice of and, therefore, the education for journalism. Others, quite naturally, have come from those who sense that journalism education provides a subsidized vocational program which provides them with a pool of trained craftsmen to use with little if any expense on their parts.

Frequently, sources who indicate highest levels of expectation regarding the motivations and expertise of journalism graduates are least willing to admit that persons

with the qualifications they seem to expect should command at least quasi-professional salaries. At the highest level of expectation, the Commission on Freedom of the Press in its report, A Free and Responsible Press, implied that journalism education should produce graduates capable of, and inclined toward, improving media products in the public interest. At the lowest level, a great many "country editors" expect journalism graduates whom they can assign major or minor stories without fear of being embarrassed by the result. Between these extremes, the National Conference of Editorial Writers claims that journalism graduates should possess a background of practical and liberal arts that must only be described as a modern "Renaissance Man." The result of this has become an economic situation in which even the best paid newsmen who, in fact, do display all the requisites of professionalism, often command salaries which even small-town tradespersons could exceed.

One of the most notable efforts to describe adequate preparation for careers in journalism came from the National Conference of Editorial Writers (NCEW). In 1975-76, Lee Smith, then chairman of the journalism education committee of NCEW, sampled NCEW membership to determine opinions of what non-journalism classes students should take to prepare for careers as newspaper reporters and editorial

writers. Results were published in the Spring 1976 edition of The Masthead. In descending order of importance, the following subjects were deemed as essential or desirable: U.S. History, composition, introduction to economics, state and local government, introduction to sociology, principles of economics, critical writing, constitutional law, comparative economic systems, geography, history of political thought, political parties, history of modern Europe, economic history of the U.S., public finance, urban and regional planning, and philosophy.

Subjects of lesser importance, but "acceptable," were: linguistics, Shakespeare, international relations, public opinion, computer studies, math, statistics, history of science, criminology, and social change. Subjects given marginal ranking by the NCEW respondents were: Foreign language, Soviet economics, marketing, insurance, drama, dramatic criticism, the novel, government of specific foreign nations, bacteriology, botany, meteorology, zoology, physiology, education, military science, music, speech, engineering, architecture, and medicine and nursing. Smith called for firmer relations between secondary schools and higher education, to avoid duplication of course work. He recommended a number of subjects just as well could be taught in high school. Among these were composition, intro-

duction and principles of economics, Shakespeare, U.S. history, history of individual states or regions, foreign languages, state and local government, geography, math, chemistry, physics, and introduction to sociology.

The Smith article contained a number of individual quotes from respondents and publications. Among the more thought-provoking were the following:

What about visual communication courses outside schools of journalism: visual perception, design, graphics, non-verbal communication. These teach techniques such as observation and enable the journalism major to be a better reporter because he is a better observer.

How about a course in rhetoric on the Greek model? Or a course in Plato? (It's a bit embarrassing to have to be caught up on the Socratic dialogue by one's publisher.)

The small city newspaper, hiring out of J-schools, looks for someone with demonstrated skills. That graduate must have divided his studies between liberal arts and newsroom skills.<sup>115</sup>

To which Smith responded that:

The sheer volume of knowledge important to today's journalists is such as to underscore the need for better defining the critical areas in a solid liberal arts backgrounding that every student should absorb.<sup>116</sup>

Smith recommended that a no-holds-barred dialogue be established between professional journalists and academicians on how journalism education might be structured in a way to assure adequate skill and non-skill preparation of journalism majors. He further recommended closer coordina-



tion between colleges and high schools to assure students have adequate secondary school grounding in essential background subjects.

In summary, Smith noted several questions raised by responses to the NCEW poll. In face of the knowledge explosion in virtually every subject matter area, is it reasonable to expect journalism students to acquire sufficient training and background in the traditional four-year course? Is the ACEJ-recommended 75/25 ratio of liberal arts classes to journalism classes adequate in light of the fact that journalism schools frequently have to supplement general education topics missing in other departments. Should there not be firmer screening out of unqualified J-school applicants to avoid wasting time and money of students who will never make competent journalists?<sup>117</sup>

An "umbrella" committee comprising representatives of 11 professional journalism organizations met at ANPA headquarters in Reston, Virginia, February 28, 1977, to consider ways of improving journalism education. The Committee's goal was

. . . to formulate recommendations concerning journalism education expressing the united concerns of the news industry as a whole . . . In time the committee hopes to agree on a statement of professional guidelines for journalism schools with the understanding that the various groups represented ultimately may need their membership ratification.<sup>118</sup>

At the heart of these deliberations were two key questions: First, what specific assistance does journalism education need from the profession to elevate the skills and standards of journalism education? Second, what are the best ways industry can implement constructive influences to elevate the standards of journalism education at colleges and universities?

Some stated conclusions from the conference were:

1. Journalism schools should achieve a greater degree of administrative autonomy.
2. Firmer professional journalism qualifications for faculty are needed.
3. "Communicology" classes and Ph.D. requirements for faculty tenure and promotion must be curbed.
4. Five-year journalism programs with enlarged non-skill backgrounding for journalism majors should be emphasized.
5. Prospective journalism majors should be screened through tests of their writing and reporting aptitudes earlier in their college careers.

In a concluding statement, the committee observed:

Too many professional newsmen have paid lip service to journalism education while decrying the enrollment bulge or inadequate preparation of graduates for intelligent informing of a self-governing American electorate about the complex problems engulfing us . . . Each of our professional groups has tended to go off in different directions, each bringing to journalism school problems the perspectives of our separate professional societies . . . Now we must ask basic questions about objectives in an era when quality education, instead of sheer crushing numbers, should be the aim in fulfilling journalism's First Amendment obligations . . . None of us in the professional ranks can afford to evade our responsibilities for the future of a public-

informing profession as vital to American democracy as any of the other professions.<sup>119</sup>

In terms of scope, depth, and numbers of authorities involved, the fall 1973 conference of newspaper editors and journalism educators under the joint auspices of the ANPA and the AEJ was one of the most extensive efforts ever undertaken in behalf of improving journalism education. More than 100 concerned persons met at Reston, Virginia to consider 16 working papers on the theme, "Education for Newspaper Journalists in the Seventies and Beyond."

Conferees came to general agreement on the following major points:

Although journalism education is considered by many to be similar in its professional aspects to training for medicine and the law, it may well be the last truly 'liberal arts' curriculum in higher education.

Due to the vital nature of quality journalism to the well-being of American society, greater efforts should be made to recruit 'first-rate minds' into journalism education despite all-time high enrollment figures in journalism.

Well-trained future journalism students must be familiar with new communication technologies in addition to traditional journalism skills and wide general education subjects.

Future journalism must be familiarized with the role of newspaper economics to understand the communication process thoroughly.<sup>120</sup>

Much discussion centered on the problems which have arisen as results of the enrollment increases in recent years. Harold Nelson, then director of the School of

Journalism, University of Wisconsin, said administrators of overcrowded schools were kidding themselves if they thought their teaching was as good as it had been five years earlier. Nelson cautioned that, "If there are more than 15 students in a reporting class, quality of teaching starts to slip."

Dean Roy M. Fisher, School of Journalism, University of Missouri, said schools of journalism cannot accommodate the floods of students who want to study communications. "If we try to accommodate all," Fisher warned, "we'll end up accommodating none." Fisher suggested that separate courses be established for non-journalism majors so that high standards could be maintained in classes for future journalists.

Noting that non-journalism introductory courses often lack the "real, nuts and bolts" needed by newsmen, several conferees suggested that journalism schools might need to offer their own programs of liberal arts courses for journalists. It was felt that journalistically-oriented classes in political science and economics in particular were needed.

Through most of the sessions ran two sub-themes: (1) Journalism education, like the media themselves, has no single royal road for satisfactory operation and (2) working together, the practitioners and professors can achieve

more than either group can by working independently.<sup>121</sup>

To stimulate discussion in preparation for the NCEW Poll on journalism education cited earlier, Lee Smith and Curtis MacDougall presented the following eight proposals concerning possible improvements in journalism education:

1. That journalism education be lifted to an independent status comparable to law, medicine and engineering, with jurisdiction over admissions, faculty appointments and promotions, curriculum and degree requirements.
2. Journalism schools should require all full-time instructors in skill course areas have professional experience, with no less than five years' duration.
3. Journalism schools should put a stop to the growing emphasis upon communications-theory courses, and cease treating the Ph.D. as a requirement for faculty advancement.
4. Journalism schools should update their curriculum requirements to assure that all students planning journalism careers avail themselves of a 'core' of liberal arts background courses in such areas as history, economics, government, sociology, public finance, the law, logic, statistical analysis, business practices and the basic sciences.
5. Journalism schools should do everything possible to assure that general survey courses in the sciences and social sciences, in preference to entry-level courses increasingly geared for majors in such disciplines, are available to their students.
6. Journalism schools should schedule undergraduates' skill-writing course earlier than their third year. This serves two purposes: (1) Enabling students to have a better idea by the end of their sophomore year as to their interest in and aptitude for a journalism career; and (2) enabling students to absorb their skill training sequentially, learning a skill during one semester and building upon it during the next.

7. To facilitate the choice of non-skill courses in the journalism curriculum vital to individual students in preparing themselves for an expanding range of social problems and public issues, we recommend that full-time advisers be designated to supplement the advisory role of faculty members.
8. News professionals and journalism faculties alike should re-examine the problems and opportunities posed by the massive influx of students seeking journalism courses. The mixing of 'consumer'--oriented students with those planning careers in journalism can pose teaching problems in gearing courses to suit the needs of both types. One solution is the earlier programming of introductory writing courses to screen out students lacking journalistic aptitudes; another is emphasis on graduate professional programs as an alternative to two-track programs, one for consumer readers and one for profession-bound students.<sup>122</sup>

These eight NCEW proposals, suggested as starting points for discussion, have been the subjects of wide-ranging commentary from journalists and journalism educators. Among typical responses were those listed below from some of the University of Maryland journalism faculty. In stating his general agreement with the NCEW premise that journalism education should comprise largely course work designed to prepare students for employment in the news industries, Phil Geraci, assistant professor, said that

It is the obligation of journalism schools to recognize the needs of the profession first, then tailor their programs to meet those needs. Much as they hate to admit it, journalism schools really serve more than they lead. That's probably as it should be. Ask any professional.<sup>123</sup>

A contrary opinion was voiced by Mark McElreath, assistant professor:

The function of higher education, however, is not necessarily job satisfaction; it is to increase the understanding and social awareness of the individual. A journalism education is one of the broadest possible: most of the courses a student takes are not skill-oriented but are courses such as history, political science, economics, sociology, the law, ecology, business. The typical journalism student takes a potpourri of courses and gets a good, liberal education . . . Higher education develops an individual's social responsibility, which is extremely important for a professional journalist . . . The short-sighted critics, such as Ben Bagdikian in his March Atlantic Monthly article and Charles Seib of the Washington Post, who say that J-schools are practically useless, are ignoring the professional development that has occurred in journalism as more and more college-educated men and women enter the field.

James Grunig, associate professor, noted that without an active research program a university can do no more than pass on the conventional wisdom of the time . . . Without research and the theory to which it leads, journalism schools will always be captives of the past. They will follow the profession rather than lead it.

Professor L. John Martin said that

Most people agree that the 'educated journalist' must be well-informed, observant, outgoing, friendly, and have good writing skills, perseverance, assertiveness, intellectual curiosity, empathy and a lot of other Boy Scout qualities. What people disagree about is (a) how much of this one is born with, how much is learned or

teachable (b) who should teach those things that can be taught, and (c) when.<sup>124</sup>

In 1977, Lee Smith, co-author of the eight NCEW proposals, wrote that despite a year of reaction and the formation of an "umbrella" committee on journalism education comprising representatives from the most distinguished journalism organizations, efforts to establish a unified proposal from the profession had been largely fruitless. Smith said the NCEW proposals had been submitted purely as a starting point for discourse and that counter-proposals had been welcomed. Smith registered his displeasure with the fact that the proposals had resulted in little concrete action by the committee and listed the following pressing needs for improvement in journalism education:

1. Faculty members with ample professional experience who are getting the 'shaft' because they devoted their time to teaching instead of writing esoteric research studies should be rewarded for their efforts.
2. Students who complain that their academic fare isn't preparing them adequately for lifetime careers in the public-informing role.
3. Deans and department chairmen who have been unundated with student enrollment without commensurate budget support.
4. Graduates from some of the most prestigious schools can't measure up to the standards expected of them by editors.
5. What is the profession doing to discourage the flood of fly-by-night schools that are taking students' money without giving them a fair return?

Smith concluded that



. . . the fact remains that the bleak outlook for any sort of industry-wide consensus position on just what it wants the J-schools to be doing, or doing better, contrasts sadly with the long and traditional involvement of the medical, law, and other comparable professions in the quality of education in their respective fields.<sup>125</sup>

In the spring of 1971 the ANPA News Research Center commissioned Professor John L. Hulteng, University of Oregon, to survey and compare expectations of editors and journalism educators as to the functions, goals and performance of journalism schools. Purpose of the survey was to provide a basis for an informed dialogue about ways to advance and support education for journalism.

Hulteng surveyed national samples of editors and educators and received a 57 percent response from editors and a 66 percent from educators, which included both administrators and teachers. These groups were studied separately. Some of the major findings were:

1. Many editors admitted they did not know the detailed makeup of journalism course programs.
2. Editors held a much lower regard for newly-hired graduates' understanding of newsroom principles than did educators.
3. Journalistic skills of graduates were evaluated much higher by educators than by editors . . . and school administrators rated these skills considerably higher than did teachers.
4. Of the editors who claimed to know, more than half said they believed journalism courses comprised more than one-fourth of journalism programs. Five out of eight underestimated the proportions of liberal arts courses

taken by journalism students.

5. Far more educators than editors believed journalism schools should engage in classroom analysis of the quality of the performance of the press.<sup>126</sup>

At the end of Hulteng's report were comments by respondents. The following comment was typical of many editors.

As the newsroom training director of a 200,000 circulation paper which publishes seven days a week, I have found many journalism school graduates who have totally inadequate education and background for newspaper jobs. Some of our trainees--and they are hand-picked and considered the best of what is available--have had to be taught basic grammar, spelling, verb tenses, etc. . . . The unfortunate fact is many journalism graduates simply cannot write a concise account of something that happened, or of an event that is to happen. Neither can they edit a piece of copy, nor do they have more than an illusory idea of what goes on in the mechanical departments. And they apparently have not been taught to work rapidly.<sup>127</sup>

At the conclusion of the Hulteng report, Chilton R. Bush, then director of the ANPA News Research Center, posed two questions implied by the findings. Bush noted the editors' very low evaluation of journalism graduates' writing, reporting and editing skills and remarked that high levels of skill in these areas could only be accomplished by considerable practice which would reduce the amount of time available to students for liberal studies. In this light, Bush questioned whether editors expect graduates to be

highly skilled and noted that editors must decide whether they prefer graduates who will become better newsmen in the long run or more competent beginners.

In framing his second question, Bush noted that, in recent years, many universities have insisted that schools of journalism use the same criteria as other departments for employing and promoting faculty members. Under these conditions, the school of journalism is compelled to search for faculty who not only have some years of graduate education, but also some years of professional experience. Bush noted this has proved a handicap to schools. The dilemma is whether to hire and promote teachers with adequate professional experience or teachers with competence in research methods but minimal or no professional experience.<sup>128</sup>

After serving as catalyst speaker for a seven-state journalism symposium in the fall of 1974, Ronald H. Einstoss concluded that the feeling of the group was that journalism education is doing a better job than ever but that it is not good enough. Einstoss cited comments from newspaper editors which lauded the products of better journalism schools and comments from some journalism educators who complained of shoddy performance of journalism education.

Many of those who chose to comment agreed that the important thing is for educators and editors to have a common objective, to strive

for optimum quality--that we need each other to bring it about.

What we're really talking about in this whole area of fitting the needs of contemporary consumers of the news are the competencies expected of today's journalists. What does one have to know and what does one have to be able to do to handle a reporter's job?<sup>129</sup>

Among the best lists of competencies reporters should have, as compiled by newspaper editors, is the one developed by the Associated Press Managing Editors (APME), Einstoss said. It comprised the following:

1. 'Newspaper intelligence': The ability to acquire, absorb information and see its relationships and significance.
2. Curiosity.
3. Language skills.
4. Integrity, a high sense of moral outrage.
5. A passion to communicate, and a sense of humor as they do it.
6. Understanding of structures: the newsroom, the community, the state, the nation, the world--how these are organized and disorganized, and how they function.
7. Understanding of community, country, world and how these developed.
8. Ability to find things out and explain them.
9. Ability to ask questions that get answers.
10. Street sense in covering a beat or story.
11. Motivation.
12. An acquisition of specific skills like reading fast, writing under pressure, organizing material (and files), grasping the meaning of figures, understanding the computer and its uses and recall of things seen, heard, and read.<sup>130</sup>

Editors told Einstoss they wanted beginning journalists who have the following qualities:

. . . a grasp of the fundamentals of the

trade--the English language, typing and spelling.

. . . intelligence, proven writing ability, a respect for accuracy, and dedication to the ideals of the profession.

. . . an education in the liberal arts--an education broad enough so that the applicant is likely to bring some understanding to areas of human activity which he or she will be covering.

. . . a working knowledge of government on the local level--city councils, boards of supervisors or commissioners, planning commissions, courts, law enforcement agencies.

. . . knowledge of the basics of economics, public finance and taxation. Today's sophisticated, consumer-oriented and cost-conscious readers want to know how much it's going to affect their pocketbooks.

Reporters who can observe, question and write; photographers who can shoot, soup and print; editors who can assign, develop and edit.

. . . a desire to learn, a willingness to work and enough personal discipline to get the job done--and on time.

. . . young journalists who want to know everything there is to know and who can't stand to keep it to themselves.<sup>131</sup>

Obviously, some of these desired competencies and qualities are areas over which schools of journalism could not logically be expected to exert control past that of being a promotive influence--integrity, for instance. Among others, the editors apparently desire exactly what most journalism schools say they are producing in their graduates. Yet many editors and educators express dissatisfaction with the qualities of journalism graduates. The group studied by Einstoss suggested several means by which they felt the gap between expectation and reality might be narrowed.

. . . recruit the academia veteran newspaper people who have paid their dues by being put to the professional test . . . Every journalism professor, on a regular basis, should return to the newsroom as a full-time newsman, at least in the summer . . . J-schools should be turning out graduates who want jobs in the 'general practice' of newspapering, rather than specialists . . . What we need are groundlevel reporters. Educators must insist that students have a knowledge of grammar, punctuation and standard rules of usage. If they don't, they should be counseled--or even flunked--out of J-school. It will be doing them a favor because we don't want them . . . we're going to have to be bold, imaginative and innovative in our approach to the presentation and packaging of the news. We can't do that without continuing help from educators.<sup>132</sup>

Einstoss said part of the burden of improving journalism education must be borne by editors and publishers. He quoted LaRue W. Gilleland, who told a 1973 California editor's conference:

Unless you take enough interest in journalism schools and departments to exert this kind of influence on university administrators, the quality of the graduates you hire will be far lower than it could or should be.<sup>133</sup>

In 1975, John DeMott wrote for The Quill that, despite the fact he believed journalism education is doing a better job than ever, he also was aware of a number of areas which needed improvement. Among those listed were:

1. Incompetent graduate assistants who can and do impede the instructional flow.
2. Some misanthropic and incompetent journalism professors in journalism education; faculty without teaching credentials and/or professional background.

3. Graduate assistants with neither professional experience nor at least the master's degree should not supervise journalism laboratory classes. Neither should graduate assistants be involved in research that commands no real credibility.
4. Schools must provide necessary support equipment and materials: professional journals, newswire services, up-to-date libraries, access to technological hardware.
5. Overinvolvement of faculty and students in non-supervised campus publications and the granting of academic credit for working on them should be avoided.
6. 'Slave labor' internships that are not integrated into the journalism program should not be tolerated.
7. Guest lecturers should not be used without proper program coordination.
8. Course standardization is totally absent in some programs.
9. At many institutions, student organizations are not constructively involved in the programs.
10. On-the-job continuing education should be provided for graduates and other professionals in the schools' service areas.
11. Graduate students should be used in developing projects that contribute to a positive ongoing research program of benefit to local professionals. <sup>134</sup>

Like many other constructive proposals for improvements in journalism education, DeMott's did not suggest how the changes should be funded.

A 1976 Wisconsin conference of editors and educators recommended that student-faculty ratios not exceed 15 to 1 in laboratory skills classes. Other recommendations were that: more staff training programs be established; internship programs be expanded; more women and minority persons

be hired by journalism departments; newspapers and universities develop their contacts; editors visit campuses to interview students and make them aware of the job situation; and that students be encouraged to take a broad look at job opportunities in departments other than the newsroom, such as circulation and advertising.<sup>135</sup>

Much literature suggests there are too few journalism instructors with credits in professional experience, while many academicians hold that they can't find professionally experienced instructors with academic credentials necessary for college teaching. Marian Pehowski, however, wrote in 1976 for Journalism Educator, that

There is an exploding population of massively educated and at least modestly experienced journalists whose chief function is to instruct in, conduct research about, and to evaluate the communications arts and their related sciences, rather than to work at gathering, disseminating, and interpreting information about contemporary events.

The primary object of the journalism practitioner's concern is the news, its background and ramifications. The journalistic profession itself is the principal object of the journalism professor's attention.

. . . The two specialists are both theoretical and practical--but about different matters . . . the pro who turns teacher enters new territory and takes on a new object for his professional efforts.

Ideally, he supplements the faculty with his applied experience, provides information on practices within his specialty and acts as a contact with off-campus professionals. Perhaps best of all, he may provide a career model for



students who are forming their concepts of the profession.

. . . Too often, however, there is first the dismay, then the disappointment of faculty members with the emigre from the city room . . . and his with them. It can be severe and disruptive.

Pehowski suggested this situation can be avoided through observance of a few simple cautions:

1. The practitioner-teacher should not be asked to teach or take on duties which are beyond his level or area of expertise.
2. He should not be overcompensated nor should he be regarded as 'cheap help.'
3. His work should be supervised to make sure he incorporates into it the necessary elements of course planning, grading, exams, faculty meetings, etc.
4. Full use should be made of his talents. He may be more adept at forums, seminars, panel, tutorials or demonstrations than at classroom lectures. He may also be valuable as a public contact with parents, donors, other academicians and professionals.
5. The pro should be urged to keep in touch with his field and to act as an emissary between his career area and the campus.
6. He should be encouraged to spread his special expertise around through contacts with students and faculty on an informal basis.
7. He should be addressed with a title which is appropriate to his background, not necessarily as, 'Professor,' particularly if that rank has not been earned.<sup>136</sup>

Common-sense alone should justify adherence to Pehowski's guidelines in transplanting professionals from the newsroom to the classroom. Unfortunately, however, the widely expounded dissatisfaction of academicians with transplanted professionals, and the disillusionment expressed by

many professionals-turned-teacher, stands as evidence that these hints are frequently ignored.

Wallace B. Eberhard justified his contention that journalism education should include a course in journalism management by stating that:

. . . if we can somehow fulfill the difficult dual role of preparing journalists who also will be effective managers, we may do more than we realize to improve mass media over the long run.

To justify his position, Eberhard used the simple logic of saying that journalism management positions eventually are filled by journalism practitioners. In 1977, he conducted a national survey with a 73 percent response, which showed that 45 percent of journalism departments offer at least one class in publications management. Only eight schools offer structured programs in the field. Seventy-three percent said they sensed a need for such classes, and 60.6 percent said they believed the industry was interested in management classes. Despite the fact only 48 percent of administrators sensed student interest in management classes, Eberhard said

In summary, most journalism administrators seem personally to feel there is a need for publications management courses in the curriculum. They also report fairly strong interest on the part of editors and publishers, even though student pressure for such offerings is ambivalent. A key question might be: If there appears to be a need for these courses, and if graduates do,

indeed, wind up in managerial positions, why don't journalism schools pay more heed to the long-range need?<sup>137</sup>

Many apparently believe courses in the methods of use and analysis of statistical data are important to today's student journalists. In most arguments, scientific methodology in the use of polls and surveys is seen as necessary in today's journalism. Eui Bun Lee and Cheryl Olkes, moreover, found in their 1976 study of Journalism Quarterly, Journal of Broadcasting, Journal of Communication and Public Opinion Quarterly that an understanding of the distributions of normal curves, t, chi square, and F was necessary to interpret nearly half of the articles appearing in these professional journals. Apparently, it is advisable for journalism students to be instructed in the use of statistical terminology and techniques, if for no other reason than to help them stay informed about developments in the field after graduation.<sup>138</sup>

In the April 1977 Journalism Educator, Clint C. Wilson II wrote that frequent statements by editors that they cannot find qualified black graduates of journalism programs is an indication that black students are not being properly prepared in schools of journalism. Wilson listed several factors he believed accounted for this deficiency. First was frequent inadequacy of black students' secondary

school preparation and a failure of colleges to provide remedial instruction in the language arts to correct these deficiencies.

Wilson, a black member of the journalism faculty at California State University Los Angeles, said a major cause of minority student failure in the post-college job market competition was the fact they are not sufficiently involved in extra-curricular journalism activities while in school. Wilson noted that experience as editors of college newspapers and officers in journalism societies are widely accepted by editors as measures of talented, highly motivated prospective employees. Without these experiences, Wilson said, minority students are seriously disadvantaged in competition for jobs.

According to Wilson, the single most important factor contributing to the current scarcity of blacks in the news media is the

lack of deep personal commitment among journalism educators and professionals to meet the hard challenges of these deficiencies that have prevented greater success in bringing blacks into more significant media participation.

As remedies, Wilson suggested that educators should consider adding basic grammar and spelling courses to the curriculum to meet needs of minorities and the growing numbers of other students deficient in language skills. Per-

sonalized faculty-student counseling sessions should determine the extent of each student's interest in pursuing a journalism career. Thus, once students have made their commitment, the tasks remaining for the educator are to maintain the highest academic and personal standards, provide special counseling and/or tutorial programs to help students meet those standards, encourage and motivate them toward reaching their potentials, and give them meaningful opportunities for responsible positions in laboratory or student publications programs. Black students, according to Wilson, must be encouraged to seek leadership positions on student newspaper staffs and be allowed to achieve to the extent of their abilities, based, of course, upon merit.

Wilson added that black students must be encouraged to join and, more importantly, assume active roles in the planning and leadership of campus journalism societies. Again, if educators have built strong personal relationships with their black students, Wilson said campus activities will not only be well attended by black students but will, perhaps, be planned by them.

Wilson said the obligation of educators does not end with students' graduation. They should give employers an honest evaluation of the students' skills and remaining deficiencies. In addition, the educator should not hesitate

to impress upon the employer his responsibility to continue close personal attention to the individual's development as a professional, Wilson said.<sup>139</sup>

Virtually every statement in the literature of journalism education urges more quantity, in terms of course variety, or more quality, in terms of technical expertise, on the part of journalism schools and departments. Many editors say that journalism education should produce graduates with professionally acceptable skills and a broad base of general knowledge. Many critics and academicians claim that journalism education should concentrate on the development of journalist-scholars who can improve media products in the public interest. In either case, the increasing breadth and depth of technological know-how editors desire, and the widening sea of sociological knowledge the academicians say journalists must be able to deal with effectively, defy attempts to fit all these into the traditional four-year journalism curriculum.

Is it Reasonable to Expect Journalism  
Education to Adequately Prepare Stu-  
dents for Journalism Careers in the  
Traditional Four-Year Program?

Several of the most illustrious commentators on journ-

alism education conclude that adequate journalism education in the final decades of the Twentieth Century must comprise a five-year program culminating in a master's degree.

Others, citing the extra expense and loss of time in the five-year programs, say that the traditional four-year sequence still can be effective.

Among the more articulate proponents of the latter view is Don Carson of the University of Arizona. He noted that, while it contained some questionable components, such as 16 hours of languages, two hours of physical education, and eight hours in science or math, the general education component at the University of Arizona comprised 43 units of worthwhile general education (including a 20-hour minor) which he viewed as sufficient for the background of the beginning newspaperman.

At Arizona, the general education requirement is complemented by a rigorous journalism program which comprises 18 units of reporting-writing, three units of copy editing, three units of newspaper management, and six units of history-law-press and society. Students in the journalism segment have been encouraged to work on campus or local papers to get as much practical experience under faculty direction that the system will allow. Stress is placed on thinking, reporting, and writing. To provide students with

ample opportunities for experience, the journalism department operates a reporting service at the state capital, a community news service which serves weekly newspapers in the state and publishes a community service newspaper and a journalism review.

Carson agreed with the NCEW suggestion that journalism schools should be given more autonomy. He said that, with more freedom to determine curricula, the credits now devoted to foreign languages, math-science and physical education could be put to more productive use in other academic areas. Carson flatly disagreed with the NCEW suggestion that journalism schools should offer more general survey courses. He said this would tend to reduce the desire to hire seasoned news professionals and would promote a movement toward more Ph.D.'s on the faculty. In conclusion, Carson strongly agreed with NCEW that journalism schools have the help of working professionals if they are to reach or maintain a status of preparers of thoughtful news professionals as opposed to thoughtful researchers whose findings, while often significant, too often are communicated in a language that the readers cannot understand.<sup>140</sup>

The Carson plan is obviously a rigorous, highly practical program that doubtless would be approved by many newspaper editors who seek employees who can perform



satisfactorily the first day on the job. It fails, however, to fill the need many have expressed for programs which stress training to improve media products through wide exposure to the theories, methods and problems of social science.

Stephenson and Merrill, at the University of Missouri, made what is perhaps one of the most innovating proposals to date for the improvement of journalism education. For journalism education to comprise a truly professional degree program, they suggested that theoretical journalism foundation subjects, which traditionally have been offered as part of masters' programs, be transferred to the junior and senior years. In their place, the authors suggested that journalism skills classes, traditionally scheduled during the last two undergraduate years, be presented as a fifth, professional year of study and that graduates should be awarded both the A.B. and M.A. degrees upon completion.<sup>141</sup>

Since the theoretical foundations would have been laid during the last two years of undergraduate study, Stephenson and Merrill said the professional skills subjects would hold a greater meaning and relevance for the students and could, therefore, be presented in greater depth and with greater rigor than in the past. A further advantage claimed by the authors was opportunity to weed out students with low motiv-

ation and/or aptitude before the skills classes were attempted, thus presenting an opportunity for upgrading teaching in skills classes.

It should be noted the Stephenson-Merrill proposal does not comprise the first time a five-year program for journalism education has been drawn up. In 1939-40, the catalog of Northwestern University listed a program concentrating on professional training in the fourth and fifth years. The B.S. and the M.S. in journalism were granted upon completion of the program.<sup>142</sup>

In 1975-76, Professor Curtis MacDougall, on invitation from the NCEW, designed two journalism curricula he believed would accommodate three of the major requisites of adequate journalism education: instruction in journalism skills, foundations in political science, economics, and sociology, and a wide choice of elective classes to satisfy individual student interests and needs. MacDougall's model curricula also satisfied the need expressed by many journalism professionals and educators for a truly "professional" journalism education program.

Key ingredients of MacDougall's programs are a fifth year of concentrated advanced journalism instruction which leads to a master's degree and individualized faculty advisement by a dedicated staff. MacDougall titled one of his

plans "Free Elective System" and the other "Minimum Requirements System." In both, 25 percent of course work comprises electives. The Free Elective Plan calls for part of electives to be chosen from the three foundations listed while the Minimum Requirements plan specifies classes within these areas. In both plans, the foreign language and math-science requirements were eliminated in favor of electives. In addition, MacDoudall stressed that all written composition inside or outside the journalism school should be journalistically styled.<sup>143</sup> An outline of the two degree plans comprise Appendixes A and B.

Additional time and financial burdens excepted, Professor MacDougall's curriculum plans have much to commend them. They could promote the professionalization of journalism education in the truly professional sense. The individual interests and needs of students, likewise, apparently are well planned for. To avoid the displeasure of those who would point out that no practical experience is required in the plans, however, Professor MacDougall's stress on the importance of faculty advisement would need to be observed. This advisement would need to strongly recommend that at least some "elective" hours be for practicum or internship credit.

How do Journalism Graduates Assess The  
Adequacy of Their College Preparation?

A Newspaper Fund report from a study of 1977 journalism graduates stated that 45 percent of respondents said their journalism training was "very adequate." Forty-six percent said it was "adequate" and only 10 percent were unhappy.<sup>144</sup> This, of course, measured only those graduates who found jobs. Perhaps significantly, a majority of the graduates studied who had newspaper jobs had engaged in practical experience programs of some sort during their college years.

A dimension of student satisfaction with journalism school preparation is largely absent in literature. This comprises the evaluation given journalism education by those students who leave media employment after only a few years. A Michigan State University study in 1972 showed that five years after graduation, 40 percent of the graduates studied were no longer in media jobs. This is 40 percent of the students who found media jobs.<sup>145</sup> Does this indicate a disillusionment with the field that might have been avoided with better advisement or better preparation?

Some apparently believe better counseling would detour many students from journalism and, thus, an unpleasant work

experience later. Conversely, better counsel could prepare more realistically those who remain for what awaits them. Harold C. Shaver wrote in 1978 that journalism educators need to assess how well they are preparing students for the realities of the news-editorial and advertising jobs ahead. Shaver said much attention is devoted to the processes involved in putting out a paper or putting together an advertising campaign, but are future reporters aware of the ways in which their jobs might negatively affect their lives? Shaver said that if journalism graduates went into their first jobs aware of the reactions many people in other occupations have to their own first jobs, they might less likely become quickly disenchant ed and change jobs.<sup>146</sup>

A major part of what is probably one of the most important contributions to journalism graduates' emigration from the field was discussed by Daniel MacDonald for Editor & Publisher in 1977:

The true problem, I believe, comes five or ten years down the road from professional apprenticeship--when that medical intern and law clerk have their own practices, that rookie cop has won his sergeant's stripes, the management trainee has become a junior executive, and our hypothetical reporter has been left behind, way behind, in income.

This is the point when our profession loses some of its best people, when the still-young veteran with a first batch of grey hairs decides to 'take a walk' into public relations, private business, belated law school or some other

alternative. I know a disturbing number of young veterans who've taken this reluctant step, and an equally disturbing number who consider it each time they see a former peer pass them by in other professions. The dedication which allows a beginner to accept little is a dedication which often fades quickly with the onset of family responsibilities, a receding hairline and a feeling of being mired.

The person entering our news business generally doesn't expect the income potential of his peers who decide to become surgeons or attorneys. But I don't believe that he expects to be left as far behind as he often is, a factor which I regard as apparent in the disturbing defection rate of competent, still-young veterans.<sup>147</sup>

Obviously, this situation is not the fault of journalism education. It is a fact of life in the newspaper business. To prevent students from job disillusionment, however, it would seem to be a fact of life which should be dealt with candidly by journalism educators.

Another aspect of newspaper business which apparently "turns off" many young journalists is that, all too often, they are not allowed to practice their high principled ideas of how journalism should be practiced, because their employers are not interested in that sort of journalism. This, too, along with the few options available for attempting to change the situation, should be brought to student journalists' attention. Beatrice Linehan found in her 1971 study of Wisconsin newsmen that the higher the degree of professional orientation held by newsmen, the higher

was their job dissatisfaction.<sup>148</sup>

Edward J. Trayes, in his 1976 survey of editors of 52 Associated Press Managing Editors member newspapers, said that stated hiring practices of responding editors was very unsystematic, that it was based in many cases on traits and qualities which are different, if not impossible, to measure systematically. Further, some traits which can be measured are rarely taken into account to any great extent.

Responding editors said they placed heaviest emphasis on:

1. Personality and character and nature of ambitions of applicants.
2. Experience on other dailies and extent of journalism education.<sup>149</sup>

These are, in the main, aspects over which journalism education could not be expected to exert direct control. Educators should, however, be capable of counseling students about the existence of such practices and the best methods of dealing with them.

Finally, an area of student advisement which apparently is overlooked frequently, is that of steering students into journalism occupations other than news reporting. William Trombley quoted Thomas E. Engleman, executive director of the Newspaper Fund, as saying in 1976 that many good jobs are "going begging." At the time, Engleman said

a number of newspapers in the East were in need of copy editors.<sup>150</sup>

Why should not students who have difficulty writing under pressure, but who have talent for precise grammar, spelling, and punctuation, be advised to seek training and employment as copy editors or editorial writers? Might not students with the same writing-under-pressure difficulty, but who have a well developed visual sense, make good photographers, art directors or layout persons? These possibilities all seem to present opportunities for really creative advisement of students. This takes into account a wider horizon of job placement possibilities and might avoid misplacement which can lead to job disillusionment and frustration. This sort of comprehensive advisement quite obviously would take more time than the "sign the trial schedule sheet and smile" type of routine which so often prevails. It just might also be one of the most important steps schools and departments of journalism could take to improve quality of service.

#### Survey of Literature: Conclusions

Several points of fairly general agreement emerge from the literature on journalism education. Since journalism education lacks the standardization of the fields of law



and medicine, these points, in the main, pose questions, rather than answer them. Later sections of this study attempt to answer some of these questions.

Among the points generally agreed upon in the literature are:

The role of journalism education needs to be assessed in terms of whether its major function is that of feeding the news industry with graduates who have the needed technical and language skills, or whether it should produce graduates with the background and awareness necessary for improving news media in the public interest. What proportions of these dimensions of journalism training should schools and departments build into their programs?

There is a growing doubt as to whether adequate preparation for journalism careers can be acquired in the traditional four-year undergraduate degree plan. How do educators and newspaper editors react to the proposals made for five-year professional journalism degree plans?

Enrollment growth has reached a critical level at many institutions. Many believe that, without commensurate increases in resources, this can only cause damaging compromises in quality of instruction. Should public institutions observe an "open door" admission policy, admitting all students who desire instruction in journalism, or should only

the more promising students be allowed to pursue degrees in journalism? If the open door policy is followed, should the news industry be expected to subsidize part of the increased costs?

Hands-on instruction in use of new media technologies is extremely expensive to administer. Should this type of instruction be left for news media to administer after graduates are hired? If schools are expected to provide this phase of instruction, thus saving newspapers the expense of on-the-job training, is it not reasonable for the news industry to provide some of the necessary expensive hardware?

Because a number of relatively new disciplines have become important to the repertoire of working journalists--urban problems, energy conservation, ecology, quantitative studies and others--many believe the ACEJ recommendation of a 75-to-25-percent ratio of liberal arts subjects to journalism classes needs to be re-evaluated. Would it be better to institute journalism-school administered classes in these subjects since such classes in outside departments often are not relevant to the approach needed by journalists? This, of course, would necessitate an increase in the proportion of journalism course work in the degree programs.

Most newspaper editors responding to recent surveys

expressed disappointment with language skills of recent journalism graduates. Is this disappointment related to an ideal of what journalism education should provide, or do these editors really expect students to have higher levels of skills upon graduation from journalism programs?

When considering applicants for reporting jobs, many editors apparently place much importance on practical experience. Should internships and/or on-the-job training be a required part of journalism education?

It has been noted that a knowledge of quantitative research methods is necessary for an understanding of nearly half the articles on journalism in the professional journals. In addition, more and more "precision journalism" is appearing in the nation's press. Should methods and analysis of quantitative research be included in undergraduate journalism degree programs?

Those who would promote the improvement of news media in the public interest say that ethics, press responsibility and news criticism must be parts of journalism education. Do these disciplines warrant places in undergraduate journalism degree plans?

Two hypotheses were suggested by the pilot study and the literature. First, it seemed likely that significantly different levels of agreement with the importance of certain

aspects of the content and purpose of education for journalism would exist between editors and educators. It seemed likely that editors, more than educators, would view the proper role of journalism education as that of producing reporters with a mastery of reporting and writing skills, rather than producing those with an awareness of media responsibility to the public, which, in turn, might motivate them to improve the product.

In order to seek substantiation or refutation of these hypotheses, the survey questionnaire comprised items which asked for agreement levels on the importance of liberal arts and social science background, practical experience training in reporting and writing, hands-on experience with electronic editing equipment and the expectations the respondents had for graduates' expertise in these and other areas. In addition, the respondents were asked to express their reactions to the adequacy of the traditional four-year journalism curriculum and to some of the more carefully planned alternatives to it, including proposals for five-year plans which would culminate in masters' degrees.

## FOOTNOTES

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<sup>3</sup>Ibid., pp. 24-25.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., pp. 21-22

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## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

With the over-all purpose of the improvement of news-editorial journalism education in mind, the writer interviewed heads of schools and departments of journalism, reviewed the literature on journalism education, and conducted a pilot study of the editors of newspapers in the Southwestern United States. The pilot study data indicated many editors are not at all satisfied with the level of skills of recent news-editorial journalism graduates. The data from the pilot study, the literature, and the interviews generated two hypotheses which were tested in this study. These hypotheses were:

1. News-Editorial Journalism Educators will show higher mean agreement on the Perceived and Expected journalism skills of news-editorial graduates than will Newspaper Editors.
2. On matters pertaining to the 'professionalization' of news-editorial journalism education, Educators will show higher mean agreement than will Newspaper Editors.

In the attempt to substantiate or refute these hypotheses, two independent and one dependent variable were studied. The first independent variable was respondent

type with two levels, Educators versus Editors. The second independent variable was the survey instrument items (see Appendix C). The dependent variable was the mean agreement the two respondent types displayed for the items on the survey instrument.

The first-level independent variable was the administrators of ACEJ-accredited sequences in news-editorial journalism. The second-level was a selected group of newspaper editors. These groups were perceived to have opinions relevant to both the overall purpose of the study and the hypotheses.

The survey instrument comprised 26 items pertaining to various aspects of journalism education and the Perceived and Expected skills levels of recent graduates. Respondents were asked to register their level of agreement with each statement on a five-point scale which ranged from strong agreement (assigned a value of five points), through moderate agreement (four points), neutral reaction (three points), moderate disagreement (two points), to strong disagreement (one point). Items dealing with each of several dimensions of the subject under study were blocked so that mean agreement for each block could be compared with that of other blocks.

For example, one of the blocks dealt with the level of



journalism skills of recent graduates as Perceived by each of the two respondent groups. The second block dealt with the level of journalism skills Editors and Educators Expected students to have attained by graduation. The two groups were sent identical survey instruments.

### Sampling Plan

The Educator group comprised 32 of the 63 heads of schools and departments of journalism which were offering ACEJ-accredited sequences in news-editorial journalism in the year 1978. The Editor group, comprised respondents from editors of daily newspapers of fewer than 100,000 circulation. This sample, which included editors from every state, was selected because, as noted earlier, these newspapers were predicted to be the ones most likely to provide jobs for journalism graduates. Figures obtained from the Editor & Publisher Yearbook for 1979 listed a total of 1,631 newspapers in this circulation class.

It was decided that a 20 percent sample of the editors of these newspapers would be surveyed (327). The percentage of the total of daily newspapers was first calculated from the numbers of such papers in each state. A corresponding percentage of editors from each state was selected at random to receive questionnaires. Of the 327 instruments mailed to

editors, 127 usable responses were received (38.8%). Postmarks on the responses indicated that 43 states definitely were represented. There were 13 additional usable responses which did not have legible postmarks.

### Analysis Procedure

Mean agreement with each item and block of items was calculated for the Educator group, the Editor group and for the groups combined. Differences between mean agreement of the groups were tested for significance, as well as were differences in mean agreement among items and blocks of items.

On the two five-item blocks measuring Perceived skills levels of graduates and Expected skills levels of graduates, item correlations were run. A two-factor correlated analysis of variance with repeated measures on one factor established any significance of the difference between mean agreements of Educators and Editors, and between mean agreement assigned to Perceived and Expected skills of graduates. Additionally, variance analysis determined if agreements with statements about Perceived and Expected skills was related to whether respondents were Editors or Educators.

A two-tailed t-test was performed on mean agreements of the two types of respondents to statements within a third

block of items related to the Professionalization of journalism education. These statements dealt with media criticism, training in research methods, autonomy for journalism schools, and media responsibility to the public interest. Differences in mean agreement between the Educator and Editor groups on the items and the block were tested for statistical significance.

A fourth block of items sought data which would provide descriptions of the respondents' perception of the roles of journalism education. Items in this block dealt with the relative importance of practical versus theoretical skills and were studied as separate items.

A fifth block of items presented alternatives to the current four-year news-editorial curriculum in which approximately 25 percent of the course work is devoted to journalism subjects and 75 percent to general education and liberal arts subjects. Again, the items in this block were studied individually.

## CHAPTER IV

### FINDINGS

A major objective of this study was to identify overall differences and similarities between Educators and Editors on Perceived versus Expected skill levels of news-editorial journalism graduates. Therefore, analysis of variance of the two sample groups and the blocks of items which provided measures of the groups' perception of these skill levels received first consideration. Analysis of relationships between individual item mean agreement scores were relegated to a later section. On the two skill-level blocks, for both Editors and Educators, there were five or more pairs of items correlated at or above the .05 level of statistical confidence.

#### Perceived Versus Expected Skills

Table I comprises the factorial analysis of variance of the relationships found between Editors and Educators Perceived versus Expected skills of graduates, and interaction of variables.

From the table it is obvious that Educators and Editors differed in their agreement to questionnaire items, overall. ( $f=30.48$ ,  $df=157$ ,  $p.<.01$ ). Likewise, mean agreement to items relating to Perceived skills differed from mean agreement to items relating to Expected skills. ( $f=153.35$ ,  $df=158$ ,  $p.<.01$ ). However, the difference between mean Perceived and Expected skills was not related to type of respondent.

TABLE I

TWO-FACTOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE: TYPE OF RESPONDENT  
BY PERCEIVED AND EXPECTED SKILLS  
OF NEWS-EDITORIAL GRADUATES

Source	df	ss	ms	F	p
Total	318	4229.67			
Between Subjects Effects	158	1658.89			
Between Editors and Educators	1	268.28	268.28	30.48	< .01
Between Subjects Error	157	1390.61	8.86		
Within Subjects Effects	160	2640.78			
Perceived vs. Expected Skills	1	1292.03	1292.03	153.35	< .01
Interaction: Respondent Type and Skills	1	17.58	17.58	2.09	
Within Subjects Error	158	1331.17	8.43		

Table II shows mean agreements of Educators and Editors to statements regarding Perceived and Expected skill levels of news-editorial graduates. A score of 5.00 would indicate strong agreement with the blocks of statements. A score of 4.00 would indicate agreement; 3.00 would indicate neutral reaction; 2.00 would indicate moderate disagreement; and 1.00 would indicate strong disagreement.

TABLE II  
 MEAN AGREEMENTS WITH PERCEIVED AND EXPECTED  
 SKILLS OF NEWS-EDITORIAL GRADUATES  
 BY EDUCATORS AND EDITORS

	Perceived	Expected	Group Means
Educators	3.37	4.26	3.82
Editors	2.79	3.91	3.35
Mean Totals	3.08	4.09	3.59

The combined mean response of Educators and Editors (3.59) indicated they leaned toward moderate agreement with the two batteries of items. Educators, however, saw skill levels as higher than did Editors (3.82 vs. 3.35). This held true for statements about both Perceived and Expected skills.

Statements about the Expected skills of graduates drew higher mean agreement from the average respondent than did statements about observed skills (4.09 vs. 3.08). This was mostly due to Editors' relatively low agreement with statements about Perceived or observed skills, compared to Educators. In other words, Educators and Editors tended to differ more in agreement on skills they observed (3.37 vs. 2.79) than on skills they expected of news-editorial graduates (4.26 vs. 3.91). The writer hastens to add that this is only a tendency, since the interaction F-ratio was not significant.

Table III illustrates the differences in mean agreement with the items in Block I. This block was intended to measure the differences in Perceived journalistic skills of recent news-editorial graduates, as viewed by Educators and Editors.

Educators and Editors differed on three of the five items regarding skills they Perceived recent news-editorial graduates to have. They were similar in their slight tendency to disagree that graduates had had adequate instruction in public opinion polling methods. Also, both groups tended to agree moderately that graduates were adequately informed about social concerns. As groups, Educators tended to rate moderate agreement with the concept that Perceived skills of

of graduates are acceptable while Editors registered mild disagreement (3.40 vs. 2.86).

TABLE III  
MEAN AGREEMENT OF EDUCATORS AND EDITORS TO ITEMS  
PERTAINING TO PERCEIVED SKILLS OF  
RECENT JOURNALISM GRADUATES

Items	Educators	Editors	p.
Adequate reporting experience to be a beginning reporter	4.31	3.01	p. <.01
Experience with electronic newsroom equipment	3.26	2.78	p. <.05
Instruction in polling methods	2.31	2.35	n.s.
Understanding of local government	3.44	2.77	p. <.01
Informed about social concerns	3.66	3.41	n.s.
Mean Totals	3.40	2.86	

On disagreements, Educators perceived skills to be higher than did the Editors from the standpoints of reporting and electronic newsroom experience and understanding of local government. In fact, Editors registered near neutral,



or below neutral perceptions in all three areas. Educators, however, more than moderately agreed that recent graduates had adequate reporting experience. They leaned slightly toward moderate agreement that graduates had adequate electronic newsroom equipment experience and even closer to moderate agreement that recent graduates have adequate understanding of local government.

Table IV shows the mean agreement between Editors and Educators on the items in Block II which dealt with the skill levels the groups Expected of news-editorial graduates.

Educators and Editors displayed significantly different levels of agreement on four of the five items pertaining to Expected skill levels of news-editorial graduates. Both groups displayed moderately strong agreement (4.75 and 4.45) with the concept that graduates should have adequate laboratory reporting experience to qualify them as entry-level reporters. Educators displayed a significantly higher mean agreement than did Editors on this item ( $p. < .05$ ). Educators, perhaps surprisingly, displayed significantly higher agreement with the idea that graduates should have experience with electronic newsroom equipment than did Editors.

TABLE IV  
 MEAN AGREEMENT OF EDUCATORS AND EDITORS TO ITEMS  
 PERTAINING TO EXPECTED SKILLS OF  
 NEWS-EDITORIAL GRADUATES

Items	Educators	Editors	p.
Graduates should have adequate reporting experience	4.75	4.45	p. < .05
Graduates should have experience with electronic newsroom equipment	4.06	3.69	p. < .054
Graduates should be taught to conduct opinion polls	3.31	3.09	n.s.
Graduates should have wide social sciences background	4.72	4.41	p. < .05
Graduates should have knowledge of emerging social concerns	4.44	4.02	p. < .01
Mean Totals	4.26	3.93	4.08

Barely moderate agreement was displayed by both groups with the idea that graduates should be capable of conducting public opinion polls. The difference between mean agreement was not significant on this item. Educators registered a significantly higher agreement with the statement that

graduates should have a wide social sciences background than did Editors, although both groups showed more than moderate agreement with the concept. On the issue of whether graduates should be aware of emerging social concerns, such as race relations, the Educators again showed a significantly higher level of agreement, but both groups registered more than moderate agreement with the statement. Group means for the block of items showed that Educators expected more of graduates than did Editors.

#### Professionalization of Journalism Education

A third block of items sought to determine to what extent Educators and/or Editors agreed with the need to "professionalize" journalism education. On a scale of one to five, where five indicated strong agreement, the Editors recorded a mean agreement of 3.81; Educators, a 4.01. The combined mean of 3.86 indicated the average respondent leaned toward moderate agreement with the concept. The Educator group displayed moderately high agreement (4.01). While the Editors expressed agreement at a significantly lower level (3.81,  $t=2.03$ ,  $df=158$ ,  $p. .05$ ), their level was still on the positive side of neutral reaction.

TABLE V  
 MEAN AGREEMENTS ON ITEMS DEALING WITH  
 PROFESSIONALIZATION OF  
 JOURNALISM EDUCATION

Items	Educators	Editors	p.
A class in media ethics should be required in news-editorial curricula	3.97	4.27	p. <.05
Media criticism should be woven into the teaching of news-editorial classes	4.25	3.79	p. <.01
News-editorial students should study research methods	4.06	3.85	n.s.
Journalism schools should be autonomous	4.03	3.36	p. <.01
Journalism course work should be presented within the context of media responsibility to the public	3.75	3.85	n.s.
Mean Totals	4.01	3.82	3.91

The combined mean of 3.91 indicated the average respondent leaned toward moderate agreement with the concept that news-editorial journalism education should be professionalized in the sense that course work should be presented in an ethical framework which stresses media responsibility

to the public interest. The Educator mean was significantly higher (4.01 vs. 3.82,  $p. < .05$ ) than was the Editor mean. While no major differences in principle emerged, Editors, perhaps surprisingly, rated the importance of classes in media ethics, and media responsibility to the public interest, higher than did Educators.

Table VI comprises mean agreements of Educators and Editors on statements pertaining to the importance of some of the Perceived roles of news-editorial journalism education. Since not all the items were intended to measure the same concept, group means for this block of items are not important. Only the mean responses to the individual items were studied.

The fact that none of the differences between the mean agreements of Educators and Editors on the items in Table VI quite reached the  $p. < .05$  level of confidence indicates the groups were in substantial agreement on most of the items, in principle at least. Editors had a nearly significantly higher agreement that the major role of journalism education is that of qualifying the graduates to hold entry-level reporting jobs. Both groups moderately agreed that media criticism should be a function of journalism education and that the basics of journalism skills should be stressed in journalism education.

TABLE VI  
 MEAN AGREEMENTS ON PERCEIVED ROLES OF  
 NEWS-EDITORIAL JOURNALISM EDUCATION

Items	Educators	Editors	p.
Major role of news-editorial journalism education is to qualify students as beginning reporters	4.00	4.30	p. <.059
Media criticism should be a function of news-editorial journalism education	4.22	3.86	n.s.
Reporting and editing teachers should have substantial professional experience	4.59	4.63	n.s.
Journalism should stress basics and not over-do latest technologies	4.19	4.27	n.s.
Poorly qualified applicants should be screened out of news-editorial education	3.56	4.00	p. <.051
English usage tests should be used to indicate need for remedial work as a requirement for entry into journalism programs	3.56	3.31	n.s.

In a qualitative vein, both groups showed moderately high agreement that skills teachers should have had substantial professional experience prior to teaching. Like-

wise, both groups agreed that English usage tests should be used to indicate the need for remedial work and that some form of screening out unqualified applicants should be enforced.

Table VII illustrates the ways in which the Educators and Editors reacted to some of the proposals which have been made to change the organization of news-editorial journalism programs. It is clear in the table that despite the fact mean agreements differed significantly on three of the five items, Educators and Editors, with one exception, tended to lean in the same direction regarding the concepts.

Although, as noted, Educators and Editors tended to lean in the same direction on most of the items in Table VII, it was in this block that one of only three cases occurred of all the survey items in which the two group mean agreements fell on opposite sides of the neutral point. Editors very mildly agreed that a good Liberal Arts education would be adequate for beginning reporters while Educators disagreed moderately. In general, the responses indicated both groups favor the traditional four-year program over most of the alternatives which have been proposed in the literature.

TABLE VII  
 MEAN AGREEMENTS TO PROPOSALS FOR ALTERNATIVES  
 TO CURRENT NEWS-EDITORIAL JOURNALISM  
 PROGRAMS: EDUCATORS VERSUS EDITORS

Items	Educators	Editors	p.
Four years not adequate for news-editorial preparation	2.44	2.73	n.s.
Good Liberal Arts education adequate for beginning reporters	2.45	3.06	p. <.01
Four-year programs would be adequate if more journalism and less Liberal Arts were presented	1.97	2.67	p. <.01
Five-year master's program in news-editorial journalism is desirable now	2.66	2.54	n.s.
Concentrated two-year journalism program coupled with a second, non-journalism major better than current four-year programs	2.34	2.94	p. <.01

Comparison of Educators and  
 Editors by Items

The following is a list of comparisons between Educators' and Editors' mean agreements to each of the 26 survey items. With these means are listed the levels of



significance of the differences. Once again, the scale ran from five points for strong agreement to one point for strong disagreement. In some cases, the wording of the item statements was abbreviated to save space in listing.

1. Recent news-editorial graduates seem to have had adequate laboratory reporting experience to qualify them as beginning reporters.  
 Educator mean: 4.31  
 Editor mean: 3.01  
 p. <.01
2. Most recent graduates seem to have had "hands on" experience with electronic newsroom equipment.  
 Educator mean: 3.26  
 Editor mean: 2.78  
 p. <.05
3. Most recent news-editorial graduates seem to have had instruction in statistically reliable polling methods.  
 Educator mean: 2.31  
 Editor mean: 2.35  
 p. not significant
4. Most recent news-editorial graduates display an understanding of local government adequate for beginning reporters.  
 Educator mean: 3.44  
 Editor mean: 2.77  
 p. <.01
5. Most news-editorial graduates seem to be well enough informed about emerging social concerns such as race relations for them to function as beginning reporters.  
 Educator mean: 3.66  
 Editor mean: 3.41  
 p. not significant
6. Graduates should be expected to have had adequate laboratory reporting experience to allow them to function as beginning reporters.  
 Educator mean: 4.75  
 Editor mean: 4.45  
 p. <.05

7. Graduates should be expected to have had experience with electronic newsroom equipment.  
Educator mean: 4.06  
Editor mean: 4.45  
p. < .05
8. Graduates should be able to conduct statistically reliable opinion polls.  
Educator mean: 3.31  
Editor mean: 3.09  
p. not significant
9. Graduates should have had a wide social sciences background.  
Educator mean: 4.72  
Editor mean: 4.41  
p. < .05
10. Graduates should have knowledge of emerging social concerns such as race relations.  
Educator mean: 4.44  
Editor mean: 4.02  
p. < .01
11. The major role of news-editorial journalism education is helping graduates qualify as successful beginning reporters.  
Educator mean: 4.00  
Editor mean: 4.30  
p. < .059
12. Media criticism should be a function of news-editorial journalism education.  
Educator mean: 4.22  
Editor mean: 3.86  
p. not significant
13. Reporting and editing teachers should have had significant professional experience.  
Educator mean: 4.59  
Editor mean: 4.63  
p. not significant
14. Journalism education should stress basics and not overdo the latest technologies.  
Educator mean: 4.19  
Editor mean: 4.27  
p. not significant

15. Journalism education should screen out poorly qualified applicants.  
Educator mean: 3.56  
Editor mean: 4.00  
p. <.051
16. English usage tests should be used to indicate need for remedial work as a requirement for entrance into journalism programs.  
Educator mean: 3.56  
Editor mean: 3.31  
p. not significant
17. At least one class in media ethics should be required in news-editorial curricula.  
Educator mean: 3.97  
Editor mean: 4.27  
p. <.05
18. An element of media criticism should be included in the teaching of most news-editorial classes.  
Educator mean: 4.25  
Editor mean: 3.79  
p. <.01
19. Research methods should be studied by news-editorial students.  
Educator mean: 4.06  
Editor mean: 3.85  
p. not significant
20. Journalism schools should be autonomous like schools of law and medicine.  
Educator mean: 4.03  
Editor mean: 3.36  
p. <.01
21. Journalism course work should be presented within the context of media responsibility to the public.  
Educator mean: 3.75  
Editor mean: 3.85  
p. not significant
22. Four years is not adequate time for news-editorial preparation.  
Educator mean: 2.44  
Editor mean: 2.73  
p. not significant

23. A good liberal Arts education is adequate for beginning reporters.  
Educator mean: 2.45  
Editor mean: 3.06  
p. <.01
24. Four-year programs would be adequate if more journalism and less Liberal Arts were presented.  
Educator mean: 1.97  
Editor mean: 2.67  
p. <.01
25. A five-year program culminating in a master's degree in news-editorial journalism is desirable now.  
Educator mean: 2.66  
Editor mean: 2.54  
p. not significant
26. A concentrated two-year journalism program coupled with a second, non-journalism major would be better than current four-year programs.  
Educator mean: 2.34  
Editor mean: 2.94  
p. <.01

In most cases, it can be seen that, while the groups differed significantly in 46 percent of the cases, both Editors and Educators leaned in the same direction. In only three cases did the groups differ diametrically, Items 2, 4 and 23. One of the most pointed of the findings was that both groups disagreed with all alternative plans to the traditional four-year journalism program including MacDougall's five year master's program.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The problem of finding ways to improve news-editorial journalism education was approached through an effort to establish similarities and differences of opinion between Educators and Editors about news-editorial education. Administrators of ACEJ-accredited news-editorial sequences were chosen to represent the Educators. A national sample of editors of newspapers in the under-100,000 circulation class was drawn to represent the newspaper industry.

A survey instrument comprising 26 statements, related to news-editorial journalism education, as outlined from the literature of journalism, a pilot study, and interviews with journalism school administrators was designed and identical instruments were mailed to each group. Blocks of survey items and the two sample groups comprised the independent variables studied. The respondents' mean agreement to items and the relations among these scores comprised the dependent variable. In other words, mean agreement was

thought to vary with type of respondent and type of item block.

The literature, the pilot study, and interviews generated two hypotheses related to the variables:

1. News-editorial journalism Educators will show higher mean agreement on the Perceived and Expected journalism skills of news-editorial graduates than will newspaper Editors.
2. On matters pertaining to the "professionalization" of news-editorial journalism education, Educators will show higher mean agreement than will Editors.

Mean agreement to the survey items by groups of respondents were calculated and statistical tests were used to locate significant differences between the groups' opinions. Two-tailed t-tests were used to test significances of differences between the mean scores of Educators and Editors. A two-factor analysis of variance with repeated measures on one factor was used to identify differences between Educators and Editors on two blocks of items designed to measure Perceived adequacy of current graduates' journalistic skills and Expected levels of the same skills.

The first hypothesis was supported in that, on three of the five items pertaining to Perceived skills of recent graduates, the mean agreement scores of Educators and Editors differed significantly. Educators more than Editors agreed that recent graduates had had adequate laboratory re-

porting experience. Educators moderately agreed that graduates had "hands on" experience with electronic newsroom equipment while Editors moderately disagreed. Educators moderately agreed that graduates had adequate understanding of local government while Editors moderately disagreed.

In the area of Expected skill levels of journalism graduates, Educator and Editor mean agreement scores differed significantly on four of the five items. These differences, however, were in degree, not in direction. Educators registered a higher agreement with the concept that graduates should be expected to have adequate reporting experience by graduation than did Editors. Educators agreed more than did Editors that graduates should have electronic newsroom-equipment experience. Educators' agreement with the importance of a wide social-sciences background to beginning journalists was higher than that of Editors. Finally, Educators agreed at a significantly higher level than did Editors that graduates should be informed about emerging social concerns such as race relations. On the survey as a whole, the respondent groups' mean agreement scores differed beyond the .05 level of statistical confidence on 46 percent of the items.

The second hypothesis, that Educators were more likely to agree with statements related to the promotion of "pro-

professionalization" of journalism education than were Editors was supported at the .05 level of statistical confidence (4.01 vs. 3.82,  $t = 2.026$ ,  $df = 158$ ). This was primarily due to the high agreement levels Educators assigned to the concept of the importance of media criticism and the need for journalism school autonomy. In fact, Editors rated the importance of classes in media ethics significantly higher than did Educators. Editors also rated the concept of media responsibility to the public interest higher than did Educators, although not significantly so.

In the main, it might be observed that both groups leaned in the same direction, toward wanting to see graduates competent in both basic journalistic skills as well as in adjunct skills and attitudes which might motivate them to improve newspapers in the public interest. Both groups agreed they expected news-editorial graduates to have a wide social sciences background and a foundation in professional ethics.

Editors registered mild disagreement with the concept that skills of recent graduates are adequate for beginning reporters while Educators moderately agreed with the concept. Editors indicated they saw a need for a greater level of improvement between currently Observed and Expected skills but they recorded a lower mean level of expectation



for future improvements in graduates' skills than did Educators.

### Conclusions

Although the limitations of validity and reliability imposed by any mail survey make generalizations risky at best, a number of interesting conclusions directly relating to the groups studied can be made with some confidence. It is clear that both the Editors and the Educators are less than enthusiastic about the level of journalistic skills of recent news-editorial graduates. The group agreement on items pertaining to Perceived skills of recent graduates differed significantly, with Educators rating Perceived skills higher than Editors. Mean agreement on Perceived versus Expected skills of graduates indicated Editors saw a need for greater improvement than did Educators, despite the fact that Educators compiled a higher mean agreement level on skills Expected of graduates than did Editors.

This leads to the obvious conclusion that, while Educators set higher standards for Expected skills of graduates, they also apparently believed, more than Editors, that the Perceived standards and the Expected standards of skill levels were less widely separated. These Educators apparently believed news-editorial education has been doing a

better job than did these Editors.

Both Educators and Editors showed mean agreement levels which indicated they believed the traditional four-year news-editorial program should be retained. They further agreed that no substantial program changes need be made, with the exception that schools which do not now require media ethics, research and polling methods, and electronic equipment instruction should do so. A qualitative implication is clear; news-editorial students need few program changes but more rigorous instruction within the programs.

In this qualitative vein, both Educators and Editors agreed some form of screening process should be used to identify English-usage deficiencies among incoming students. Respondents further agreed that either the deficiencies should be remedied or that the students be denied access to news-editorial sequences. In addition, group agreement indicated journalism-skills classes should be taught only by persons with substantial professional experience in their teaching specialties. It might be implied that concerted use of these strategies could be used to increase the level of instructional rigor in news-editorial classes.

These Educators and these Editors apparently want to see news-editorial graduates with the following attributes:

1. Reporting skills which are at least acceptable

for entry-level reporting jobs.

2. A wide ranging preparation in the social and behavioral sciences and Liberal Arts.
3. A foundation in media ethics.
4. A dedication to the practice of journalism in the public interest.
5. A fairly comprehensive knowledge of local government.
6. The ability to conduct statistically reliable opinion polls.

One of the most interesting conclusions generated by the results of the survey was that the opinions of responding samples of Editors and Educators were as nearly alike as they were. In only three cases were the mean agreements of the respondents diametrically opposed to each other. In all other cases, the differences, though statistically significant in 46 percent of the items, were different in degree, not in kind.

Neither Educators nor Editors registered significant agreement with any of the proposed alternatives to the traditional four-year news-editorial program. The alternatives were: a five-year master's degree program, a four-year plan comprising more journalism and less liberal arts, and finally, a concentrated junior-college approach with a possible second major in a non-journalism area. It might be concluded that, as far as responding Editors and Educators were

concerned, what is being taught is right but that it is not being taught well enough.

#### Recommendations

To improve the quality of news-editorial journalism education, the literature makes frequent reference to the need for more interaction between schools of journalism and professional journalists. The similarities between Educators and newspaper Editors uncovered in the present study in no way diminishes the continuing importance of this interaction. On the contrary, one of the first recommendations to come out of the results of this study is that this interaction should be as frequent and as fruitful as possible.

What these new data may indicate, however, is that perhaps Editors and Educators have passed the point of quibbling over the remnants of some of their historical differences and initiate a combined effort to develop among the public an understanding of and support for the vital importance of quality journalism in our society. Professionals should take every opportunity to promote the up-grading of journalism education to the public and to legislative bodies. Journalism educators should continually stress to their students the importance of professionalism in terms of both skills and attitudes.

Internships and carefully chosen guest lecture series should be used to give students maximum realistic exposure to what will be expected of them on the job. In addition, journalism faculty should stay in close touch with trends and technologies in professional journalism. To improve the quality of instruction, it seems advisable for teachers of journalism skills classes to be encouraged or even required to return regularly to the industry to whet their skills. This has become especially true since the advent of electronic newsroom equipment.

Schools of journalism should conduct continuing interaction with public schools in order to acquaint prospective journalism students with the opportunities and responsibilities of journalism and journalism education. In this vein, any student with realistic journalistic potential should be given opportunities to develop it. However, some method of identifying needed remedial work should be instituted at the earliest possible point in the students' careers and students should be required to remove the deficiencies before entrance to news-editorial sequences is granted. Finally, every effort should be made to eliminate grade inflation and lowered academic standards from journalism programs.

Research subsequent to this in the field of improvement of news-editorial education might gain valuable in-

formation by adding the independent variable of Editors trained in journalism schools versus Editors without formal journalism educations. This strategy might isolate variance due to Editors' ignorance of exactly what comprises journalism school program content and quality. Greater validity and reliability might be added to a study such as this by use of a larger Editor sample, telephone follow-ups on non-respondents, and the allowance of greater time for the participants to make their responses.

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## APPENDIX A

### FREE ELECTIVE SYSTEM

#### First Semester

#### Second Semester

#### First Year

Introduction to Journalism I	Introduction to Journalism II
Introduction to Political Science	Introduction to Sociology
Introduction to Economics	History
Elective	Elective

#### Second Year

Journalistic Writing Practice I	Journalistic Writing Practice II
Political Science Elective	History of Journalism
Economics Elective	Sociology Elective
Elective	Elective

#### Third Year

News Writing	News Reporting
Political Science Elective	Copy Reading
Economics Elective	Sociology Elective
Elective	Elective

#### Fourth Year

Journalism Laboratory I	Journalism Laboratory II
Law of Journalism	Journalism and Society
Social Science Elective	Social Science Elective
Elective	Elective

## Fifth Year

Reporting of Public Affairs I  
Contemporary Affairs (Editorials) Domestic

Public Opinion

Reporting of Public Affairs II  
Contemporary Affairs (Critical writing) Foreign Affairs

Editorial Administration

APPENDIX B

MINIMUM REQUIREMENTS SYSTEM

First Semester

Second Semester

First Year

Introduction to Journalism I	Introduction to Journalism II
Introduction to Political Science	Introduction to Sociology
Introduction to Economics	History
Elective	Elective

Second Year

Journalistic Writing Practice I	Journalistic Writing Practice II
Political Science	History of Journalism
State and Local Government	Sociology-Urbanization
Economics-Public Finance	Problems
Elective	Elective

Third Year

News Writing	News Reporting
Political Science	Copy Reading
Constitutional Law	Sociology-Criminology
Economics-Labor History and Problems	Elective
Elective	

Fourth Year

Journalism Laboratory I	Journalism Laboratory II
Law of Journalism	Journalism and Society
Economics-Statistics	Sociology-Population
Elective	Problems, Race, etc.
	Elective



## Fifth Year

Reporting of Public Affairs I  
Contemporary Affairs, Domestic  
(editorial writing)  
Public Opinion

Reporting of Public Affairs II  
Contemporary Affairs, Foreign  
(Critical Writing)  
Editorial Administration

APPENDIX C

SECTION I

The first section of this survey is an opportunity for you to express your appraisal of the effectiveness of current news-editorial education programs by rating the skills of recent news-editorial graduates with whom you have had contact.

After each of the following statements, please circle the response which most accurately describes your level of agreement with the statement.

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| 1. Most recent news-editorial graduates seem to have had adequate laboratory practice in reporting to qualify as beginning reporters.                       | 1. Strongly Agree (SA)<br>Agree (A)<br>Neutral (N)<br>Disagree (D)<br>Strongly Disagree (SD) |
| 2. Most recent news-editorial graduates seem to have had "hands on" experience with electronic newsroom equipment (VDTs) as part of their course work.      | 2. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)   |
| 3. Most recent news-editorial graduates seem to have had instruction in statistically reliable opinion polling methods.                                     | 3. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)   |
| 4. Most recent news-editorial graduates display an understanding of local government adequate enough to function as beginning reporters of city government. | 4. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)   |

5. Most recent news-editorial graduates seem to be well enough informed about emerging concerns such as race relations for them to function as beginning reporters. 5. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

## SECTION II

Section I was designed to give you an opportunity to give your opinion of news-editorial journalism education by rating the skills of its graduates. This section is designed to give you an opportunity to indicate your expectations concerning the skills of news-editorial graduates.

6. News-editorial graduates should have adequate laboratory reporting experience to qualify them immediately as beginning reporters. 6. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)
7. News-editorial graduates should have adequate "hands on" experience with the latest electronic news-room equipment. 7. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)
8. News-editorial graduates should be capable of conducting statistically reliable opinion polls. 8. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)
9. News-editorial graduates should have had a wide variety of class work in the social sciences, such as political science, economics, sociology, and psychology. 9. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)
10. News-Editorial graduates should have knowledge in emerging areas of concern such as race relations. 10. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

## SECTION III

This section presents an opportunity for you to express your opinion about the relative importance of several of the perceived roles of news-editorial journalism education. The collective opinion expressed by persons such as yourself may shed some much needed light on the paths news-editorial education should follow in the future.

- |   |                           |
|---|---------------------------|
| 11. The major role of news-editorial journalism education should be that of presenting news-editorial majors with experiences that will prepare them to get and hold jobs as beginning reporters. | 11. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD) |
| 12. Constructive criticism of news media should be a major function of news-editorial journalism education.   | 12. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD) |
| 13. Schools should hire reporting and editing teachers who have had substantial professional experience on newspapers.  | 13. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD) |
| 14. News-editorial programs should stress the basics of good reporting and editing techniques and not overly concern themselves with every technical development that comes along.                | 14. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD) |
| 15. News-editorial programs should administer English usage tests to keep poorly qualified applicants out of journalism schools.  | 15. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD) |

16. English usage tests should be used to point out the need for remedial study, not as a screening device. 16. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

## SECTION IV

Throughout its history, many respected individuals have claimed news-editorial journalism should be made more like the professions of medicine and law. It has been noted that a necessary step in this direction would be the professionalization of journalism education. The items below comprise several areas which have been suggested to professionalize news-editorial journalism programs. Your reactions to the importance (or unimportance) of these proposals will be appreciated.

17. At least one class in media ethics should be required in news-editorial curricula. 17. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)
18. An element of media criticism should be included in the teaching of most news-editorial classes. 18. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)
19. Research methods which aid in making news media more effective, beneficial communicators of information should be studied by news-editorial students. 19. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)
20. In order to more effectively control administrative decisions, schools and departments of journalism should have autonomous status like colleges of law and medicine. 20. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)
21. All news-editorial course work should be presented in the context of media responsibility to the public. 21. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

## SECTION V

There has been much discussion in recent years centering on the premise that the sheer volume of knowledge needed by beginning journalists is so great that it cannot be mastered during the traditional four-year undergraduate college course. Several alternatives to current program plans have been suggested, and some of the major ones are capsulized below. Please indicate your reaction to the proposals by marking your response favorability after the items.

22. Current undergraduate programs do not provide adequate time for students to acquire the knowledge they need as beginning journalists. 22. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)
23. In the 1930's, Robert Maynard Hutchins said the best preparation for journalism was a strong liberal arts education. This is adequate today. 23. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)
24. A four-year course would be adequate if news-editorial majors were given fewer liberal arts subjects and more journalism skills practice. 24. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)
25. A five-year program culminating in a master's degree seems desirable for news-editorial majors at **this time**. 25. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)
26. A concentrated two-year journalism course coupled with a major in a non-journalism area would be better for news-editorial majors than the traditional four-year course. 26. (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

VITA<sup>2</sup>

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Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

**Thesis:** JOURNALISM CAREER PREPARATION: OPINIONS OF  
SELECTED NEWSPAPER EDITORS VERSUS THOSE OF HEADS  
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