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Journalism and Mass Communication: at Academic Crossroads in American Higher Education

James Andrew Lingwall

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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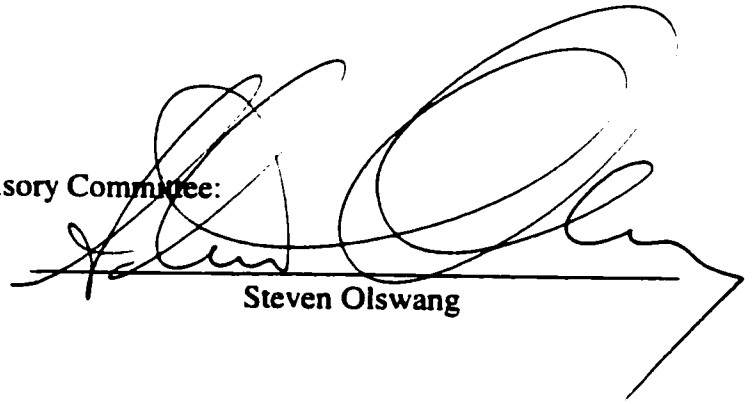

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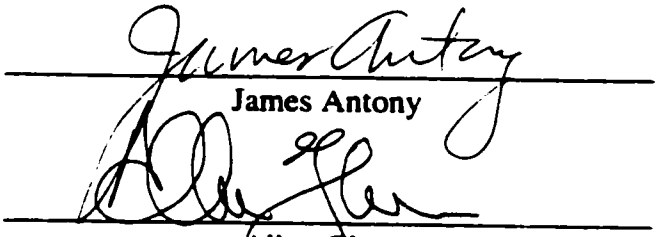

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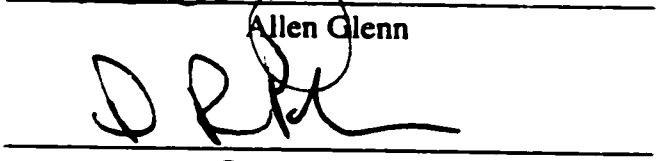

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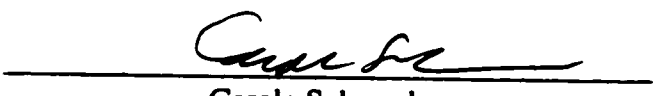

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Abstract

Journalism and Mass Communication: at Academic Crossroads in American Higher Education

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This descriptive research project was undertaken to determine the best way to structure the future of journalism and mass communication education so that it remains a viable discipline within the academy.

The Literature Review traces the origins and development of journalism and mass communication education through the 19th and 20th centuries. It also explores the growth of professional programs in nursing, business, and business administration. These programs were chosen as comparators to view their obstacles, successes, and innovations alongside those of journalism and mass communication education. Parallels between the four programs also are illustrated.

To help answer the research question, a survey questionnaire was mailed to the following three cohorts: (a) journalism and mass communications educators at the 108 U.S. programs accredited by the Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism and Mass Communications (ACEJMC); (b) a 10 percent sub-sample of faculty

members (300) belonging to the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (AEJMC); and (c) the 92 media professionals serving as heads of local professional chapters of the Society of Professional Journalists (SPJ). Total participants were 500.

In the survey, participants shared their views on the future of journalism and mass communication education through a combination of rank-order items, Likert-type scales, and open-ended questions. Results were used to identify forces in the media industry, the academy, and the classroom that are both limiting and creating new opportunities for the field. The Results chapter discusses differences in response patterns according to cohort. The chapter also makes extensive use of subjects' responses to open-ended items.

The Discussion chapter outlines future directions for journalism and mass communication education, discussing its future in terms of (a) the academy, (b) the profession, (c) students and teaching, (d) partnerships with outside organizations, and (e) lessons from comparator programs.

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Acknowledgements

The author wishes to express his sincere appreciation to Deny Oesterling, Sr., and to Dr. Sondra Perdue at the University of Washington, Tacoma's Office of Scholarship Support. Without their assistance in data collection and analysis, this dissertation would not have been possible.

Dedication

I wish to dedicate this dissertation to two people who have been central to my personal and professional growth. Without them, this project would not have been possible.

The first dedication goes to Dr. James B. Lingwall, my father and former Professor of Speech Pathology and Audiology at the University of Kansas. He will always serve as my model of scholarly excellence.....always approached, yet never matched.

The second dedication goes to my academic mentor, Dr. Don Williams, Professor in Educational Leadership and Policy Studies at the University of Washington's College of Education. Dr. Williams' belief in his students, and his gentle guidance toward scholarly excellence is a fine model for living and teaching alike.

It is hoped that this document reflects the kindness and formative teaching these two men have shared with me.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Background of Problem

Since journalism and mass communication education first made its way into American higher education more than 130 years ago, debate has always existed among educators, professionals, and students about its role and function in the academy and in society. Is journalism a trade or a profession? Should educators be preparing students for employment in media jobs or to function as generic communicators? Where does journalism and mass communications education belong in the academy – if anywhere at all? As fruitful as the 20th century was for the field, it only provided further fragmentation and confusion about what should be happening on college campuses.

Revisiting these debates at the brink of a new century, old questions re-emerge in new ways as technology, media growth, and an increasingly complex global society converge to reshape journalism and mass communication education. Faculty are pulled toward industry's call for more skilled graduates, yet pushed by administrators' demands to conduct research, serve more students with less money, and demonstrate their programs' relevance to the academy. Times couldn't be more exciting yet frightening for journalism and mass communication educators.

The early 21st century is a time of both crisis and opportunity for the field and its survival within American higher education. At many institutions, the identity and useful lifespan of journalism and mass communication hangs in the balance. If faculty cannot produce graduates fit for employment or earn the respect of their academic peers within the academy, programs may grow weaker or simply disappear into the academic fabric of

the institution. Increased financial support – either from industry or the academy – does not appear to be forthcoming. Neither camp seems to know exactly what to do with this unique discipline.

At the same time, however, new crops of students fill classroom seats each fall, intent on learning the field and working in it after graduation. In industry, even the most grudging editors and news directors embrace the necessity of a college education and formal training in journalism or mass communication. In society, the call for understanding world events and "sense making" through the media has never been louder. Journalism and mass communication programs are pulling more than their financial weight on campus, and still account for the single-largest source of communication graduates entering the field. Because of everything, both academic and practical, that journalism and mass communication education offers its constituents, this discipline's future is probably assured on some basis.

Need for Study

A study to address the future of journalism and mass communication education is needed for several reasons. Most importantly, the esteem of journalism and mass communication education has fallen to low levels at many institutions. The field has never enjoyed particularly high regard among its peers at most colleges and universities. One of the most frequent complaints leveled against journalism and mass communication programs is that they don't contribute enough in terms of research or new ideas to the larger academic life of their host institutions. In these times of lean university budgets

and louder cries for accountability, journalism and mass communication programs are especially vulnerable to cuts, consolidation, or even elimination. The time is now for the field to reconnect with its liberal education roots, prove its academic mettle, and provide academic leadership in all corners of the campus. It is hoped this study will provide some specific guidance on how this may be accomplished.

Second, faculty and program administrators are beset by conflicting demands and mixed messages from their institutions and the media industry. A Ph.D. and an ongoing record of scholarly activity are viewed as minimum job requirements for faculty, and it is most often expected that faculty careers and teaching will move in a distinctly academic direction. News editors and communication professionals fail to recognize the relevance of much of the scholarly research now being produced at universities. A practical lot by nature, these professionals are much more interested in faculty with field experience. They want graduates who can think, write, navigate new technologies, and make the mass communication process work for readers and viewers. If research advances those causes, so much the better. If not, what good is it? Journalism and mass communication programs will probably always be stuck serving two conflicting masters, but a new and more balanced agenda must now emerge, hopefully with educators at the center of the prioritizing process. The collective weight of survey participants' responses provides important clues about how educators might balance these two worlds.

Finally, journalism and mass communication educators now face a myriad of complex new decisions about how to structure future programs and curricula. At many institutions, courses designed decades ago reflect a professional world that no longer

exists. Other programs offer course sequences that overlap one another, creating duplication that tight budgets can no longer support. Professional programs like journalism and mass communication must always stay grounded in industry, and continually re-invent themselves to keep current with workplace developments. In today's media world, the complexity curve has never been steeper. Given that college programs have traditionally lagged at least a decade behind industry trends, how can they now become current, perhaps even providing intellectual leadership to media employers? Again, the weight of participants' responses provides important clues about how to restructure what is taught and learned on university campuses.

Purpose of Study

Although critics may predict the demise of journalism and mass communication education, one could just as easily envision new academic ventures with other university departments, media partnerships that give faculty and professionals fresh career perspectives, and a re-invigorated curriculum that sets the pace for other professional programs within the institution. This study was undertaken to determine the most critical issues now facing programs, and what journalism and mass communication faculty and administrators must do to secure the discipline's viability in academic institutions of tomorrow. Specifically, the researcher set out to answer the following research question:

"What is the best way to structure the future of journalism and mass communication education so that it remains a viable discipline within the academy?"

To answer this question, a sample (N = 500) was drawn from a population comprising journalism and mass communication education faculty and administrators, and media professionals within the United States. A survey questionnaire was mailed to them. Results have been used to identify factors that could be used to plan for new programs or reformulate existing ones.

The literature review surveys the history, present state of, and predictions about the future of the journalism and mass communication field. It also examines the origins and development of three professional programs as comparators: nursing, business, and teacher education. The discussion chapter draws upon structural challenges, academic trends, and curricular models from the comparators to shed new light on how journalism and mass communication educators might strengthen their discipline's viability and relevance in the future.

Summary

This study underscores the major challenges that journalism and mass communication education faces in maintaining viability within the academy in the early 21st century. It also outlines specific directions that faculty and administrators might take to resolve related issues. In the survey, faculty, administrators, and media professionals have taken a hard look at the profession, the academy, students, teaching, technology, and partnerships between academia and industry. They've shared their insights, hopes, reservations, and practical ideas for a re-invigorated future for journalism and mass communication education. It is hoped that others will take what they find useful from

this study to revisit what's best for their programs, their institutions, the mass communication field, and ultimately, their students.

Chapter 2: Review of Literature

History of Journalism and Mass Communication Education

It has been stated that "American social institutions have their roots far back in the days to which history does not run" (Simon, 1925). So it goes with journalism and mass communication education in the United States. Practical, reform-minded, and passionately democratic in its ideals and social aims, here was a uniquely American sector of higher education that emerged in the mid-19th century and expanded rapidly across college campuses over the next 150 years.

The concept of journalism education in the United States can be traced back to 1869, when former Civil War General Robert E. Lee assumed the presidency at Washington College in Virginia. Here, he proposed the first-ever course in journalism instruction.

The new course came about as a result of a 39-year social conflict between America's established social order and the Penny Press. Introduced into the United States from England in 1830, the Penny Press newspaper and others of its type had been roundly criticized in America for their focus on sensational news and profits, while neglecting more thought-provoking discussion of the day's social issues (O'Dell, 1935). A popular groundswell in favor of a more balanced and better educated press grew over the next three decades.

The call for journalism education can be traced back as far as 1789, when John Ward Fenno of *the Gazette of The United States* referred to contemporary newspapers as "the most base, false, servile, and venal publications that ever polluted society." Fenno

noted that this situation might be remedied by the appointment of college-trained newspaper editors. (Sutton, 1945).

The social movement toward journalism education grew sufficiently that by 1857, the Board of Directors of the Farmer's High School (now Pennsylvania State College) recommended to the State Legislature that journalism education be integrated into the institution's curriculum. However, their sentiments would not bear fruit anywhere for another 12 years, when Lee took over as president of Washington College.

Lee's aims in proposing courses in journalism education were twofold: One, he was interested in helping to set America's social course on track by professionalizing the business of newspaper writing and editing. Two, Lee viewed journalism education as a way to help rehabilitate the war-torn South through educational regeneration and training for a practical profession that many veterans and their families badly needed. (Thwing, 1906). In March 1869, Washington College's Board of Trustees adopted a proposal by Lee to offer 50 scholarships in printing in journalism for the following year, along with the necessary "laboratory equipment" to learn the job. This historical note is significant because it underscores the practical, career-oriented character that journalism education was born with, and has retained to this day. Ironically, journalism education was not fully implemented at Washington College (later renamed Washington and Lee University) until 1926. Yet, the work of Lee and his early supporters shone an educational light for the work of other contemporaries later in the 19th century.

The Broader Perspective

To place the history of journalism and mass communication education in its broader perspective, one must review overall trends in American higher education during the 18th and 19th centuries, especially in light of the American Revolution and new popular pressures on institutions to provide a practical education for their citizenry. As early as the opening of West Point in 1802 and Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute in 1826, faculty were working "to qualify teachers.....in the application experimental chemistry, philosophy and natural history to agriculture, domestic economy, the arts, and manufactures" (Cowley & Williams, 1991).

Cowley and Williams note that while these two institutions broke completely from their more traditional, literary counterparts, others of the time began to enable students to pursue the wealth of new knowledge that was being added daily to American society in the physical sciences, social sciences, and practical arts. The result was the "elective principle," an early forerunner of today's university system in which students were allowed to elect a portion of coursework according to their own interests. George Ticknor at Harvard and Thomas Jefferson at the University of Virginia developed two of the first models in 1825.

Thirty-seven years later, another historical development in American higher education would drastically impact journalism and mass communication education in the United States. In 1862, U.S. Rep. Justin S. Morrill of Vermont sponsored the Land Grant College Act. This legislation provided for land sales proceeds from states and territories to fund state colleges "to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and

the mechanic arts.....without excluding other scientific and classical studies" (Thwing, 1906).

According to Cowley and Williams (1991), these last seven words determined the structural future of higher education in America. The act put to rest the battle that Benjamin Franklin had begun in 1749 to lift practical education to the college level, and to integrate it into institutions that also offered a more traditional literary curriculum. It also forced America's higher education leaders of the time to abandon the traditional European practice of separating education for literary professions from training for lower-status occupations. In every sense, the Land Grant College Act fit the new democratic demands that American citizens were making of their institutions.

Cowley and Williams (1991) also note that the Land Grand College Act provided the first real impetus toward publicly supported higher education, and enabled new public institutions to compete in earnest with their private counterparts for students, dollars and academic status. Although it took nearly four decades to fully implement, the act helped bring 69 new public institutions into being by 1900. Some of these, including the Universities of California, Illinois, Minnesota, Ohio State, and Wisconsin, have grown to reckon among the greatest universities of the modern world.

The Forerunners Gather Steam

As the American university system came into its own during the late 19th century, newspaper and magazine editors across the country began to debate a seminal question for journalism education – one that has persisted in classrooms and newsrooms to this

day. "Is journalism a trade or a profession?" went the question. Could journalism be taught in the nation's colleges and universities, like law or medicine, or was the best learning environment the newsroom itself? (Sutton, 1945). Although most editors of the day believed strongly in the trade-newsroom approach, the voices of newspaper mogul Joseph Pulitzer and Andrew Dickson White, president of Cornell University, ultimately prevailed. To their way of thinking, journalism was a major social and political force, worthy of the college-level training students received in the other professions of the day, such as engineering, dentistry, or business. This endorsement was critical because it lent the journalism education movement the credibility it needed from two national figures. Pulitzer lent large sums of his money to the cause, while White was able to turn the dream into a reality at his own institution.

In 1876, White launched the United States' first journalism education program at Cornell with a certificate in journalism. Its placement within a broader bachelor's degree curriculum, and the emphasis it prescribed toward outside coursework provided the philosophical and practical template that journalism and mass communication educators programs would use at a range of institutions over the next century. In his original proposal, White said that students should ".....Take the body of the course with reference to journalism out of the three existing courses in Literature, Arts and Philosophy, but giving especial prominence to studies in history and the various modern languages, with especially close study of the constitution and general history, as well as literature of our own race." White also prescribed that journalism students should undertake practical printing instruction and attend a series of journalism lectures given by

experienced editors and newspaper men (O'Dell, 1935). Although White's program of studies was never fully realized before he resigned from Cornell in 1885, his model for journalism education – a mix of broad liberal studies, apprenticeship, and instruction from news professionals – is one that communications educators have used ever since to train generations of new journalists.

While Lee's and White's plans for journalism education remained mostly visions, new realities were shaping up by the late 1870s at the University of Missouri, one of the many new land grant colleges sprouting up across the nation. Here, Professor David Russell McAnally began teaching the "reporting method" in his political economy course. By the early 1884, he was offering courses in "History of Journalism" and "Materials of Journalism" (Sutton, 1945). In 1908, the university established its School of Journalism, a school that would soon rise to preeminence among peer institutions of the 20th century.

While the University of Missouri offered some of the first known courses in journalism, Morton (1991) notes that the United States' first full-bodied journalism curriculum emerged in 1893 in the University of Pennsylvania. Newspaper editors Eugene Camp and Joseph French Johnson helped establish a series of journalism courses within the university's Wharton School of Finance. The move was significant for three reasons. First, it helped professionalize journalism by placing it within a professional school. Although a part of the business program, the curriculum stressed the concept of newspapers as a political and social force. Second, Camp selected Johnson, a newsroom editor, rather than a business manager or publisher, to conduct the program. Third,

faculty at the University of Pennsylvania were the first to put their students to work in a news lab setting, covering Philadelphia's city politics and local events. Faculty in the Pennsylvania program closely followed the professional training and apprenticeship principles set out at Cornell nearly two decades earlier.

As the 1890s wore on, the journalism education movement quietly spread to other institutions across the Midwest. At this time, the universities of Iowa, Indiana, and Nebraska all began offering news writing courses within their English departments (O'Dell, 1935). While larger and more prominent institutions such as Cornell and Pennsylvania had already proposed courses journalism along the thematic lines of the press as a social and political force, these smaller and more rural schools utilized the philosophy that journalism education could be used to help students better understand agriculture, and thereby help their schools assist the region's farmers.

In 1894, University of Kansas sociology professor F.W. Blackmar introduced the first journalism course at his institution. Titled, "The General Theory of Newspaper Writing," this early offering was notable because Blackmar was a not a journalist, but someone from outside the field who understood the social implications of the press and its obligations to society (O'Dell, 1935). This recognition of journalism's interdisciplinarity would foreshadow educational trends in journalism and mass communication for the next century.

Enter the Major Universities

Significantly, the 1890s also saw the first emergence of journalism courses at several of the nation's major universities including Chicago, Michigan, Temple, and far to the west,

Oregon. Coursework at first was typically offered through established English departments (Sutton, 1945). Cowley and Williams (1991) have labeled this type of institution as the "American university." Coming into its own with the opening of The Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore in 1876, the American university featured a commitment to both research and teaching, professional schools and graduate curriculums that led beyond the baccalaureate degree. The American university, and journalism education as it was taught there, were largely products of the German university system, which during the 19th century helped bring to the United States the lecture method, laboratory instruction, the seminar, the elective principle, the semester plan, and other academic processes that have since become major features on the modern academic landscape (Cowley and Williams, 1991).

The relative quiet of the 1890s ended in 1903 when Joseph Pulitzer, owner of *The New York World*, committed $2 million to start a school of journalism at Columbia University. During the early 1900s, newspapers were attaining a powerful new status as social and political arbiters of American life. The opportunity that journalism education afforded students to study in a diverse curriculum at an Ivy League school gave journalism education a new legitimacy and claim to interpreting these contemporary cultural forces. Assembling an advisory board that included Harvard University President Charles W. Eliot and former Cornell University President Andrew Dickson White, Pulitzer and his group proposed courses ranging from newspaper administration and manufacture to the law, ethics, and history of journalism. Like other early journalism education curricula, this one also emphasized studies in English, economics, political

science, and other topics that aspiring journalists would need to understand and write about what they saw and heard.

Here, a distinction must be drawn between Pulitzer's vision for journalism education and that of earlier proponents. While many practically minded educational pioneers largely viewed journalism as a practical trade, Pulitzer elevated the cause to new heights with his philosophy of a democratic press and the dissemination of news as a professional public service. (Morton, 1991). For this reason, Pulitzer's advisory board emphasized editorial leadership in its proposed curriculum, and excluded all references to advertising, business management, or circulation. If students wanted that sort of training, they could go elsewhere for it (O'Dell, 1935). The Pulitzer School of Journalism opened at Columbia University in fall of 1912 with nine faculty members from a range of disciplines.

The societal impact of the professional education movement now spreading across American university campuses was to prove immense, according to Cowley and Williams (1991). "No developments in American higher education have been more spectacular and far-reaching than those in professional education," the authors note. "They have thoroughly reformed American professional men and women, and to the traditional triad of professional schools have been added units for the training of business executives, educators, dentists, engineers, nurses, and a score of other specialists." The training and professional advancement of journalists (and later, other mass communication professionals) must be counted as among the most important events to be shaped by this movement.

During the first decade of the 20th century, other developments in journalism education were unfolding at the universities of Illinois, Wisconsin, and Missouri. At Illinois, former newspaper editor Frank W. Scott drew on his own practical experience to establish the nation's first four-year journalism curriculum by 1903. Scott worked to correlate his courses with those offered by other university departments, and for the first time, gave students the opportunity to test their mettle through work on a daily university newspaper (Sutton, 1945).

A year later at the University of Wisconsin, Dr. Willard Grosvenor Bleyer drew upon Pulitzer's model to build his own upper-division journalism program , which emphasized the field's professional significance over its technical aspects. If journalism historians remember Bleyer for one distinctive accomplishment, it would probably be his ambition for integrating his students' journalism work with study in other academic disciplines. "A well organized four-year course of study in preparation for journalism in which required and elective courses in history, economics, government and politics, sociology, psychology, science, and literature are being pursued at the same time that students are taking courses in journalism gives purpose and direction to the student's work and shows them what these other studies mean in relation to the life and the work of the world" (Bleyer, 1918). The University of Wisconsin's new President Charles Van Hise supported Bleyer in this regard, believing that the press in his own state could be improved through more thoroughly trained newspaper professionals. In 1909, the upper-division journalism sequence at Wisconsin was expanded into a four-year program.

Since 1869, President Charles W. Eliot of Harvard had been working to develop his institution into a model of the new American university. One of his most notable accomplishments through the latter part of the 19th century included introduction of the elective system (O'Dell, 1935). Known as a man with a profound social conscience, Eliot believed the nation's educational institutions should serve public needs in practical and direct ways. This belief extended to developing professional schools at Harvard, including programs in journalism. Having already served on the new journalism advisory board for Columbia University, Eliot set about to establish a similar program at Harvard in 1903.

In contrast to other educators of the day, Eliot's view was that news was a commodity, and that the editorial and business offices shared close interests in serving a democracy. That belief shone through in the first courses he helped set up for the university that year, which were broken into four broad areas: (a) editorial work, including news and editorial writing; (b) operation of the business office; (c) operation of the advertising office; and (c) close connection with the mechanical department (Sutton, 1945). Eliot's new concept of journalism education would spawn multitudes of similar programs across the country in the following decades, greatly swinging the future of journalism and mass communication education in this practical, business-minded direction. Many journalism historians regard this vision as Eliot's major gift to the field.

Interestingly, Eliot's blueprint for journalism education was not put into use until 1908 – and at very different institution: the University of Missouri. Here, Dean Walter Williams was in the process of founding the nation's first true School of Journalism. In

addition to stressing the laboratory methods of its predecessors, the new four-year school organized its curriculum around a broad array of other courses in English, foreign languages, history and social sciences (Williams, 1929). Throughout it, ran Williams' conviction that a wide base of world knowledge, along with professional preparation in a practical setting was paramount. "It is absurd to think that an untrained, unsuccessful, unequipped man can be as successful in journalism as one whose training is broad, whose knowledge is large, whose clearness of vision has been increased, and whose equipment in general has been enlarged by training in a school," he wrote in *The World Today* (1908). For the first time in the educational history of the United States, students in 1909 would graduate with a full-fledged Bachelor of Science degree in Journalism. By 1930, the University of Missouri School of Journalism would produce 1,187 graduates.

During the years 1908-1912, journalism education established a firm foothold in American higher education. Following the Pulitzer and Eliot principles, a host of other institutions began offering courses in newspaper training. O'Dell (1935) writes, "The field of professional education for journalism was passing out of its hobbledehoy stage, and even though it showed many weaknesses, the pioneering of Bleyer and Williams, based on the contributions of teachers from Lee to Johnson, was producing real fruit." At the same time, larger trends were sweeping American society and its system of higher education. People were flowing by the millions from the farmsteads to the cities; an urban culture was quickly taking root. Intensifying competition between state colleges and land-grant institutions led many educational leaders to call for "scientific management" approaches in creating greater efficiencies among these institutions

(Cowley and Williams, 1991). The logical result was the birth of a range of professional organizations, starting with the American Association of Universities (AAU) in 1900, and the American Association of University Professors in 1914.

Journalism education was not far behind. In 1912, faculty from institutions across the country joined to form the American Association of Teachers of Journalism (AATJ). In 1917, the American Association of Schools and Departments of Journalism (AASDJ) was founded. During this period, the decades-old debate of journalism as a trade versus a profession began to harden into a conflict over professional vision for the field. It would prove to be a flashpoint between college presidents and their journalism faculty well into the 1950s, and through the end of the 20th century.

Emery and McKerns (1987) note that by 1925, most of the nation's leading journalism programs had been established, either as separate schools or as separate programs within schools. Numbering 32 institutions, they formed AASDJ's core membership. At its heart, the group believed in strictly regulating entry into the journalism field through a system of elite professional schools. As journalism education programs and employment in the field mushroomed through the 1920s, AASDJ members sought to differentiate their schools by promoting a vision of "professional" education as opposed to "trade school" education. They also attempted to establish an accrediting program to lend legitimacy to their style of professional education (Asher, 1994).

Journalist Walter Lippman in 1931 commented on journalism's mixed parentage and the paradoxes it presented to educators. "I do not know much about the schools of journalism," he said. "And I cannot say, therefore, whether they are vocational courses

designed to teach the unteachable art of the old romantic journalism or professional schools aiming somehow to prepare men for the new objective journalism. I suspect, therefore, that schools of journalism in the professional sense will not exist generally until journalism has been practiced for some time as a profession" (Cleghorn, 1995).

Creating a model similar to the one Bleyer had proposed and implemented 20 years earlier at Wisconsin, the "elite" schools proposed a curriculum of 75% social sciences courses and 25% journalism courses. In a move that would set the stage for academic debates and hiring trends for the rest of the century, AASDJ leaders also urged colleges to rely less upon practicing journalists as faculty, and to pay more attention to academic credentials. P.I. Reed (1924) commented that hiring teachers solely on the basis of experience "will never produce 'the great American journalist.'"

The 1930s were times of rapid expansion for journalism education, both in terms of raw numbers and its professional stature. By 1934, 455 U.S. colleges and universities were offering journalism instruction through various courses, departments, or schools, employing more than 800 faculty members. Also during this decade, some journalism schools were transformed into graduate-level professional schools. In 1935, Columbia University created the nation's first graduate school of journalism. Here, faculty offered a master's as the terminal degree, with the requirement of one to two years of professional training (Asher, 1994). Northwestern University followed suit in 1937, abandoning its bachelor's degree in favor of a new master's degree. Years earlier, Ralph Casey, director of the University of Minnesota's first school of journalism had underscored the major research institutions' drive for higher academic ground by insisting that all faculty

undertake some type of research, either qualitative or quantitative, or at least be familiar enough with it to synthesize important findings into their teaching (Whitfield, 1984). Although they could not know it, these university leaders were helping to set the stage for a much larger academic battle between traditional journalism educators and younger communications scholars who would join their ranks by the late 1940s. The old "newsroom vs. classroom" debate was about to be taken to new heights.

The growth in journalism education through the 1920s and 30s was a microcosm of larger events on America's academic landscape. With World War I finished, college and university leaders could return to the business of educating students and helping to create new knowledge. The research role at American universities grew rapidly through the 1920s and 30s. Despite the Great Depression, institutions such as California, Minnesota, and Michigan remained especially strong (Cowley and Williams, 1991).

The 1940s: A Brave New World

Crook (1995) notes that the years between the Great Depression and the end of World War II marked significant turning points, both for journalism education and American society at large. Just as America would face serious challenges to its power and legitimacy in the 1940s, so too would journalism education, with the advent of mass communication studies. By 1940, 542 colleges and universities offered instruction in journalism, with 103 offering journalism majors or degrees (Sutton, 1945). Sixty percent of U.S. universities offered some type of coursework in journalism. Several journalism schools were now celebrating their 50th anniversaries.

Peaceful life on America's campuses crashed to a halt in December 1941 with the bombing of Pearl Harbor, and the United States' entry into World War II. University program enrollments dropped, then shifted with large female majorities on most campuses. Numerous university faculty members left for the armed services, while others found employment in public information offices and other war-related journalism enterprises (Crook, 1995).

But most significantly for journalism education, World War II marked the beginning of mass communication studies at American institutions, and a range of new careers for generations ahead. At this time, journalism educators Wilbur Schramm of the University of Iowa and Ralph Nafziger of the University of Minnesota went to work with dozens of social scientists in the Office of Facts and Figures and the Office of War Information to help sell the war effort to the American public. Both Nafziger and Schramm had studied under journalism education pioneer Willard Bleyer at the University of Wisconsin.

Communications historian David Manning White traces the beginnings of mass communication education to this meeting of the minds (Asher, 1994). When Schramm came home to the University of Iowa in 1943, he laid out his new vision for journalism education. "I should like to see the kind of School of Journalism that would be not as weak as itself, but as strong as the university," Schramm wrote in his "Blueprint for a School of Journalism. "Not a group of teachers and students sitting on the periphery of the university.....but a School that would be in the very heart of the university, which

would begin with the assumption that the students it wants to produce will be the students in the whole university best equipped to understand and talk about the world."

Schramm's personal energy and stature as an academic luminary lent this vision the power it needed to fly. Schramm founded the nation's first institutes of communication research, first at the University of Illinois in 1947 and later at Stanford University in 1955. Rogers (1994) identifies Schramm as "...the founder of the field, the first individual to identify himself as a communication scholar. He created the first academic degree-granting programs with communication in their name; and he trained the first generation of communication scholars...Schramm set in motion the patterns of scholarly work in communication study that continue to this day."

Meanwhile, broadcast technology developed during World War II was creating pressure on journalism schools to invent new sequences. College and university administrators began requesting equipment and facilities to prepare students for careers in radio news programming. In 1944, the National Association of Radio Broadcasters and educators formed the Council on Radio Journalism. Participants noted a need for "competent, highly specialized personnel with a broad educational background for radio news reporting, writing, and editing; and for newscasting" (Crook, 1995). The American Council on Education for Journalism accredited radio journalism programs at 13 colleges and universities that year.

As the war ended, thousands of G.I.'s landed home on American soil looking for employment and educational opportunities. The passage of the G.I. Bill enabled them to seek both. It also filled American colleges and universities to capacity. According to

Cowley and Williams (1991), dormitory rooms were overflowing by fall 1946. Enrollment in U.S. higher education, which had totaled 1,365,000 in 1939, now stood at 2 million.

The G.I. Bill helped drive demand for numerous new vocational offerings at American colleges and universities through the late 1940s. Unfortunately for journalism education, the attacks that critics had leveled against its legitimacy before the war returned with increased fervor. Despite offers of financial support from newspaper families, Harvard had twice declined to start a journalism school. In a general attack on vocationalism and a specific attack against journalism education, Robert M. Hutchins of the University of Chicago contended that such programs subverted the purposes of higher learning in America, and drained resources from other more worthy university causes (Crook, 1995). It is easy to see why the emerging field of mass communication was beginning to gain ground on its journalism counterpart.

Yet at the same time, media organizations and business professionals were pleading with institutions to expand original skills offerings in writing and editing to new courses in advertising, broadcast, magazine editing, photography, public relations, and circulation and business management (Crook, 1995). Journalism education may have been suffering on some campuses, but industry was now demanding its skills in new media formats.

The academic momentum was clearly swinging away from vocationalism and toward graduate research. The University of Wisconsin founded its own doctoral program in communication studies, along with a communications research institute in 1949-50.

The University of Minnesota followed suit in 1951. Both institutions were built on the model established by Schramm at Iowa and Illinois (Rogers, 1994). According to Rogers, Schramm wanted most to study what mass media institutions did and how they affected people. If journalism benefited from that process, so much the better. Yet, journalism was certainly not a priority. On these terms, a fateful institutional marriage was born. Perhaps knowing the difficulty of creating new academic disciplines at established institutions, Schramm decided to lodge his new communication studies program within the existing journalism program at Iowa. He later repeated this grafting process at Illinois and Stanford. (Medsger, 1996). Year by year, graduate students taught by Schramm and his peers went on to create new homes for communication studies within existing journalism programs, just as Schramm had done. "It was a home they eventually rebuilt," notes Medsger, "with journalism in a considerably diminished position and no longer in charge." This process would ultimately spread to colleges and universities during the remainder of the 20th century, drastically altering the face and structure of journalism education in the United States.

This new pattern, alongside Schramm's establishment of the first Ph.D.- granting programs in mass communication programs at Illinois and Stanford, laid the foundation for new demands that journalism faculty attain the Ph.D. in mass communication to teach in their field. Although doctoral students at these institutions were originally required to have several years of media experience – preferably in newspaper journalism – this requirement was dropped by the mid-1960s (Medsger, 1996).

As mass communication gained greater academic stature through graduate degrees and a new research orientation, the increasingly complex world of the early 1950s was demanding its knowledge outputs. Advertising executives needed scientific methods of measuring their message impact and ways to understand how their work impacted society. Broadcasters and publishers were more carefully reviewing the form and content of their work, and looked to research specialists to take the guesswork out of their enterprises (Nafziger, 1949).

"The development of communication studies in the 20th century was inevitable," writes Medsger (1996). "As technologies expanded the size of the audience for various kinds of communication, it was natural that some scholars of human behavior would feel compelled to study what a mass audience was and how it behaved, how mass media behaved, and what impact they had on demographic groups, as well as the overall population. There were political and commercial interests eager to understand and use whatever could be learned about – or could be done to or for – the masses. Scholars served commercial and political as well as scholarly interests in their research on communication issues."

Through the 1950s, the scholarly approach to mass communication gained more ground every year. Rogers (1994) notes that this trend suited university administrators, who had always seemed perplexed by the vocational nature of journalism schools. In battles that were dubbed the "Green-Eyeshades" vs. the "Chi-Squares," traditional journalism educators faced off with their younger mass communication counterparts in battles for academic turf and respectability. For the first time, in 1955 the Chi-Squares

gained control of the Association for Education in Journalism, predecessor to the modern-day Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communications (AEJMC). Their hold over the organization continues to this day (Medsger, 1996).

Looking back on the 1940s, Crook (1994) provides further insight into this unlikely marriage of journalism and mass communication, and its implications for the thousands of graduates who entered the job market in later decades with degrees in both fields. "The structures (faculty) formed in their professional associations and universities provided education for a quasi-professional occupation. The unique role of mass media in society was supported by a kind of career education and research agenda that was unusual for American universities. The progeny of this decade can be observed in the variety of schools and departments of communication and mass communication today as the discipline moved toward maturity."

Wilbur Schramm's arrival at Stanford in 1955, and his founding of its new Institute for Communication Research, signaled the beginning of a 15-year period often referred to as Stanford's "Golden Era" in the field of communication studies. "The Institute for Communication Research became the wellspring from which flowed the newest, most innovative, and most far-reaching ideas in a rapidly expanding field" (Nelson, 1977). The Stanford doctoral program's pre-eminence in the field of communication studies would heavily influence the teaching of mass communication and journalism at American colleges and universities through the rest of the 1950s and all of the 1960s.

New classroom trends emerge

In the late 1960s, American colleges and universities' century-long trend toward training young professionals had reached a new apex. By 1969, professional schools were training more than half the students in higher education (McCormack, 1969). McCormack notes that during this period, institutions of all types were facing issues including overcrowded curricula, rigid sequences and requirements, expanding enrollments, a reduction of foreign language requirements, and at many universities, a prevailing sense of provincialism and conservatism. Amid the rapid growth of communication studies, critics continued to assail the state of journalism education. "Most of the schools and departments have scarcely begun to make changes, and some will never make it," wrote Peterson in 1960. Too many have changed too little since the mid-1920s....."

Yet by 1970, schools of journalism and mass communication were beginning to play a new and significant role in training generations of professionals who would work in other fields. According to Rivers (1971), this role involved "informing students who will become lawyers or stockbrokers or morticians about the strengths and flaws of mass communication, what it can do for them – and what it is likely to do to them." Although these students were not training for careers in mass communication, they were certainly recognizing its power as an intellectual and social force, and its centrality to questions about American life in the late 20th century.

This trend seemed to mirror a larger academic pattern of the time in which an increasingly diverse body of students were seeking to widen their intellectual boundaries

in a variety of ways. According to Norton (1973), the pattern affected most professional schools, including those in journalism and mass communication. Major classroom characteristics of the period included an increase in proportion of: (a) courses designed primarily for non-majors or the general campus; (b) interdisciplinary or interdepartmental courses; (c) courses in which international dimensions of the subject were emphasized; (d) courses containing material explicitly relevant to ethnic minorities; (e) courses using some form of team teaching; (f) courses including some off-campus field experience; and (g) courses utilizing multimedia tools including television, movies, overheads, tape-recorded materials, and computers.

Norton also noted several significant trends related to student demographics of the time. These included an increase in non-majors enrolled in at least one journalism course; a growing population of foreign, minority, and female students in professional schools; and an increase in students participating in tutorial programs or activities to boost their academic performance.

According to Mayhew (1971), more and more faculty with degrees outside of journalism and mass communication were coming to teach in the field by the late 1960s. They widened its scope and purpose. "As these fields have expanded to include the mass media, mass culture, films, programmed learning, and the processes of communication, they have slowly accepted as full-time staff members people trained in psychology, sociology, anthropology, and economics. And these people have begun much heavier interdisciplinary research than these professions pursued in the past."

However, mass communication still held strong at its core and grew dramatically through the 1950s, 60s and 70s. As Schramm's Ph.D. protégés from Illinois and Stanford graduated and began their own careers at other institutions, their work and influence spread exponentially to new institutions. The communication studies programs these faculty helped establish at many of the nation's 50 or so research universities were now producing fresh crops of Ph.D. graduates, many of whom moved on to smaller colleges and universities to teach mainly undergraduates (Rogers, 1994). Communication studies, and secondarily, journalism education, benefited from large general enrollment increases at American colleges and universities through the 1950s and 60s. Undergraduate enrollments in communication departments continued to climb during the 1970s and 80s. According to data from the U.S. Department of Education, U.S. institutions awarded about 50,000 bachelor's degrees in communication in 1989, up from 11,000 in 1970. Rogers (1994) writes that in the early 1960s, only a handful of departments of communication existed at U.S. institutions. By the early 1990s, some 1,500 schools or departments of communication were hard at work. Rogers also notes that at on many university campuses today, undergraduate enrollment in communication is either the largest or one of the largest of any university department.

Becker (1993) reviews the growth of bachelor's degree programs in journalism and mass communication from 1966-1991. According to his data, degrees granted to students in communications fields grew 10.3% per year during this period, from 3,131 in 1966 to 52,799 in 1991. This represents an increase of more than 1,500% over a 25-year period. According to Becker, communications also grew in importance as an area of

study for American colleges and universities during this time. In 1966, 0.6% of the 524,117 bachelor's degrees granted were for communications majors. By 1991, that figure had risen to 4.8% of the 1,094,538 bachelor's degrees granted in the United States.

Since 1971, The Higher Education General Information Survey has gathered data on journalism and mass communication programs and their subfields. Notably, journalism declined from 47.6% of bachelor's degrees granted in communication in 1971 to 22.8% in 1991. Radio/Television also declined during this period from 17.6% to 12.6%. Advertising lost ground as well, down from 11.1% to 5.6%. Interestingly, however, the general field of Communications gained significantly, growing from 16.1% in 1966 to 46.7% of all communications-related degrees granted in 1991 (Becker, 1993).

Becker attributes the overall growth of communications enrollments from 1966-91 to two major factors: (a) an association with broad economic patterns of the time in which other professional applied fields grew, including architecture, business, computer science, engineering, and the health professions; (b) the growth of interest in communications among women, and a large influx of female students into the field. According to Becker, this factor alone accounted for the bulk of program enrollment increases from 1966-91.

Graduate programs in mass communication also prospered through the last half of the 20th century. According to Paisley (1984), 21 of the nation's top 40 universities (ranked by overall quality of graduate curriculum) by 1980 offered a Ph.D. in some type of communication study. Rogers (1994), notes that figure had risen to 24 by 1992. According to U.S. Department of Education statistics, American colleges and universities

awarded 4,000 master's degrees in communication in 1989 (up from 1,800 in 1970), and 250 doctoral degrees (up from 145 in 1970). By any measure, communication studies has grown dramatically in the United States over the last five decades.

Rogers (1994) attributes much of the growth explosion to Wilbur Schramm's pioneering research in the communication field and the academic structures he helped create at dozens of colleges and universities. "Today, communication study is a well-established academic field, tremendously diverse in the names of the schools and departments in which it is taught: communication, journalism and mass communication, speech communication, communication studies, telecommunications, and a dozen others," he writes. "All trace an intellectual ancestry to Wilbur Schramm's vision of communication study."

Retrenchment and Challenges to Journalism and Mass Communication Education

Although this young, hybrid field had faced serious questions about its identity and future since its inception the late 19th century, the challenges facing journalism and mass communication education in the 1980s foreshadowed new ones that would carry through to the early 21st century. Undergraduate enrollments swelled while institutional dollars and respect within the academy fell away. Program heads demanded new mass communication sub-specialties and faculty with earned doctorates, while media professionals criticized the narrow, theory-based coursework that programs were turning out. Also at this time, faculty and administrators faced the first real wave of the information revolution, and the explosion in new media technologies that came along

with it. Curricular crisis – and at the same time new educational and social opportunities – had never been greater.

In 1984, the University of Oregon School of Journalism undertook the "Project on the Future of Journalism and Mass Communication," a landmark two-year self-study and national research project. Now cited widely in the journalism and mass communication literature, the project would prove prophetic and useful to mass communication educators nearly 20 years later. Writers of the study described the state of journalism and mass communication education in the 1980s as "dismal." In addition to funding shortages, curricular incoherence, and the lack of a unifying vision for the next century, Oregon Project researchers noted that small, overworked faculties were being severely stressed by heavy teaching loads. Meanwhile, they were rarely represented in matters of university governance or leadership. The dawn of the information age was underway, yet many journalism and mass communication educators stood distressed at the sidelines, puzzled by the new technologies and communication channels so different from conventional print and broadcast media. According to the Oregon faculty, program curricula mostly stood stagnant while the outside world changed around them. Even the lofty ideals of founding journalism educators couldn't keep programs from looking like industry-oriented trade schools by the 1970s and 1980s.

Not one of the 81 institutions represented in the Oregon study had ever undertaken a serious study of its own curricula, and its relationship to those at other institutions across the United States. Few efforts toward curricular overhaul were under way. At the same time, intense conflicts over the merits of research-oriented faculty

versus those with strong professional backgrounds persisted. Other fields in the academy, such as speech communication, library science, and business seemed to be overtaking journalism and mass communication education in the training of new kinds of information workers for the coming age. "Majors will be a combination of reporters/librarians/data processors," wrote one faculty respondent in the survey. "Information majors will take courses in information processing, logic and management of large-scale databanks." Nearly 20 years later, the terminology sounds outdated, but the central idea closely resembles what's come to pass throughout much of the media industry.

Far from being content to let their field sit on the periphery, the national faculty task force in charge of the 1984 Oregon project concluded that journalism and mass communication education was uniquely suited to lead this new information charge. They further proposed that the "learning and advancement of mass communication become central to the mission of the university – a position it does not new enjoy."

In planning for curricular change at Oregon, faculty used conclusions from the national study to reform their journalism curriculum with these two broad goals: (1) to retain the best of the conventional "industrial model" of skills-based teaching, yet discontinue those classes which existed only because of their history; and (2) set in place a new curriculum to better enable faculty and students to contribute to the importance of communication in American society. Among the new craft and conceptual courses offered by journalism faculty responding to the survey, the Oregon writers deemed the most important to be computer-based media planning; newspaper management;

telecommunications policy; videotex, teletext and new technologies; legal and social aspects of advertising; and publishing and management of media.

To accomplish their new curricular goals, administrators in the survey listed more equipment and faculty, reduced teaching loads, additional courses, and increased funding for research at the top of their wish lists. Still, journalism and mass communication faculty held onto the time-honored view of their field, stressing that a classic liberal arts education was still one of the best preparations for a career in journalism or communications. In an increasingly complex world, they noted, journalists must know how to think and gather information, how to analyze what they have found and to express themselves forcefully and accurately. One respondent even advocated reducing the golden 25% communication-journalism coursework limit to 15%, substituting with composition, literature, and social science.

Of the 16 media professionals polled in the Oregon study, virtually all were supportive of journalism and mass communication education, but gave students poor ratings in reading, writing, and spelling skills. They also noted that (a) faculty didn't maintain strong contact with practitioners in the industry (b) overspecialization in coursework was limiting students' overall view of the industry, and (c) schools were placing too much emphasis on "marginal" skills courses at the expense of liberal arts education. Among suggestions for improvement, media professionals listed stronger emphasis on undergraduate education, more contact between faculty and practitioners, higher academic standards, and new continuing education programs for mid-career journalists, as among the most important goals.

In the end, Oregon faculty set forth a model curriculum for their own School of Journalism, which they also offered to any other institution for adaptation to its own educational niche. Stressing a more generalized approach to mass communication education, the model called for: (a) skill/craft competency-based courses necessary for all types of communicators; (b) courses in conceptual knowledge that present the mass communication field and its components; and (c) professional modules to familiarize students with the specialties and requisite skills of specific professional fields and industry sectors.

Through the 1990s and beyond, the Oregon Project's assessment of the field and recommendations for its future have served journalism and mass communication educators well. Still, as society, technology, and the media industry have changed radically again, many journalism and mass communication programs today face many of the same crises and opportunities outlined at Oregon two decades ago.

The 1990s were known across campuses as a decade of retrenchment. This decade was not kind to university budgets or to journalism and mass communication programs. According to Fedler, Carey and Counts (1998), tight state budgets and falling enrollments were forcing legislatures to look hard at priorities and demand greater accountability and productivity from all state agencies, including institutions of higher education. "Newsweek" magazine (1996) estimated that only 20 percent of the nation's colleges and universities were financially healthy, and that 60% were struggling to adjust to leaner budgets.

A number of institutions either eliminated or threatened to eliminate journalism and mass communication programs during this decade. A partial list included the Department of Communication at the University of Michigan, the Department of Journalism at the University of Arizona in Tucson, the Department of Journalism at Oregon State University, the School of Journalism at Ohio State, and the School of Communications at the University of Washington (Fedler et al., 1998). Programs were merged or reorganized at universities including Penn State, San Diego State, Southern Illinois University, the University of Miami, and the University of Southern California.

In a 1996 survey, Fedler, et al. queried 647 faculty members at 3,600 institutions about the nature of recent cutbacks at their institutions, and which types of programs they might eliminate if forced to do so. The responses revealed:

1.) 80.4% of the respondents' institutions had delayed filling faculty lines during the past three years.

2.) 72.4% had cut department budgets.

3.) 64% had increased class sizes.

4.) 62.7% had encouraged early retirements.

5.) 61.8% had eliminated faculty positions.

6.) 43.6% had eliminated some departments.

7.) 41.8% had imposed a salary freeze.

8.) 35.6% had increased teaching loads.

If their institution was forced to cut some programs the following year, 57.8% of respondents said they would eliminate programs not central to the mission of their

institution. Another 38.7% indicated they would eliminate their institution's smallest and least productive programs. Working off of a list of possible programs to cut, only 2.7% of respondents said they would eliminate journalism education. Here, journalism fared better than major fields including business, education, sociology, speech, statistics, and theater.

However, 31.6% of the respondents indicated they would cut advertising/public relations, and 26.2% indicated they would eliminate broadcasting. Their main reasons were that the fields: (a) involved trade or vocational rather than intellectual training; (b) should be taught at community colleges, trade schools, or private business schools, not universities; (c) can be taught on the job; (d) are peripheral to the central mission of their institution; (e) contribute little to a liberal arts education; (f) are among universities' "least scholarly pursuits."

To aggravate the above problems, journalism and mass communication education programs were fighting serious internal problems. These included limited budgets, large enrollments, a scarcity of jobs for graduates, technological changes that demanded expensive new equipment, and a demanding community of professionals that has been hard for educators to satisfy (Fedler et al.,1998).

Critics of traditional mass communication sequences have noted that duplication and overlap of is a problem at some institutions. According to Blanchard and Christ (1988), universities facing budget cuts can no longer afford to duplicate specializations with separate courses such as writing for newspapers, writing for television, writing for advertising, and writing for public relations. In addition, the electronic communications

revolution now under way may be forcing traditional sequences such as reporting, broadcasting, advertising, and public relations into obsolescence.

The debate between the Green Eyeshades and the Chi-Squares continues today. While universities continue to increase their emphasis on research and hiring mass communication faculty with Ph.D.'s, media professionals and some faculty with field experience criticize the practice. They often advocate for experienced practitioners and offering more skills courses (Fedler et al., 1998).

Media professionals have echoed this demand, yet it is one that conflicts directly with what many faculty in other fields expect from their colleagues within the academy. While an emphasis on skills courses and teaching may be considered a strength in some mass communication programs, it may be viewed in other quarters as reasons to eliminate programs.

According to a 1996 AEJMC Curriculum Task Force Report, many journalism and mass communication programs have not yet become fully accepted in academia because they are relatively new, they have never served a "true" profession, and they have failed to develop their own theoretical base. Fedler et al. (1998) suggest eight strategies that journalism and mass communication education programs might pursue to raise their standing in academia and survive in the future. Listed in order of importance, these include: "(a) making themselves more central to the mission of their institution; (b) serving larger numbers of students; (c) recruiting more talented students; (d) doing more to help their students find jobs; (e) improving their record of scholarly activity; (f)

developing unique programs, ones not duplicated elsewhere in their state; (g) emphasizing intellectual rather than vocational training; and (h) seeking accreditation."

To add to the challenges that journalism and mass communication programs now face, some faculty believe that its status in academia has fallen to dangerously low levels (McCall, 1995). Every university expects each field to contribute to and enhance the overall academic environment of the institution as a whole. According to McCall, "Typical J-school skills courses directed at vocational preparation can hardly meet this challenge." He contends that in order to achieve parity with other academic disciplines, journalism and mass communication education must now become a "more active partner, even an intellectual leader in the university."

This charge is not new. In 1938, Eric W. Allen of the University of Oregon's School of Journalism wrote that while it was no disgrace to work at the fringes of a university's scientific disciplines, journalism would earn its respect only by contributing to scholarship in other parts of the institution. According to Crook (1995), this task is now more crucial than ever for journalism and mass communication education. "Scholarship in communication studies will earn its place in higher education if it identifies, addresses, and offers realistic solutions to important problems that face society as it moves into an era of the electronic delivery of news and information," he writes. "This will be accomplished as mass communication professors join scholars from other disciplines to improve human communication about significant issues of the times."

Given journalism and mass communication education's traditional emphasis on professional skills and its workingman's approach to knowledge acquisition, it should be

no surprise that programs have encountered some difficulty breaking into traditional academic circles. Birkhead (1993) has accused the university of acting at times as if it held a monopoly on enlightenment. "Higher education treats authority with acute specialization, devising arcane codes of language that turn academic departments into occult knowledge sects. Expertise often is cultivated to customize individual careers, challenging what Wendell Berry has described as the university's core mission of making humanity."

Structure of Mass Communication Programs in the Late 20th Century

A review of programs as they existed in the late 1990s reveals a broad and varied structure of journalism and mass communication education in the United States. The 1999 edition of "American Colleges and Universities" lists a total of 108 programs accredited by the Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism and Mass Communications (ACEJMC). This group includes institutions with some of the nation's most prestigious journalism and mass communication programs including Auburn, the University of California at Berkeley, the University of Florida, Indiana University, the University of Kansas, the University of Minnesota, the University of Missouri, Columbia University, Ohio State University, and the University of Wisconsin.

Within the 108 ACEJMC-accredited institutions, both the undergraduate and graduate curricula require students to take a mix of liberal arts and professional courses for academic fulfillment and to meet the requirements of employers in the mass media. The general rule at accredited institutions is that 24% of students' coursework consists of

journalism and communications courses. The remaining 76% is completed in liberal arts fields including English, economics, history, political sciences, language, literature, philosophy, psychology, sociology, and the natural sciences. Each of these institutions offers some mix of professional courses in advertising, news-editorial, broadcast news, radio-TV-film, magazines, public relations, photojournalism, technical journalism, agricultural journalism, and home economics journalism. (American Council on Higher Education, 1999).

The structural view of the 1,500 or so U.S. institutions with schools, colleges, or departments of journalism and mass communication is even more expansive. Data from 2001 (Peterson's) show 145 institutions offering majors in Advertising, 200 offering majors in Broadcast Journalism, 400 offering majors in Communications, and 600 offering majors in Mass Communication. Data from these institutions further underscore the proliferation of sub-disciplines and specialties within fields: 25 offer majors in Business Communications; 20 offer a major in Marketing Distribution/Education; 20 offer a major in Marketing Research; six offer a major in publishing; and 12 offer a major in Radio/Television Broadcasting Technology.

It is also useful to look at the current organizational structure of journalism and mass communication programs from the standpoint of graduate and professional programs. Peterson's data for 2001 reveal a total of 40 colleges and universities offering graduate and professional programs in Advertising and Public Relations; 240 offering programs in Communication; and 75 offering programs in Mass Communication. As with the undergraduate majors, data on graduate and professional programs reveal an

abundance of sub-disciplines and specialties within fields. Sixty colleges and universities now offer graduate and professional programs in Corporate and Organizational Communication; 21 offer programs in Internet and Interactive Multimedia; 185 offer programs in Marketing; six offer programs in Marketing Research; and 80 offer programs in Speech and Interpersonal Communication.

Notably, Peterson's shows only 30 colleges and universities currently offering a graduate or professional degree program in Journalism for 2001. Why might this be? According to Medsger (1996), it's generally a result of the birth of the mass communication field in the 1940s, and specifically a result of Wilbur Schramm's efforts to subjugate journalism education within broader mass communication programs. "Schramm's dream was not only that journalism education faculties would be populated primarily or exclusively by communication studies scholars and would exclude journalists," she writes. "It also included the hope that these programs would change their names from 'journalism' to 'communication'...thus, the push continues to complete the change started at mid-century."

Future Program Roles and Structures

What should be the future role and structure of the mass communication curriculum within the American university? The national debate continues among educators and media professionals alike. Fifty years after first taking up the task of recasting and reclassifying college and university programs, ACEJMC in the mid-1990s

once again reviewed its classifications so that it might better accommodate large comprehensive programs alongside smaller, narrowly designed curricula (Crook, 1995).

Pointing to potential new structures that journalism and mass communication programs might adopt in the future, many respondents in the Fedler, Carey, and Counts study (1998) said they would expand their university's journalism program by creating a single school to include advertising/public relations, broadcasting, film, theater, speech, and communication. Such mergers would stand to further weaken the traditional emphasis on journalism and mass communication education; yet, they may create a necessary structure for its survival in the next century.

As journalism and mass communication education stands at the brink of a new millennium, its structure and role in higher education is being transformed by new communication technologies, and the convergence of many forms of news media into uncharted territory. According to Geimann (2000), time-honored distinctions between print and broadcast media are vanishing. This has forced editors, reporters, designers, and other media professionals to re-evaluate the compartments that once separated them from their counterparts. The role of the news consumer is changing, as well. Through the Internet and World Wide Web, readers and viewers are now able to gather and interpret a multitude of information that was once the exclusive domain of journalists. Conventional notions about the journalist as a storyteller and arbiter of truth are giving way to new paradigms casting reader and viewers as the ultimate builders of their own knowledge.

The explosion of new information technologies and their convergence is cutting across print and broadcast journalism, public relations, and advertising industries alike.

According to Geimann (2000), 50 major media companies in the United States were engaged in some partnership or affiliation that blurred the lines between conventional media forms. Newspapers and broadcasters, who were still balking at the new technology five years ago, have virtually all incorporated the Web into every editorial operation. Some media professionals envision a day soon when newsrooms will operate 24 hours a day on a fully converged basis. Journalists will work with continuous deadlines, writing and communicating across numerous platforms such as print, television and Web-based broadcasts (Geimann, 2001). Technology and globalization has swept through the public relations and advertising industries at an equally rapid pace. A company's institutional messages can now be made available instantaneously to anyone across the globe who visits its Web site. Utilizing new point-to-point promotions and individualized advertising techniques, advertisers have gained powerful new tools to reach audiences across a range of media.

How have these trends in technology and industry begun to transform journalism and mass communication education programs? Pavlik and Powell (2000) classify the changes across four broad categories including:

1.) The way educators do their work. Examples of new instructional technologies include online courses, presentation software such as PowerPoint, and the use of e-mail to communicate with students, colleagues and media professionals.

2.) How new media are transforming the content of what is taught. Some educators view new media as a catalyst for fundamentally restructuring the basic journalism and mass communication curriculum. They envision an integrated curriculum

that incorporates new media technologies and issues in every course. An editing course, for example, might incorporate skills for editing in print, video, online, and other delivery formats. Format of delivery is less important here than the conceptual and technical skills of editing content for an audience.

3.) How new media are transforming the structure of journalism and mass communication schools and departments, as well as universities and the institution of higher education. A growing number of universities are now offering entire degree programs online. Stanford was first in 1998 with a master's degree in electrical engineering; International University is a "cyber institution" that offers all of its programs online, including courses in new media and telecommunications. Other journalism and mass communication programs are starting to offer portions of their curricula online. "Journalism and mass communication educators are increasingly re-examining the very notion of what is a classroom and what is the best way to teach our discipline," Pavlik and Powell (2000) write. "For example, is the notion of a course, built around a physical classroom, a time period defined in terms of a semester or quarter, and a narrowly defined body of knowledge, the most effective and efficient way to teach our field in an age of new media?"

4.) How new media are transforming the relationships between journalism and mass communication educators and a variety of publics, including their students, funders, competitors, and others. More and more classroom sessions are being enhanced by online discussions, listserves, and e-mail discussions between students and teachers. The student's role is changing from a receptacle of knowledge to a discoverer and

interpreter of knowledge. Teachers are no longer omnipotent experts as much as they are critical guides through new information territories.

The brave new world that technology is delivering to journalism and mass communication education programs has not come without criticism and concerns. Some critics claim that new media has entered the world at a time when American society is more concerned with gadgetry than substance, and that new-media proponents have not thought enough about its actual use (Smethers, 1998). "While the new electronic media may have many value-added elements, from speed of delivery of information to convenient electronic editing, it is clear that those who manufacture equipment and engineer software have not been overly concerned with stimulating public discourse or affecting the conduct of public affairs," writes Everette Dennis (1996). "Although they do see information delivery as a major function of online services... (they) have been more concerned with process than with content." As valid as this criticism may be, it carries with it a ring remarkably similar to the one sounded a half-century ago, when radio and television first made their entrance in American homes and on university campuses.

Legal and ethical questions surrounding new media pose thornier issues for educators. The anonymity of users, the ease in accessing sensitive information, and the difficulties inherent in creating meaningful new regulations, have added new twists to old legal and ethical problems that print and broadcast media have always faced. So far, these complications seem to have skirted the traditional parameters of accountability (Smethers, 1998). In a 1997 survey Smethers conducted among ACEJMC-accredited programs, a majority of journalism and mass communication programs were responding

to the need for instruction in the legal and ethical issues of new media by covering these topics in existing ethics and skills courses. However, the programs had not yet dedicated freestanding courses to these topics. Primary obstacles cited included lack of faculty to teach the courses and lack of faculty expertise in new media.

Henderson, Morgan, and Pavlik (2001) provide further insight into the future role and structure of journalism and mass communication programs in the college curriculum. They envision a reconceptualization in which new curricula emphasize cross-media education instead of media-specific sequences. This arrangement, they contend, would enable programs to emphasize traditional journalism and mass communication values that cut across media lines. For example, courses emphasizing "text" and "visual" elements would make more sense than "print" or "broadcast" journalism. Similarly, Henderson et al. suggest that content specializations, such as public affairs reporting or health and science reporting, make more sense than media-specific concentrations such as print or broadcast journalism.

Revisiting an idea that finds its roots in 19th-centry journalism education, Henderson et al. add that increased coursework outside of journalism and mass communication programs will enhance students' worldly knowledge and prospects for professional success. They cast the concept in terms of "content specializations," in which students would be encouraged to take classes outside of their area of specialization.

To accomplish these goals, Henderson et al. emphasize that colleges and universities will have to make long-term financial commitments to supporting

instructional programs with an adequate technology infrastructure, and to the training of educators who will need to teach with it. Some institutions have pledged such support, while others lag far behind the curve. According to a study Sutherland and Stewart conducted on AEJMC-accredited U.S. colleges and universities in 1999, programs around the country have dealt with the Web's potential in fits and starts. For example, the Digital Missourian at the University or Missouri has developed a checklist to help students evaluate Internet sites for use on the university newspaper. The University of Memphis now offers an entire master's program in journalism via the Internet. Journalism and mass communication programs at other universities have begun to utilize the Web in studies of advertising, public relations, and broadcasting. However, Sutherland and Stewart (1999) note that many of these programs do not pay adequate attention to emerging technology issues related to law and ethics. All in all, the authors found that only about a third of the 106 schools in their study were utilizing cutting-edge technology on their home pages.

Stability amid Change

Yet, early in this age of vast new technologies, most new media advocates and journalism and mass communication educators agree on one thing: that the core skills and values the disciplines teach should remain the same. Now more than ever, industry is demanding journalists and advertising and public relations practitioners with strong critical thinking skills, steeped in the culture, history, and law of their professions. A solid understanding of and respect for ethics will be paramount, as well (Geimann, 2001).

These professional attributes grow in importance when one considers that new media has made it possible for virtually anyone to publish, broadcast, or create advertising messages to influence an audience.

Time-honored curricular notions of a liberal education at the American college and university appear to be holding their own today. At a 1999 meeting of the Advertising Federation of American, participants identified the basics of reading, writing, and the ability to communicate as the most important skills for college graduates. "Some of the participants indicated that what students majored in was not important, just that they were able to read, write communicate, think, and have a strong work ethic," concluded organizers (Geimann, 2000). Participants added that well-rounded advertising students should also know about sociology, anthropology, psychology; take a "Great Books" course and take many liberal arts courses.

Geimann (2000) also cites a 1999 study conducted by the Commission on Public Relations Education of the Public Relations Society of America (PRSA). Here, researchers stressed the need for undergraduate education that emphasizes both theoretical knowledge and professional skills – two well established values in American higher education for the past 140 years. Theoretical knowledge cited as important included: communication and persuasion theories, trends in society, ethical and legal issues, principles of research and evaluation, and management concepts and theories. Professional skills cited included: research methods, management of information, strategic planning, issues management, and audience segmentation.

"Technology doesn't make journalism, public relations or advertising different," writes Geimann (2001). "Practitioners universally argue that the tools can make the job easier, especially for well educated and well grounded professionals."

In an article by Jeremy Cohen (2001), mass communication scholar John Maxwell Hamilton observes that now more than ever, journalism and mass communication education has much to offer the media industry. Unfortunately, for decades, the two camps have been intellectually disengaged from one another, while academics turn inward toward research and theory-based teaching, journalists and public relations executives fail to recognize its value. According to Hamilton, schools of journalism and mass communication can contribute strengths to industry including (a) a teaching mission geared mostly toward producing practitioners; (b) the ability to address tangible problems, unlike many academic counterparts elsewhere in the academy; (c) expertise in helping sort out the social and political intricacies of corporate media and the information age; and (d) the capacity to teach students to think critically about the media as they face dilemmas in their jobs and on their beats. "Can the intellectual muscle of the university help the industry to do a better job today – not simply win tenure tomorrow? asked Jan Schaffer, executive director of the Pew Center for Civic Journalism (Cohen, 2001). "What better time than now, during this information revolution, to imagine a different model?"

Comparing Journalism and Mass Communication to Other Professional Programs: Historical Origins

In looking at where journalism and mass communication education has been and where it may be headed in upcoming decades, it is useful to explore similar professional programs in American higher education. Several comparator programs are examined here, including nursing, business, and teacher education. This section also reviews the merits of internships and cooperative education, two programs in which pre-professional students complete a portion of their education in the classroom and a portion of it in the work environment. Finally, several lessons from the business world are explored, with possible solutions that might be applied to the entire university structure.

As early as the 1860s, the first professional programs in nursing were beginning to emerge on the educational landscape. Spurred on by the Civil War and the need for women to work outside the home, demand for nursing programs grew rapidly through the late 19th century. Walsh (1975) notes that physicians and hospital administrators recognized the value of cheap labor and improved hospital care that nursing schools could provide. By 1880, 15 hospital-based schools were turning out nursing graduates. That number had grown to 400 by 1900, and to 1,100 by 1910. As the 19th century closed, the trend toward professionalization in nursing was solidifying. In 1893, the American Society of Superintendents of Training Schools for Nurses was formed to create the first set of nursing education standards.

The nursing profession made its first connection to higher education in 1901, when the first theoretical nursing courses were offered at Johns Hopkins University

(Donahue, 1996). Notably, the six-month regimen of classroom and clinical experience emphasized education rather than hospital service. In 1909, the University of Minnesota started the first nursing program to be completely self-contained within higher education (Catalano, 1996). Fifteen years later, Yale followed suit. It appeared that nursing was gaining a respectable foothold among the professions in American higher education, while integrating strong elements of liberal education, an emphasis which would grow in importance through upcoming decades.

Business programs didn't make their debut in American higher education until 1881 at the University of Pennsylvania's Wharton School of Commerce. Yet, private-sector forerunners were creating curricular pathways as early as 1834 with the opening of Bartlett's Business College in Philadelphia. In 1835, Dolber's Commercial College was founded in New York, and by 1850, it had grown to include 20 branch campuses from the East to the Midwest (Wanous et al, 1990). The 1860s were a seminal decade for business and other professional programs at U.S. colleges and universities. In 1860, English educator and philosopher Herbert Spencer championed practical aims for higher education. "To prepare us for complete living is the function which education has to discharge," he noted. Among five objectives outlined for higher education, Spencer listed "those activities that secure the necessaries of life" (Wanous et al, 1990). In 1862, the Land Grant College Act gave every state 30,000 acres to establish colleges for instruction in agriculture, mechanical arts, business, and other practical programs of study.

In 1871, the U.S. Commissioner of Education listed 23 colleges and universities offering business-related coursework. Most of the institutions were located in the

Midwest; the roster also included Northwestern University and the University of Notre Dame. Although quality varied considerably across business programs, they all emphasized practical application and a connection to the workplace (Wanous et al, 1990). In 1898, the University of California and the University of Chicago opened colleges of commerce.

In tracing early historical roots of teacher education, Hughes (1982) writes that from its inception, the field has always been driven by strong ties to the classroom and to practical, on-the-job experience for students. Drawing on models used in Germany and England in previous centuries, American school systems in the early 19th century utilized supervised practice teaching both as an instructional tool and a way to staff large classrooms. "Let there be connected with the institution a school in which the theories of the professors might be reduced to practice," wrote Thomas H. Gaullaudet in 1825 as he proposed the first normal schools in the United States (Harper, 1939). "Let the students take their turns in the instruction of the experimental school."

Throughout much of the 19th century, most school teachers secured their first jobs before undertaking any advanced studies or formal preparation for the field (Warren, 1998). Mostly women, sometimes teenagers, these fresh academic employees taught students according to the level they had achieved themselves. Rising common school enrollments from the 1840s onward multiplied demand for teachers for the next several decades. School administrators and state legislators responded with modest funding and opportunities for formal teacher training through normal schools, which began to crop up in the 1840s. Normal schools of the time made important contributions toward

transforming teaching into a profession, according to Harper (1939). As a result of normal schools, teachers and teacher educators were increasingly viewed as members of the professional community. Normal schools also originated the laboratory or practice teaching phase of teacher education in the United States, making it a focal point of the student's experience. By the 1890s, most normal schools had geared themselves more toward secondary education, and were often located in urban high schools.

The early 1900s signaled a key transition period for teacher education. At this time, normal schools were transforming themselves into teachers colleges and liberal arts universities. The reason was born out of practicality. Many rural communities had no other educational resources beyond local normal schools, and residents of the area wished to continue their education beyond high school (Hughes, 1982). Popular pressure was building to upgrade institutions of teacher education. The growth of teachers' colleges was natural, and progressed rapidly for the next 30 years. Starting with just two institutions at Ypsilanti, Mich. And Albany, New York in the early 1900s, numbers grew to 19 by 1920. Between 1921 and 1931, 69 more teachers colleges were formed. Normal schools that survived the transition evolved into teachers' colleges, four-year institutions, and eventually, multipurpose universities. By 1950, most normal schools had become colleges.

The first half of the 20th century also saw development of the teacher certification process, with practice teaching as a central requirement. Many liberal arts colleges at this time added teacher preparation courses to their programs to enable graduates to become certified. Critical mass toward teaching as a professional field grew, and many of the first

professional teacher educator organizations were formed during this period. (Hughes, 1982). Still, entry to the world of higher education came slowly for teacher education. It was not fully achieved until the 1950s when a majority of American teachers finally held bachelor's degrees (Warren, 1998).

In 1915, Dr. Abraham Flexner laid out six criteria that have since been widely used to determine whether an occupation has attained professional status (Deloughery, 1995). These are instructive not only to the comparators listed in this chapter, but to journalism and mass communication education. According to Flexner, professions: (1) "involve essentially intellectual operations accompanied by individual responsibility; (2) are learned in nature, and their members are constantly resorting to the laboratory and seminar for a fresh supply of facts; (3) are not merely academic and theoretical, however, but are definitely practical in their aims; (4) possess a technique capable of communication through a highly specialized educational discipline; (5) are self-organized, with activities, duties, and responsibilities which completely engage their participants and develop group consciousness; and (6) are likely to be more responsive to public interest than are unorganized and isolated individuals, and they tend to become increasingly concerned with the achievement of social ends."

The 1920s saw nursing programs multiply across American campuses, with a growing emphasis on mixing occupational preparation with a liberal arts education. By 1923, 13 universities and three colleges offered four-year programs. "The first steps in the evolution of nursing from hospitals to universities had occurred," writes Donahue (1996). "As time went on, the superior educational opportunities afforded by a university

or a college became abundantly clear. As an integral part of the university – with its liberal education, physical facilities, resources, and level of instruction – a school of nursing would be primarily an educational undertaking." Although during the 1930s, many of the weakest nursing schools were forced to close, the profession rebounded in the early 1940s with the onset of World War II, according to Walsh (1975). Federal assistance poured into schools of nursing to produce nurses for the home front and battlefront. At the same time, however, academics including sociologist Esther Lucile Brown noted large discrepancies in the quality and content of nursing education programs. Some, according to Brown, gave students a well-rounded, professional education, while others merely offered "apprenticeship training." The National League for Nursing launched efforts to help schools improve themselves and to work toward professional accreditation (Walsh, 1975).

From 1900 to 1935, business education programs expanded rapidly across the higher education landscape. More than 180 business schools had cropped up around the nation by 1935. Enrollments were growing nine times faster than total collegiate enrollments. Business had become the fastest growing field in higher education (Wanous et al, 1990).

From the inception of U.S. teacher education programs in the late 19th century, a liberal-arts model has largely prevailed. In the 1930s, universities validated this structure again by increasing requirements in general education and the academic major, separating secondary from elementary teaching methods, and de-emphasizing general methods in favor of subject-specific approaches (Warren, 1998). The time period between 1930 and

1947 saw teacher education programs re-affirm their commitment to the concept of practice teaching, with increased use of public schools as practice sites. By 1947, public schools were providing training to the greatest number of student teachers (Hughes, 1982). The landmark Flowers Report issued by educators in 1948 re-affirmed the importance of student teaching in the preparation of teachers, and called for larger, more inclusive opportunities for student teachers to practice in the laboratory setting.

Literature from the mid-1940s reveals an identity crisis within nursing that sounds much like what schools of journalism and mass communication were experiencing at the time. In 1945, the National League of Nursing Education wrote: "Although nursing schools and departments have been established in many colleges and universities, it would be a mistake to assume that the trial period is over and that there is anything like general agreement on the place of such schools in institutions of higher education or even of their right to be there. Conflicting ideas still exist about the aims and purposes of such schools, how they gear in with the aims of liberal arts colleges, the kinds of nurses they are supposed to prepare, and many other questions."

Yet, as with journalism and mass communication, momentum was clearly building in favor of nursing as a professional program. Advocates of the time called for its legitimacy alongside professions including architecture, business administration, and teaching. Health care professionals demanded that colleges and universities to give nursing programs a greater share of resources including a more solid scientific and technical foundation, access to well-equipped libraries and laboratories, better instructors, and opportunities for a well-rounded liberal education. In its 1945 report, the National

League of Nursing Education optimistically noted that the aims of professional education and liberal education were not so far apart, and that the academic and philosophical conflicts might easily be resolved through increased cooperation.

In 1965, the American Nursing Association issued its landmark position paper on professional preparation for nursing, re-affirming programs' place within colleges and universities (Catalano, 1996). "The education for all those who are licensed to practice nursing should take place in institutions of higher education," they wrote. "Minimum preparation...should be the baccalaureate degree education in nursing."

Business education at this time was undergoing growing pains much like those in journalism and mass communication. In 1959, studies by the Ford Foundation and Carnegie Corporation fueled the call for improved academic standards and a more accelerated shift from application toward research and theory grounded in social and quantitative sciences (Porter, et al, 1997). Greater academic respectability came along with these changes through the decades, and by the 1980s, university-based business programs had become one of the biggest players in American higher education.

In teacher education, a massive influx of students to college campuses following World War II, and demands for more teachers in the 1950s and 1960s began to overwhelm traditional campus-based laboratory schools (Hughes, 1982). More and more programs were forced to move student teaching programs into the public schools. The change brought new opportunities and challenges to teacher education. Increased distances between the college and practice school made it more difficult for supervisors

to evaluate students. Yet, the public schools provided a much more realistic environment for student teachers.

New ideas for teacher education flooded the field in the 1960s. The importance of student teaching and direct practical experience was again re-affirmed. "Direct experience has the dual purpose of giving meaning to the ideas and concepts for which the individual has little or no conceptual background, and of providing an opportunity to test his ability to implement understanding in action," wrote Lindsey in 1961. Andrews (1964) argued that conventional college-controlled laboratory models were no longer viable, and that a new dual supervision model between college and practice school must be adopted. The idea was notable because it gave new duties to the regular classroom teacher, who would be responsible for on-site supervision and evaluation of the student teachers.

Advocating a model that faculty in many professional programs have long argued for, Conant in 1963 advanced the idea of "clinical professorships." Here, college faculty would be experts on educational theory, as well as teaching methods and materials. Rather than being required to contribute heavily to the scholarship of the university department, clinical professors would instead distinguish themselves through their skills in practice and supervision. Although many colleges and universities adopted this model in subsequent decades, the practical, field-based nature of this program would serve as a detriment to the academic standing and tenurability of many teacher education faculty.

Through the 1970s, new ideas for teacher education continued to emerge, including the concept of teaching centers and field-based education centers. These

experiments were established to give student teachers a more realistic and intensive educational experience (Hughes, 1982).

Challenges to Professional Programs' Legitimacy

During the 1990s, nursing education faced a number of external pressures common to all professional programs of the time. According to Deloughery (1995), faculty were criticized for turning out graduates who were unprepared for the future, and for hanging onto curricula seen by detractors as irrelevant and outdated. Consumers, legislators, and business leaders scrutinized programs closely, demanding accountability for improving student learning. Nursing faculty and administrators responded with improved methods of assessing learning outcomes. They also re-affirmed their commitment to liberal education by revising curricula to improve skill areas such as critical thinking, problem solving, and collaborative abilities to operate as well-rounded professionals in an increasingly complex, information-driven society. Today, the liberal arts and sciences foundation accounts for some 60 credits of the 120-credit curriculum in nursing education.

At the same time, rapid changes in health care delivery during the 1990s demanded that programs equip their graduates with new skills including the ability to: (a) provide care in community-based settings, collaborate with multidisciplinary teams, (b) understand the relationship between quality and cost effectiveness, (c) use technology, and (d) work with clients and coworkers of diverse backgrounds. (Deloughery, 1995). At the same time, faculty were expected to prepare graduates to be caring individuals and

critical thinkers with effective communication skills. It was a set of new demands that would mirror those made of journalism and mass communication and other professional programs through the decade.

Nursing programs of the time responded to these challenges largely by moving further into their communities and concentrating on the people who lived in them. In a survey conducted by Cohen, et al (1997), 81 programs had implemented revisions including (a) addition or expansion of clinical sites in community and ambulatory settings, (b) increased content on community-based nursing, and (c) increased focus on health promotion and illness prevention.

Deloughery (1995) identifies a number of alternate curriculum structures nursing educators utilized to accommodate its diverse student clientele through the 1990s. These included external degree programs, competency-based curricula, accelerated or expanded programs, distance education, and cooperative programs. Options within distance education included videoconferencing, correspondence, computer conferencing, and self-directed learning. Options within the cooperative programs included internships, preceptorships and work-study employment.

Looking at teacher education during the 1990s, one finds program pressures and challenges similar to those journalism and mass communication educators faced. Like their journalism and mass communication counterparts, teacher educators worked in one of the lowest-status units of the university. According to Tom (1997), they faced lower salaries and weaker prospects for promotion than their colleagues who focused on graduate education and research. Structurally, teacher education programs grappled with

discontinuities between classroom-based instruction and public-school classroom work, where students completed pre-service requirements. Tom notes that as of 1997, this connection still was not being addressed in a conscious or thoughtful way. "Universities rarely are willing to invest the resources needed to run first-rate, clinically oriented teacher education programs, whether they be research-oriented institutions, regional public institutions, or liberal arts colleges," wrote John Goodlad (Tom, 1997). "All three types of institutions typically use teacher education to attract and recruit students and to generate income, which is often devoted to other missions of the institution. This institutional bias reflects the low status of teachers, as well as teacher educators."

Traditional and sometimes restrictive views about what constitutes academic excellence continue to dog programs in teacher education and journalism and mass communication alike. In teacher education, Tom (1997), attributes much of the problem to "institutional mimicking," in which traditionally teaching-oriented institutions aspire to be more like research-oriented ones. He notes that lower-status research institutions are constantly looking to climb several rungs, and in doing so, often overlook contributions of faculty members devoted to teacher education and more classroom-oriented pursuits.

As with journalism and mass communication education, some university administrators have used this view to advocate phasing out teacher education altogether. During the early 1980s at Washington University in St. Louis, a university-wide committee recommended this course of action. In an argument that might well be applied to any professional program, the committee reasoned that "There appear to be unavoidable structural difficulties in maintaining programs of teacher training, or indeed

any program that is essentially professional in character, within an institutional setting devoted to liberal arts education...the central problem is that faculty members primarily concerned with professional training often do not follow career paths that conform readily to the standards of evaluation utilized in awarding promotion and tenure. Such faculty members too frequently must suffer second-class citizenship at best, and there appears to be no readily acceptable method to resolve the problem without departing from University tenure procedures and standards" (Tom, 1997).

Other attacks on university-based teacher education have come in the form of alternative certification. Here, aspiring teachers often have academic or career experience in another field. They undergo a few weeks or months of professional study, combined with on-the-job mentoring from experienced teachers. Following a training period of a year or so, state agencies or school districts typically recommend the candidate for credentialing. Although the idea began as a short-term measure to deal with teacher shortages, it's becoming a widespread institutional alternative to university-based programs (Buchmann and Floden, 1993). Alternative certification is a trend that runs counter to patterns in many other professional programs, such as law, medicine, nursing, and psychology, which requiring completion of training from accredited colleges as a prerequisite to professional licensing. Buchmann and Floden note that the alternative certification trend tends to associate teaching more with the trades, like electrical work, plumbing, or carpentry.

Through the late 20th century, business education fared better in the academy than teacher education, although not uniformly well. Scholars and business leaders have

argued that university programs have failed to keep up pace with rapid changes in American business practices and global market trends (Porter et al, 1996). Voices from the private sector have called for improved cooperation between academe and the business community in forming strategic partnerships, and for education to throw off some its traditions to become more business-oriented in its approach to teaching and curriculum.

Of the three comparators discussed in this chapter, business most closely mirrors journalism and mass communication programs when viewed from an employer standpoint. After all, media is a business. Media organizations expect universities to produce future employees who will be well trained for specific tasks and able to contribute to profit margins immediately. In discussing business programs, Porter, et al. (1996) note a divergence in values between higher education and business – one that could be applied to the challenges journalism and mass communication educators face in preparing students for media careers. Obviously, businesses cease to exist if they do not earn a profit. A focus on the short-term and bottom line drives survival. This stands in direct contrast to higher education, which concerns itself with the development of long-term knowledge and the education of students. Training for careers is only one of the many reasons why people pursue a college education. Business, however, has traditionally pushed important aims of liberal education to the side. These aims include reflection and personal growth, and concern for the humanistic, nonmaterial aspects of self and society.

However, Porter, et al. note that through the 1980s and 1990s, education and business alike have increasingly adopted attitudes and practices historically associated with the other, such as cooperative exchanges and collaborative research. Leading business schools, including those at Indiana University and Case Western Reserve, have revamped their MBA programs using bottom-line-oriented educational goals with great success. Business executives can now access influence and provide leadership at levels of the university unheard of a generation ago. Many business schools have taken a hard look at market and political pressures, and decided that borrowing a few ideas from their cousins in business (like restructuring or downsizing) is the way to go. In the austere economic climate of the early 21st century, few in the academy could argue with business' traditional orientation toward accountability when allocating faculty time, FTEs or state dollars.

But is a complete departure down this pathway a healthy one? Results so far are mixed. According to Porter, et al., the danger now is that at some universities, key elements of business culture – including a balance sheet and customer satisfaction orientation – threaten to become overriding goals in higher education. Under this scenario, students become customers; all learning must be justified in financial terms; business values begin to define and drive the academic agenda. In such an environment, the concept faculty tenure could be placed at risk, compromising faculty's willingness to speak out as critics on important issues, or to initiate risky curricular innovations. Although this scenario is admittedly extreme, it is one that could redefine the core character of higher education.

Educational Models from the Business World

The concept of "corporate" or private-sector business colleges is not new, but their penchant for practicality and results rings louder than ever in the early 21st century. In 1927, the National Association of Life Underwriters founded American University, the nation's first corporate college, in Bryn Mawr, Penn. Since that time, nearly 20 others have been spawned by companies including McDonald's, General Motors, and Wang Laboratories. A few are intended solely for employees, but the majority maintain open admissions and in many ways resemble their conventional university counterparts. According to Eurich (1982), the corporate colleges grew through the 20th century in response to a market gap unfilled by traditional higher education. Their foremost aim has always been to make learning useful. "Higher education institutions historically have been slow to introduce new fields," Eurich writes. "They have doubted their 'academic' merit, they have waited for emerging disciplines to prove their intellectual respectability."

The educational philosophy and faculty qualifications at corporate colleges are quite different from those found in conventional higher education. They have served students and business leaders well, according to Eurich (1982). The corporate colleges make far greater use of part-time faculty, encouraging them to continue active research or other employment that enhances their teaching. Tenure does not exist, and faculty are evaluated regularly on their performance. Traditional academic departments do not exist either. According to Eurich, it is precisely this lack of structure and permanence that

gives the corporate colleges the flexibility and freedom to quickly adjust curricula or degree requirements to market demands. "We take the experienced men in operations and management, and then teach them to teach," noted one administrator at McDonald's Hamburger University. "We do not take educators."

The work of MBA faculty at Case Western Reserve's Weatherhead School of Management provides useful parallels for journalism and mass communication faculty who need to revamp their programs and increase viability within the academy.

During the 1980s and 1990s, declining budgets and increased calls for accountability were hitting the Weatherhead School hard. Prospective students and employers alike were increasingly questioning the value of the MBA, and the relevance what of the university curriculum could offer the business world. (Gallagher and Leatherwood, 1996). Faculty initiated a seven-year change process beginning in 1983. Adopting an outside-in perspective from the outset, planners enlisted key school stakeholders including graduates, current and prospective students, donors, employers, faculty and other community members to help them identify central issues. Extensive dialogue and a survey of corporate leaders revealed that Weatherhead image had slipped in the eyes of outsiders, and that the school needed to regain the respect and support of its stakeholders. "The value of the outside-in perspective is readily accepted in the for-profit sector, where it is incumbent upon companies to maintain an external market orientation and customer focus in order to be successful," notes Cowen (1994). "However, the outside-in approach may be dismissed as overly commercial, crass, and limited to a

customer focus that may be viewed as antithetical the mission of a university. This extreme position results in an insular mindset and a disconnection with social reality."

Aligning the needs and expectations of external stakeholders with interests and competencies of faculty, planners then attempted to knit their institution's internal strengths and aspirations together with the interests of stakeholders. Such a synthesis, noted the authors, increases the likelihood that faculty will embrace and internalize the change. Contrary to many conventional strategic planning processes, participants were encouraged and expected to challenge conventions and traditions, exploring new program pathways. Here, a core group of more "revolutionary" faculty used survey data convince more conservative colleagues that the old ways needed serious reconsideration.

Projecting where they wanted Weatherhead to be in 10 years, planners developed a set of strategic initiatives based on performance outcomes such as student quality, faculty profile, resource availability, and community involvement. Within the strategic initiatives themselves lay important clues about the pathways faculty and administrators would have to take to make the new vision a reality.

According to Cowen, the seven-year project timetable was a bit long, but crucial to Weatherhead's success. Carefully formulating a strategy early on boosted their prospects for successful curricular change, and lessened the chance of frustration as the process unfolded. The authors recommended that faculty adopt a timetable of three to five years preparing for transformation, and another five years implementing a new strategy.

By 1994, Weatherhead faculty had used the above lessons accomplish successful curricular change in their professional program, and to successfully align their internal identity and key strengths with stakeholder expectations.

Internships and Cooperative Education

Journalism and mass communication program administrators searching for the most effective school-to-work models of the 1980s and 1990s didn't need to look much further than Business Administration programs in the United States, and their work with internships and cooperative education. The literature reveals that these programs are increasingly popular and usually deliver rewards for students and employers alike.

According to U.S. Labor Department statistics, 18 million graduates will be competing for 14 million college-level jobs in the year 2005. Eighty percent of these jobs will require some type of vocational training. Experience will always be one of the strongest attributes an entry-level professional can offer an employer, and internships are one of the best ways to get it (Gault, et al, 2000). The American Council on Higher Education notes that nine out of 10 four-year colleges offer some sort of structured work experience related to a student's major or career interest. According to the National Society for Experiential Education, in 1995, one out of three students attending four-year institutions worked as an intern before graduating.

Internships have been described as a bridge between the theory of the classroom and the world of practice. Researchers including Eyler (1992) have found that students who completed internships report a greater sense of responsibility and career

development. Regarding professional development, students believe that internships provide them with increased business contacts, better knowledge of the job market and greater job satisfaction ((Bales, 1979).

Yet amid these bright statistics, uncertainty about the value of internships has dogged faculty and employers alike. Research and hard evidence on their success has been hard to obtain. In a 1992 study, Eyler noted that faculty were "dubious about the value of internship programs that displace significant amounts of coursework, questioning whether the educational opportunity costs are offset by what is learned in the field." Gault and Redington (2000) wrote that even in cases where professional program goals are well aligned with the aims of liberal education, many faculty still believe their own classrooms are ultimately the best places to carry out professional training. While research has not proven that internships are unworthwhile, it has not affirmed their value either. It is precisely this lack of research and hard evidence that has contributed to experiential programs' lack of perceived legitimacy among peers in the academy (Milgiore, 1990). In other words, the students, the employers, and most of the faculty know that internships work. They just haven't proven it yet to their colleagues and administrators.

As with so many other elements of professional education, internships and other experiential training appear to have been undervalued in the academy because the academy doesn't know what to call them or how to assess them. "Internships are highly undervalued and under-supported since they simply do not seem to fit into the 'academic ball game'," noted English and Lewison (1979).

However, research conducted by Gault et al (2000) seems to refute many of the fuzzy arguments made against internships in earlier decades. In a survey of intern and non-intern business alumni at a Northeastern public university, researchers found significant career advantages for undergraduates with internship experience, including less time to obtain their first position, higher earnings, and greater overall job satisfaction. In this study, a number of benefits also accrued to business educators, university administrators, and intern employers. These included the use of internships as recruitment tools for high-caliber students, internship value in corporate fundraising, reduced hiring costs, and increased personal connections that alumni create between the university and corporation.

Cooperative Education

The concept of cooperative education contrasts with that of the internship in several ways. Unlike the internship, cooperative education is a paid, long-term work experience that pulls all three educational partners (student, university, and employer) into unison. The University of Cincinnati was an early forerunner in the field, starting its cooperative education program in its College of Engineering in 1906. The university's business administration program followed suit in 1919. According to the Ohio Cooperative Education Association, in 1999, over 12,000 students participated in cooperative education programs at 43 colleges or universities in the state. Nationwide, more than 200,000 students participated at over 900 colleges and universities, along with approximately 50,000 U.S. employers.

Offered most commonly through university programs in business, engineering, and information technology, cooperative education programs can yield substantial benefits to students, employers, and educational institutions alike. Students add new meaning to their academic studies and map out viable career paths. They can use co-op earnings to pay tuition bills. The job experience boosts their resumes and often provides the first step up into full-time employment. Meanwhile, students can decide whether they like the employer and evaluate their long-term interest in the company. According to the National Association of Colleges and Employers (Frazee, 1997), 70% of employers that emphasize college hiring prefer to try out job candidates in internship or cooperative education programs before offering them a permanent job. This held true whether the employers were Fortune 500 companies, small businesses, or nonprofit agencies. In the private sector, 85 of the Fortune 100 companies currently employ co-op students. Cooperative education gives employers an opportunity to sample the abilities of prospective workers and gauge their long-term potential. Further, those hired as employees are already familiar with the company, along with its procedures and culture.

Thiel and Hartley (1997) have identified several significant benefits to academic institutions that offer cooperative education. They include: (a) a logical channel for application of classroom theory; (b) an additional forum for student and curriculum assessment; (c) a source of practitioner input into curriculum development; (d) a source of employment opportunities for college students; and (e) public relations and advertising for the college. Mariani (1997) notes that professional program faculty benefit from the instructional complement that an on-site supervisor can provide. "When they go out to

the work site, it's sort of like they have another set of teachers," noted one engineering employer in the study. "Now, they have teachers in the industry who can help them see how what they've learned in class is used in troubleshooting and problem-solving." Journalism and mass communication educators might well consider these benefits in creating new school-to-work experiences for students and boosting their programs' viability in the academy.

Since 1999, recruiters from General Motors Corp. have been tapping environmental engineering students at Michigan Technological University for cooperative education experiences (Vick, 2001). Recognizing the value of MTU's well-rounded engineering graduates and increasingly stringent air pollution regulations, GM acknowledges what students and faculty can add to their competitive edge. "Through rotational assignments and training in the fundamentals, the entire team – General Motors, faculty, and students – is able to bring about the latest and greatest research innovations," noted GM spokeswoman Priscilla King. "In addition, these employees are able to understand out organization, our culture, and generally get up to speed quicker."

Cooperative education programs are emerging rapidly in MBA programs across Canada, according to Berman (1998). In the Michael G. DeGroote School of Business at McMaster University in Ontario, faculty require their students to mix four terms of school with three work terms of four months each.. Because many students enter the MBA program with scant work records, faculty view cooperative education as an experience that will be crucial to students obtaining their first full-time positions. "The schools that are pushing co-op education see it a as a way to circumvent their students'

lack of experience – not to mention the downright snobbery that often works against them in the job market," Berman observes. " Employers want people with experience. That's the bottom line." McMaster University boasts a 100% placement rate for students who complete their cooperative education program.

Regardless of the setting, Thiel and Hartley (1997) note that college faculty and employers must work together on several levels to make the cooperative education experience a successful one for all parties. Elements of success include wide program publicity and active student recruitment, sufficient academic preparation by the student, ongoing development of sites, accurate student-employer matches, structured orientations by faculty coordinators, weekly written reports from students, and a concrete academic appraisal of the project.

According to Bruns (1999), a successful cooperative education program also requires that employers carefully determine their primary hiring goals. If goals are primarily short-term and aimed at filling staffing gaps while providing job experience for students, internships may be a more appropriate choice. However, if the organization is taking a longer look at grooming students to fulfill specific recruiting needs, then cooperative education can work well. In such a situation, employers and faculty coordinators must pay close attention to student learning objectives, and work together to see that they are achieved.

Bigger Business Designs for the University

Peter Denning (1996) looks beyond successful curricular models that university business programs have developed to assert that the entire academic structure of the university needs an overhaul – and one that should be weighted heavily toward professional education programs. Such a trend could only stand to strengthen journalism and mass communication education in decades ahead. Denning notes that the university's "business design" has grown obsolete, and that public universities are especially slow to respond to new demands now pushing in on higher education. These demands include: (a) a rising level of industry requests for professional education after the bachelor's degree; (b) rising competition from private companies offering courseware, seminars, and other educational services; (c) certification for professionals, such as software engineers and network engineers; (d) distance education and virtual universities; (e) student and employer demand for more practical competence; and (f) teaching how to cope with the apparent rise of complexity in a world increasingly dominated by technology.

"Make no mistake about it, the market and political forces are conspiring to generate a new design for the universities. The only questions are who's in, who's out, and who new is going to show up and compete for our customers," Denning writes. "We are facing enormous threats not only to our traditional ways of doing business, but in some cases to our very existence." To survive, Denning says that universities will have to re-orient themselves toward training students for specific competencies. Although this idea might engender faculty complaints about "training" and its inappropriateness in a university setting, Denning notes that the concept of competencies is entirely congruent

with many general education aims including socialization, involvement, group participation, communities, and histories. Denning believes that more focused forms of competence are best taught at the graduate level. Interestingly, this idea finds its roots in the late 19th century, when university administrators at the University of Missouri advocated a model just like it for journalism and mass communication education.

Denning writes that employer and student calls for specific competencies will drive the following trends higher education: (a) more institutions will offer programs in entrepreneurship, business practice, management, and leadership; (b) institutions will be forced to create new programs for working professionals seeking higher levels of competence; (c) faculty and students will heavily utilize information technologies for locating information and services, and for coordinating and communicating among professionals; and (d) institutions will be highly responsive to their customers and strive to deliver value that meets or exceeds the costs.

Denning contends that universities must now take a hard look at the role of research, and shift its function to more directly benefit students. Too much university research today, he notes, is mediocre or of no consequence. The "publish or perish" existence which most faculty are forced to lead has undermined the original purpose of university research – education itself. The modern research university is limited in its belief that the discovery of new ideas is the main path to innovation. In reality, according to Denning, new ideas are discovered through one of the following four processes, each of which generates its own unique type of research : (1) generating new ideas; (2) generating new practices; (3) generating new products; and (4) generating new business.

Denning notes that universities traditionally have placed the highest value on the first kind of research and the lowest value on the fourth kind. Most private-sector companies value research in exactly the opposite order. In his scheme for the future, the real value of research will lie not in the discovery of ideas but the innovations that result from it. Faculty will be forced to shift their efforts and justify their outcomes accordingly.

In a final note echoing what many journalism and mass communication educators have long argued, Denning writes that the new business design of the university will be required to transform teaching practices to a more student-centered process. Students will increasingly be treated as customers. Faculty will have to work harder at new skills such as listening, trustworthiness, compassion, service, diversity, and communication. As digital media and computer networking take over many traditional teaching functions such as presentation and testing, the instructor's role will gravitate toward that of manager, coach, and classroom motivator. Although this vision for university teaching is admittedly futuristic and business-oriented, the end of presentation-style teaching may already be on the horizon in many professional programs. Denning likens the new faculty role to that of a manager whose performance is based on the performance of the entire team.

Summary

If one things come clear in reviewing all of the above comparator programs, it is the unyielding call among students, educators, and employers for a better liberal education. Practitioners from all quarters report that the professional programs they completed did not adequately prepare them to deal with the profound ethical and moral conflicts they now face in a complex workplace and world (Brody and Wallace, 1994). A focus on narrow technical competencies to the exclusion of full human learning has too often left graduates grasping for ways to deal with life in the early 21st century. "There is a profound gap in our culture between technical reason, the knowledge with which we design computers or analyze the structure of DNA, and the practical or moral reason, the ways we understand how we should live," write Brody and Wallace. "We often hear that only technical reason can really be taught, and our educational commitments from primary school to university seem to embody that belief. But technical reason alone is insufficient to manage our social difficulties or make sense of our lives."

Chapter 3: Methodology

The Research Question

Considering the literature covering journalism, mass communication and other professional programs, four main conclusions surface for further exploration:

(1) Since their inception, journalism and mass communication and other professional disciplines have fought to establish and retain viability within their institutions and academia. Fundamental questions about the proper place for professional programs, and their role within the academy, persist today.

(2) Although a rich body of knowledge from the profession and the academy is available to help journalism and mass communication educators strengthen and recast programs, much of it appears to be going untapped. Programs seem to be addressing common problems in various ways, with differing degrees of effectiveness.

(3) There is no single best way to structure the future of journalism and mass communication education so that it remains a viable discipline within the academy. The diversity of American higher education and the institutions within it dictate differing approaches for different programs.

(4) In the early 21st century, journalism and mass communication education stands at a unique juncture of crisis and opportunity. On one hand, resources are shrinking as stakeholders make an array of contradictory new demands. Program structures and curricula of the past no longer apply in today's media world. On the other hand, opportunity beckons for educators to make the field stronger and more relevant than ever before. Possibilities for embracing new technologies, industry partnerships, and

a stronger role on campus are numerous. Journalism and mass communication educators who take renewed initiative now will benefit most tomorrow.

Considering these four issues, the following research question was formulated:

"What is the best way to structure the future of journalism and mass communication education so that it remains a viable discipline within the academy?"

The Sample

To help answer this question, a stratified sample of three cohorts was selected. The cohorts were: (a) journalism and mass communication educators at the 108 U.S. programs accredited by the Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism and Mass Communications (ACEJMC); (b) a 10 percent random sub-sample of faculty members (300) belonging to the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (AEJMC); and (c) the 92 media professionals serving as heads of local professional chapters of the Society of Professional Journalists (SPJ). Total participants were 500. ACEJMC and AEJMC member mailing lists were obtained by purchasing them through their associations; SPJ lent its membership list to the researcher. Selection of a 10% sub-sample for Cohort B ensured a broad cross section of AEJMC members, yet a manageable number for a qualitative research project of this nature.

Because of the mix of theory and skills that has always dominated the field of journalism and mass communication, it was important to represent both Cohorts A and B in this study. Both cohorts included professors, department chairs and deans at institutions ranging from large research universities to comprehensive colleges and small

private institutions. Teaching disciplines included print journalism, telecommunications, magazines, public relations, advertising, environmental communication, speech communication, media law, and others.

Much of the difference between cohorts A and B might be explained by their respective associations. ACEJMC is the official accrediting agency for programs of journalism and mass communication at U.S. colleges and universities. Tracing its roots back to 1945, ACEJMC currently accredits 108 programs nationwide. All accredited programs must meet 12 specific standards, especially those related to the liberal arts portion of the curriculum. All units are expected to conduct academic research. Some, but not all, of ACEJMC-accredited universities are Research I institutions.

By contrast, AEJMC is an international association of some 3,000 journalism/mass communication faculty, students, administrators, and professionals. Founded in 1912, it is the oldest and largest association of journalism and mass communication educators and administrators at the college level. Members include educators at all levels, from a range of colleges and universities.

Cohort C (SPJ) comprised media professionals who were heads of local SPJ chapters. Members included news editors, copy editors, reporters, photographers, TV producers, public relations professionals, radio station managers, and other media professionals from print and broadcast media. Respondents came from weekly newspapers, metro dailies, major market TV stations, small public relations agencies, and other media organizations.

These three cohorts were chosen because they represent the best cross-section of professionals who will be at the center of change in journalism and mass communication education in upcoming decades. Faculty hold much of the power to make it happen, yet the changes they implement must be approved by university administrators, reflect trends in the modern media, and fulfill the needs of industry employers. In a study of this nature, input from educators and professionals alike was crucial.

The Instrument

During fall 2001, a survey questionnaire was developed to answer the research question. The questionnaire consisted of three, double-sided sheets, tri-folded, and distributed through a mass mailing. Self-addressed, stamped envelopes were included for the surveys' return (see Appendix A).

An introductory letter was included on the front of the questionnaire. In it, the researcher identified himself and the nature of the research project. The letter also described the research question, the nature of the sample, and the methodology. In addition, the letter served as an information/consent form for respondents. On Feb. 11, 2002, the University of Washington's Human Subjects Division granted approval to the research project.

The questionnaire was broken into 11 sections as follows:

I. Respondent Background. Participants were given the opportunity to identify themselves according to group and list their job title.

II. Respondent's Organization. This section gave participants the opportunity to identify and describe their educational institution or employer.

Sections I and II were developed to help the researcher determine whether common response patterns would emerge within and between respondent subgroups.

III. The Profession. This section utilized open-ended questions to determine which trends in the journalism and mass communication profession are most heavily impacting what is taught at colleges and universities, and how well institutions have responded to industry trends.

IV. The Academy. This section utilized a five-point Likert-type scale and open-ended questions to determine faculty respondents' opinions about their institution's standing within the academy, and the value their institution places on mass communication field experience compared to an advanced degree.

V. The Students. This section utilized a five-point Likert-type scale to determine respondents' opinions about the most important of five skill areas needed for students to succeed as journalism and mass communication professionals over the next decade. Within each skill area, respondents were also asked to rate several sub-items according to importance.

VI. Teaching. This section utilized a five-point Likert-type scale to determine respondents' opinions about how well their institution was preparing students in the skill areas outlined in Section V. This section also contained open-ended questions

for respondents to determine possible obstacles and resources needed to teach the skill areas. Media professionals were asked to answer based on the institution with which they were most familiar.

VII. Technology. This section utilized a five-point Likert-type scale and open-ended questions to determine respondents' attitudes toward technological challenges in the media industry, and how well colleges and universities are preparing students for them. It also contained open-ended questions for respondents to determine possible obstacles and resources needed to teach the new technologies.

VIII. Partnerships. This section utilized open-ended questions to determine what types of partnerships respondents and their organizations were undertaking with universities or media organizations in their communities, and what types partnerships respondents would like to undertake.

IX. The Future. This section utilized open-ended questions to determine respondents' attitudes toward the future of journalism and mass communication education, and how programs might evolve over the next 20 years.

XI. Additional comments. Respondents were given an opportunity to record any additional observations they wished to share about the planning, organization, and management of journalism and mass communication education in upcoming decades.

The 500 questionnaires were mailed on March 2, 2002. A followup reminder letter was mailed on March 30, 2002 (see Appendix B).

Analysis of Data

Analysis of data began April 15, 2002. Once returned, completed surveys were separated and coded according to cohort and respondent job title. Data from numerical ratings and Likert scale items were compiled and statistically analyzed using SPSS software.

For all numerical items, comparisons were made both across cohorts and within cohorts. The Mann-Whitney U-test was utilized to determine whether significant differences in data distribution existed between group responses. This test was chosen because: (a): it is the most appropriate for use with ordinal data, (b) it does not assume a normal distribution of scores, and (c) it focuses on differences in distributions, rather than mean scores. Like the t-test and other parametric tests, the Mann-Whitney U-test assumes that samples have been randomly and independently selected (Christensen and Stoup, 1991). A chi-square test was applied to test for significant differences between cohorts A and B in terms of institution type and job title of respondents.

Responses to open-ended questions were compiled on data sheets according to cohort and sorted by response type. They are reported in Chapter 4 in a summary-and-description format. Where useful, percentage rates for certain types of responses have been noted.

Chapter 4: Results

Response Rate

A total of 114 surveys were filled out and returned. Nine surveys were returned as undeliverable. A reminder postcard was sent out on March 30, 2002. From March 30 to April 15, 2002, another 14 surveys were returned. Overall response rate was 23.2%. Within Cohort A, 59 of the 108 subjects returned completed surveys for a response rate of 54.6%. Within Cohort B, 34 of the 300 subjects returned completed surveys for a response rate of 11.3%. Within Cohort C, 21 of the 92 subjects returned completed surveys for a response rate of 22.8%.

Respondents' Backgrounds

Broken down by cohort, 51.8% of survey respondents came from Cohort A: professors, program chairs, or deans from ACEJMC-accredited programs. Another 29.8% came from Cohort B: professors, program chairs, or deans belonging to AEJMC. The final 18.4% came from Cohort C: SPJ chapter heads who were also media professionals. For a listing of job titles and numbers of each respondent, see Figure 1.

Respondents' Organizations

Of the 93 subjects from cohorts A and B, 51% worked at public research universities. Another 33% represented public colleges or universities, and the final 16% came from private institutions. For percentages of respondents according to school enrollments, see Figure 2.

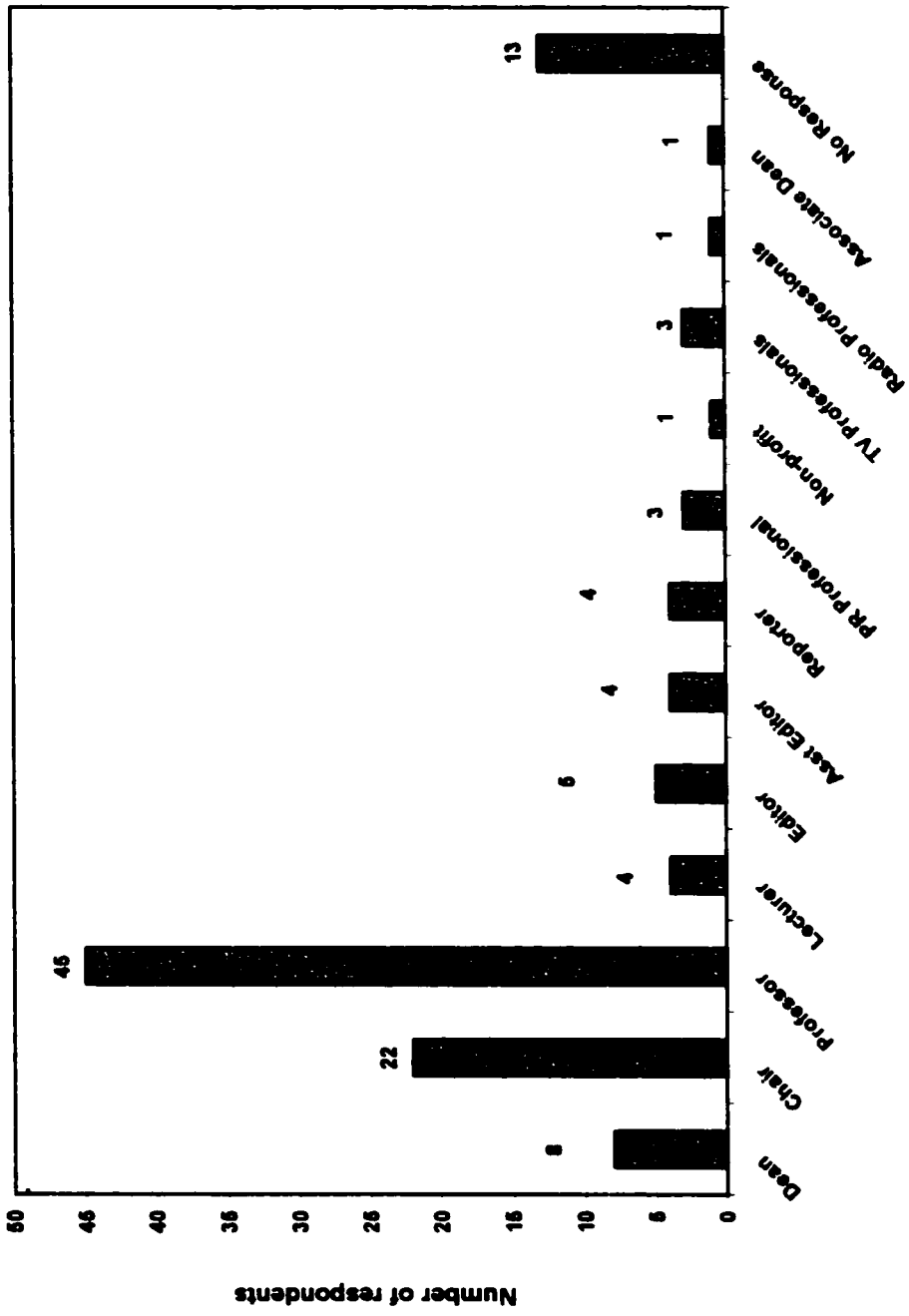

Figure 1: Survey respondents according to job title: Cohorts A, B, and C.

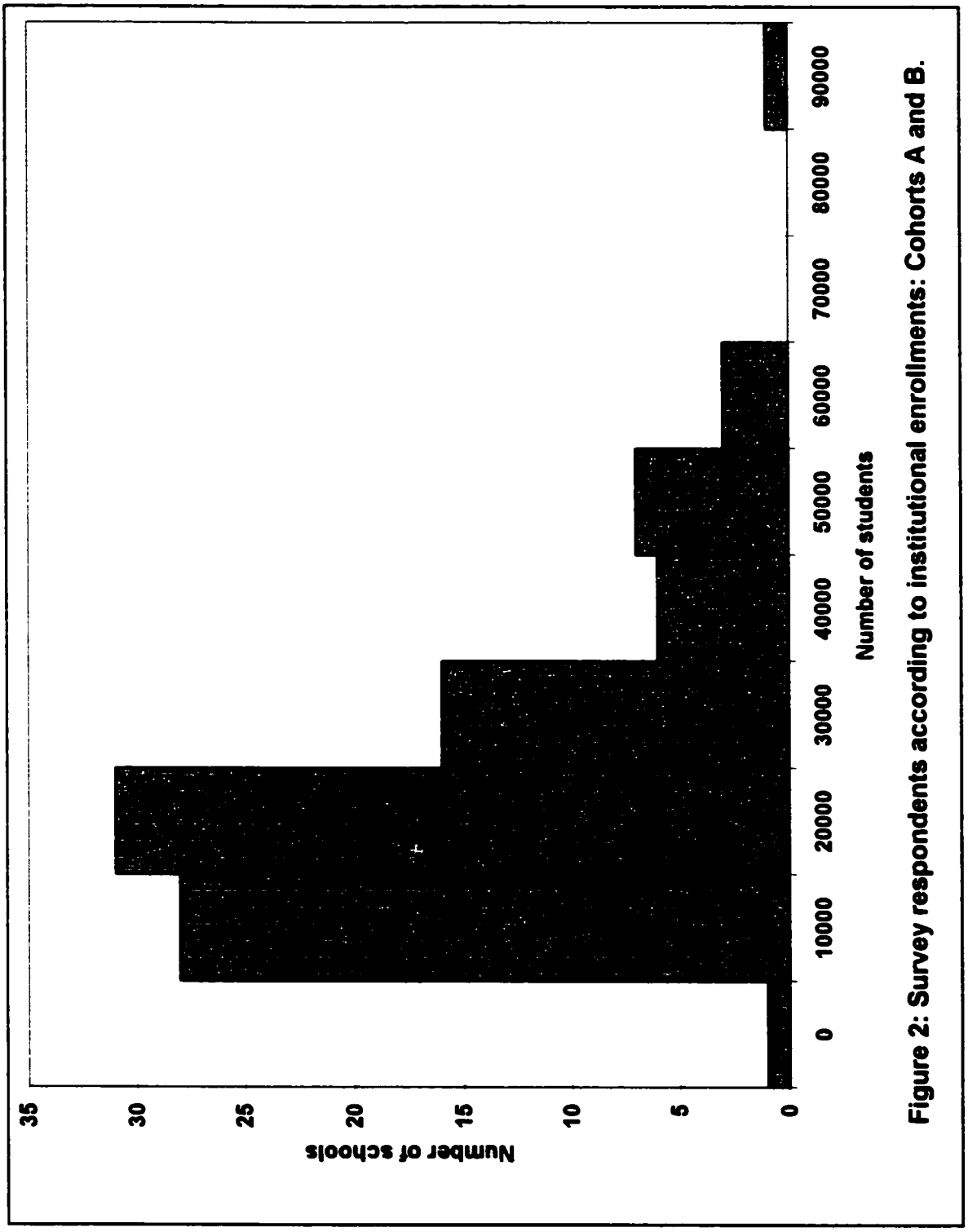

Figure 2: Survey respondents according to institutional enrollments: Cohorts A and B.

Within Cohort C, 28.5% of respondents represented large metro daily newspapers. Another 14.3% came from medium-sized daily newspapers. The biggest group, 57.2%, represented weekly newspapers and a mix of TV and radio stations, public relations agencies, state agencies, and nonprofit groups.

III. The Profession

1.) In your opinion, which trends in the journalism and mass communication professions are most heavily impacting what colleges and universities teach in their programs?

Across all three cohorts, the most frequent response to this question was "convergence." In the media industry, this term refers to the blending or overlap between print, broadcast and online media. Out of 108 respondents, a total of 35, or 32.4%, specifically mentioned the term. The word "technology" was cited a total of 24 times, among 22.2% of respondents across the three groups. Close behind were a host of other responses related to technology and its impact on the media industry, and colleges and universities. "Online media," "new media technologies," "the Internet," "e-mail," "digital applications," "online reporting," and "desktop publishing" were among those most frequently cited. In all, a total of 68 respondents (63%) cited technology-related trends as most heavily impacting what colleges and universities teach. Of the 59 respondents in Cohort A, 34 (57.6%) listed technology-related trends. Of the 34 respondents in Cohort B (AEJMC), 19 (55.8%) listed technology-related trends. Of the 21 respondents in Cohort C (SPJ), 15 (71.4%) listed technology-related trends.

Several respondents elaborated on the wider implications of technology-related trends, and how they impact classroom teaching. Technology is creating a "merging and blurring of lines between the old technical skills and professional skills," wrote one department chair from Cohort A. "Convergence is having a strong impact, although old-line faculty are resisting the cross-training necessary to prepare students for a converged workplace," wrote a department chair, also from Cohort A. One professor from Cohort A noted, "non labor-intensive and equipment-expensive classes" as an inevitable result of technology. A second professor from Cohort A said that this trend threatens to "add layers of technology that schools can't apply."

Technology's impact on the media business directly impacts what colleges and universities teach their students. The media professionals from Cohort C provided some useful insights on this score. "Newspapers and TV working together means journalists need to be more well rounded in both areas," wrote one newspaper reporter. A TV news photographer said, "Journalists need to be able to send their news out in more than one form, and they need to be able to do more than one job." Citing a need for better news reporting classes, a reporter wrote, "Internet and e-mail makes information available faster, but makes news reporting more reckless." Within Cohort B, a professor cited "the move to the Internet – particularly the Worldwide Web – as a medium both for journalists and as an alternative to traditional journalism. And, the use of more sophisticated reportorial methods" as noteworthy trends. Again, convergence emerged as a major factor in the media business. A professor from Cohort A wrote, "Convergence and cross-

media ownership rules are changing what we teach dramatically, not to mention continual changes in technology."

Beyond technology, four respondents across cohorts cited shifting consumer desires for news, and economic consolidation in the media business as impacting what colleges and universities teach. A department chair listed "fear that people won't read news or even be interested in hard news" as a concern. One professor noted "development of 'infotainment'" as another issue. A second listed, "declining/aging newspaper audience, and the dropping of local TV news by the weaker TV stations in the market." A third professor noted that "a turn toward consumer interests requires more attention to marketing and jobs." "Convergence and media consolidation as an economic force" was noted as important by one dean in Cohort A. Another professor wrote, "Consolidation/conglomeration has reduced the number of job openings and increased demand for students skilled in new media technologies." Many of these trends, and their effect on graduates' career outlooks, came up in a Cohort A broadcast professor's reply: "Cheap salaries are driving out our best students, especially in radio and small-market TV. Consultant-driven schlock is ruining news judgment."

Social and human concerns of the 21st century, and their impact on university teaching, were noted as well. Within Cohort A, four respondents cited a need for more emphasis on ethical values in the journalism and mass communication curriculum. Within Cohort B, four cited similar concerns related to media ethics and the need to underscore their value in the classroom. Across Cohorts A and B, five respondents listed "social diversity or "multiculturalism" as important trends. A professor from Cohort A

wrote that "the social and economic issues related to convergence and computer-mediated communication" were important to explore on university campuses.

Looking within journalism and mass communication programs themselves, respondents from Cohorts A and B cited additional trends they believe to be impacting college and university teaching. Six respondents – including one dean, two lecturers and three professors – said that other fields, including public relations, advertising, and communication studies are overtaking traditional journalism on their campuses. One of the Cohort B professors wrote , "More and more, public relations is moving away from journalism and toward organizational communication." Referring to overall shifts toward a more generic communication program model, a Cohort B professor cited "more emphasis on communication skills in interpersonal, cultural communication" as a trend. "Vast areas of traditional journalism have been discontinued."

Judging from the weight of the above responses, convergence and the technology revolution are overtaking the media industry, and forcing journalism and mass communication programs to redefine themselves and carve out new curricular directions. Emerging social phenomena also are making their mark on programs. Examples of trends in this area include multiculturalism, shifting consumer news desires, and a call for improved ethics in the media.

2.) How have college and university programs responded, and why do you believe these responses have or have not been effective?

While responses to Question 1 tended to cluster around convergence and technology-related issues, responses to Question 2 were widely dispersed. Across Cohorts A and B, 27 of the 90 respondents (30%) wrote that their programs had responded by revising program structure and curricula. Within Cohort A, 19 of the 56 respondents (34%) indicated this answer, while 8 of the 34 respondents (23.5%) in Cohort B responded in the same way. Typical approaches mentioned included eliminating distinctions between fields, emphasizing cross-media education, and integrating new technologies into existing courses. A total of 11 respondents from Cohorts A and B (12.2%) wrote that they had added new courses in areas including new media, electronic media, writing for websites, and online journalism. At least one school was delivering new courses online.

However, some respondents in Cohorts A and B indicated that educators' success in meeting the new technological challenges has been mixed. Ten (11.1%) said that journalism and mass communication programs were responding too slowly to be effective. "Largely, college and university administrators have been too slow in responding to these changes," noted one Cohort A professor. "We are now too far behind." A department chair from Cohort B wrote, "Colleges often don't respond. By the time changes in the curriculum are made, the change becomes passé." Recognizing the rapid pace of change in today's media industry, a Cohort B professor wrote, "They are attempting to respond but the industry changes have been swift and there is lag time."

Eleven respondents from Cohorts A and B (12.2%) laid some blame on faculty for slow and ineffective responses to technological and industry trends. "We have senior

faculty who have not kept up with technological change, and feel intimidated when we want to hire new faculty who are up to date," noted a Cohort B professor. Another Cohort B professor noted a "lack of flexibility in professional faculty to adapt to new methods. Programs tend to follow rather than lead." A department chair from Cohort B suggested that schools should hire more working media professionals rather than Ph.Ds. In Cohort A, one professor wrote that even in the 21st century, some schools and faculty remain "hidebound and industry-oriented." Another Cohort A professor noted that "most schools lack money or competent people to teach these things."

Within Cohort C, the 17 media professionals appeared to be displeased with the skills journalism and mass communication programs were imparting to students. Seven respondents (41%) noted problems in this area. Criticizing universities' traditional teaching approaches, one assistant editor said, "Colleges put too much emphasis on the theoretical and not enough on the practical." Another assistant editor echoed, "They are preparing students for a future that may not exist." Ironically, two other media professionals criticized journalism and mass communication programs for being too technology oriented. "They are teaching people to be designers and computer managers, not reporters and editors," wrote a public relations manager. One television producer noted, "I find that most candidates for television jobs know more about presentation than reporting skills."

According to 10 respondents in Cohorts A and B (11.1%), the jump to accommodate technology changes has sometimes compromised the quality of journalism and mass communication education. A department chair from Cohort A wrote, "Some of

the changes have been effective, but others leave out important factors students need." "We have revised our curriculum to emphasize cross-media education, but many students are not as broadly educated as they should be," noted another department chair. "The basics are sometimes neglected in favor of teaching technology," bemoaned a lecturer, also from Cohort A. One professor from Cohort B said, "Many programs try to cram these (technological updates) into existing courses. A few have gone overboard, such as building an entire curriculum around an online approach." "Attempting to teach electronic media has tended to dilute the quality of education," noted a second professor from Cohort B. "Education is no longer a value. Only skills are assigned value," lamented a Cohort A professor.

Regarding increased demands to address ethics and social diversity in the curriculum, five respondents from Cohort A said that faculty had attempted to integrate these approaches into their courses and materials. "We try to anticipate social change and adapt accordingly," wrote one professor from Cohort A.

Throughout the responses to Question 2 ran one other major reason for colleges' and universities' lack of ability to completely meet new industry challenges: money. A total of 21 respondents from Cohorts A and B (23.3%) indicated that financial problems were hampering programs' ability to respond adequately. Within Cohort A, 13 respondents (23.2%) indicated problems in this area; within Cohort B, 8 respondents (23.5%) indicated the same. One respondent from Cohort C mentioned lack of resources as a problem. "It's difficult to respond in tough economic times. I think we're all scrambling to find the necessary equipment and personnel resources," noted a Cohort A

professor. Another professor noted, "It's all about monetary issues in higher education today." One Cohort B professor added, "Our journalism department has been essentially gutted, and is now working to rebuild from the bottom up. Journalism professors have not been achieving tenure so programs have disappeared."

Taken as a whole, the above answers indicate that a portion of journalism and mass communication programs have responded to industry trends by revising sequences, adding new courses, and integrating new technologies into existing courses. However, much more prominent were frustrations with barriers to change including slow response from the academy, lack of faculty initiative in learning new technologies, and funding shortfalls. Other responses indicate that a portion of faculty believe that a broad, liberal education is being neglected in favor of teaching technology-based skills.

3.) How are the above trends making university-based journalism and mass communication programs more important or less important?

Of the 102 respondents across Cohorts A, B, and C who answered this question, 71 of them (69.6%) said they believed the trends they noted were making journalism and mass communication programs more important. Within Cohort A, 42 of the 54 respondents (77.7%) responded in this manner. Within Cohort B, 23 of the 33 respondents (69.6%) agreed. Within Cohort C, however, only 6 of the 13 respondents (46%) agreed. Positive reasons given centered mostly on the importance of higher education in building good writers and thinkers for the media profession, and providing a solid liberal arts foundation for students. "Programs are becoming more important because students need more liberal

arts and broader journalism and mass communication training," noted a professor from Cohort A. Another echoed, "Someone has to train the media professionals." A department chair from Cohort A wrote, "I think professional programs are more relevant if they are working with professionals to keep information and skills teaching current." "Our programs are more important because we are the only ones teaching the Bill of Rights," a professor from Cohort A added.

Within Cohort B, one professor gave credence to both liberal arts and industry skills, saying, "These trends make programs more important because of the need for research and computer skills together with theoretical understanding of issues and problems arising from conditions in the media." Another Cohort B professor noted that the "reflection of values and ethics, as well as skills and conceptual courses" were making programs more important in light of industry trends. "These trends make critical analytic teaching by the professoriate more important," wrote a third. Two professors from Cohort B highlighted journalism and mass communication programs' importance in providing basic writing and critical thinking skills. "The basics are still important," one said. "The student who can write, report, and edit well can adjust to any form of media." The second noted, "Programs are become more important as companies turn more to people specifically trained to work in the industry."

The six respondents from Cohort C who gave credit to journalism and mass communication programs did so for both academic and industry-centered reasons. One reporter wrote, "Preparing in all disciplines is making programs a necessity. Before, writers could work their craft even without a degree. That is becoming less of an option."

A second reporter noted, "Education lays the foundation; experiences build the ladder to success." The craft of writing as an intellectual and professional tool was recognized by one television news photographer who said, "I think the trends make good writing more important than ever, and wherever one can get better at writing, those programs become more important." Other Cohort C respondents were more pragmatic. "The programs are more important because journalists have to be better trained to compete," wrote one copy editor. A television producer responded, "Programs are more important now because students can be trained in how to use the tools they need before getting to the workplace." Still, doubts about program efficacy lingered with one Cohort A department chair, who noted the trends "should be making programs more important – but it's hard to know the centrality of journalism and mass communication education to the university mission." A Cohort A professor qualified his/her answer this way: "They (programs) continue to be important to industry as a source of workers, but less important to society as a public service."

On the negative side, 19 out of 102 respondents (18.6%) across the three cohorts said they believed industry trends were making journalism and mass communication programs less important. Seven respondents from Cohort A (13%) responded in this manner; from Cohort B, the figure was 6 out of 33 respondents, or 18.1%. Within Cohort C, 7 of 13 respondents (54%) agreed. Reasons given pointed largely to academic programs' inability or refusal to meet industry needs. A department chair from Cohort A noted, "Students realize after they get into the media world that their one-dimensional education has not adequately prepared them for what they must face." A professor from

Cohort A added, "Some of what we teach has become irrelevant, dated." "Programs are now less important in that the goals of the liberal arts are now second to the goals of the marketplace," wrote one professor from Cohort B. A second Cohort B professor blamed declining student interest in journalism for program difficulties with current trends. "It is making programs harder to sustain because of declining enrollments in news-editorial courses. There is continuing decline at the high-school level, as well."

Of the seven Cohort C respondents who thought programs were becoming less important, one assistant editor wrote, "It seems like some journalism programs are sidetracking themselves by downplaying the importance of actually teaching journalism classes. Technical writing is not the same." Two other assistant editors noted that current journalism and mass communication programs have de-emphasized basic writing skills, and that today's graduates seem "ill-prepared to tackle the real world."

Several responses to Question 3 fell outside of the typical range of yes-or-no answers. They appeared to reflect some frustration with the current direction of the media industry and journalism and mass communication education as a whole. "As a traditional hard-news type, I struggle with imparting my news values when I see general standards for what constitutes news eroding at such a quick pace," wrote a Cohort B professor. "Mass communication programs like advertising, public relations and radio-TV are growing and expanding. Journalism is not. Low salaries are keeping students away," noted a department chair from Cohort B. One Cohort A dean questioned the power of media industry trends to dictate academic programs' relevance. "Important in whose

judgment?" he asked. "Trends in themselves are less important to the value of a program than tradition and the attractiveness of a program to new students."

Out of the 102 respondents across the three cohorts, 12.7% said they didn't believe the trends noted made journalism and mass communication programs any more or less important.

Although more than two-thirds of respondents on this item confirmed programs' importance in providing a broad education and professional skills, the numbers of respondents who indicated the opposite or no difference were less than affirming. Results indicate that broad agreement does not exist on this subject, although the above responses illustrated some useful perspectives in weighing programs' futures.

4.) Do you believe that journalism and mass communication is best taught in a college classroom, a professional setting, or through some combination of the two? Please explain.

A total of 112 subjects across Cohorts A, B and C responded to this question. Of the total, 100% agreed that a combination of classroom learning and professional experience provides the best professional preparation for journalism and mass communication students. However, the reasons cited gave light to an interesting range of issues important to both the classroom and job site. Several respondents across all three cohorts ascribed a bit more value to classroom learning. "Journalism and mass communication is more than professional skills," wrote one dean from Cohort A. "Students need a liberal arts foundation that cannot be taught in the newsroom." A

Cohort A professor noted, "The classroom provides some basic experiences, but also explains why we do things a certain way. As technology and the industry change, that 'why' information is all the more critical." A professor from Cohort B wrote, "The classroom offers opportunities for fundamental skill building and reflection – plus broader understanding of the mass communication process, the media's role in society and critical evaluation of the media. That isn't generally feasible or likely in the newsroom." A reporter from Cohort C echoed faculty sentiments. "First, a student must have the know-how and drive to succeed and learn in a professional setting. Journalists already in the field can't be teachers. But they can mold the right student with what they've learned."

Other subjects appeared to slightly favor the skills that students can build in a professional setting. Media professionals from Cohort C fell most definitely into this camp. "It is impossible to bring the pace and feel of a newsroom into a classroom," noted one assistant editor. "There is simply no substitute for hands-on training," wrote another. Several educators agreed. " Classroom learning is just a start," said a Cohort B professor. "Work on campus publications and internships remains essential." An associate dean from Cohort B wrote, "The classroom setting can never come close to the real world." A chair from Cohort A echoed, "The reality of the newsroom and society cannot be sufficiently replicated in a campus setting."

However, a number of other subjects appeared to value of the classroom and job site in equal measure. "There is nothing like experience to teach journalism," wrote an assistant editor from Cohort C. "But at the same time, the classroom is needed to explain

things to students without the press of deadlines." A Cohort A dean reflected, "Internships and part-time jobs are vital to a well-rounded graduate who's schooled in law, ethics, writing, and production issues." Two other Cohort A professors put it in terms of what each educational setting seems to do best: "Schools can't keep up with what happens in the profession. Yet, professionals don't have time to address the basics," wrote one. The second responded, "Law, ethics, and social role are academic. Accreditation and education priorities limit practice, which is better handled, ideally, in the newsroom."

Harking back to an early 20th-century journalism education model in which students earned a separate bachelor's degree before studying journalism, one Cohort B professor wrote, "There's increased validity to the idea that we should be teaching journalism after someone has a BA/BS in history, political science, business, etc." Another professor from Cohort B shared specific ideas for a model curriculum: "Ideally, strong classroom courses with lab work on student media, followed by one or more internships would prepare students for a senior semester of daily work in a news bureau setting, providing news for print, broadcast, and online formats."

Overall, the uniformity of responses to this item indicates that the classroom and newsroom still hold approximately equal value for journalism and mass communication students, educators, and media professionals.

IV. The Academy

How would you rate the academic standing of your program within your college or university? Rank it on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being the highest.

Across the 92 respondents from Cohorts A and B, 21 subjects (22.8%) rated their institutions a "1." Another 30 (32.6%) rated their institutions a "2". Thirty-one subjects (33.7%) rated their institution a "3"; 10 (10.9%) rated their institutions a "4". No subjects gave a "5" rating. Mean rating was 2.35. For comparisons across cohorts A and B, and between faculty and administrators, see Figures 3 and 4.

On the whole, subjects from Cohort A rated their program standings higher than did subjects from Cohort B. Utilizing the Mann-Whitney U-test, a statistically significant difference was established with a z-score of –2.065 and p-value of .039. A comparison of ratings given by deans and chairs with those given by professors yielded no statistically significant difference.

5.) What do you believe accounts for this situation?

In all, 86 subjects from Cohorts A and B responded to this question. Of that total, 17 (19.8%) had rated the academic standing of their program as a "1." This numerical rating was given most frequently among Cohort A. Of the 52 Cohort A respondents, 14 (27%) rated their programs as a "1." Among the 34 respondents in Cohort B, only three (8.8%) rated their programs as a "1." Reasons given for the "1" rating were mostly centered around combinations of (a) quality of faculty, (b) academic rigor, (c) age of program, (d) fundraising success, and (e) program visibility. The combined nature of responses was

revealed through quotes such as this one from a Cohort A department chair: "We have a strong tradition of preparing students for mass media positions. We also have a strong tradition of hands-on experience, coupled with higher-level thinking skills." Another response from a Cohort A dean read, "High visibility for over 75 years, excellent teaching faculty, and students that, on average, outperform students in other programs." Among Cohort B subjects, one professor listed "enrollment, reputation, respect from colleagues, publication record of faculty, and teaching evaluations" as reasons behind the "1" rating.

Among the 86 Cohort A and B respondents to this item, 26 (30.2%) had rated their programs as a "2." Sixteen out of 52 Cohort A respondents (30.7%) had given the "2" rating, while 10 out of 34 respondents from Cohort B (29.4%) had given the "2" rating. Again, subjects listed many of the positive reasons given for "1" ratings. "We are very aggressive in growth and student service," wrote a Cohort A department chair. "We are also very active in service to the university and community, which is highly valued here." "Solid professional reputation, award-winning student media, and legions of journalists who are graduates," made the list for another Cohort A chair. However, some perceptions of program shortcomings began to creep in at this level, including (a) poor program visibility, (b) entrenched academic attitudes toward journalism and mass communication, and (c) lack of respect for professional program faculty. "Our standing is not as high as the hard sciences, engineering and possibly business, but we're toward the top among the social sciences and humanities," wrote a Cohort A professor.

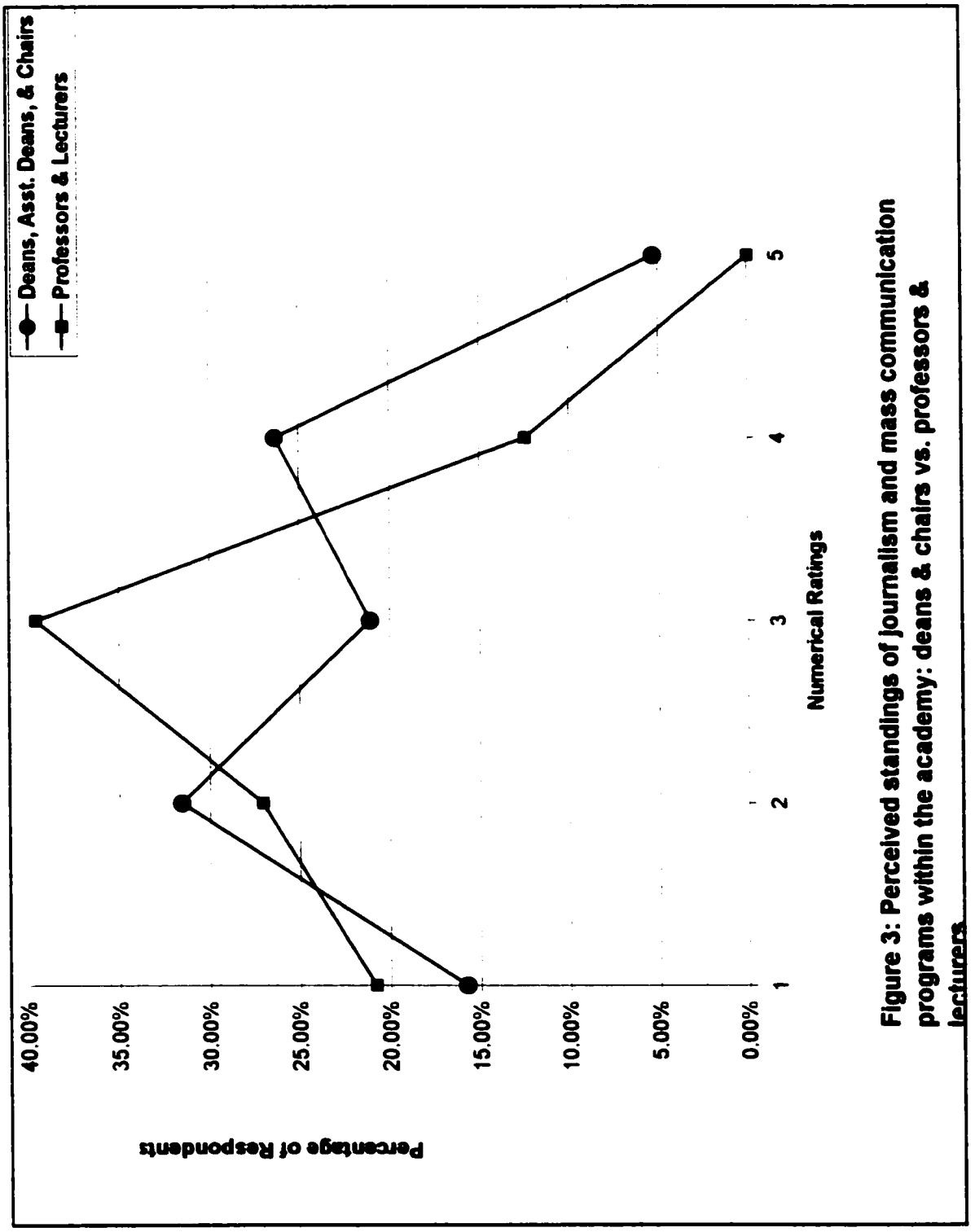

Figure 3: Perceived standings of journalism and mass communication programs within the academy: deans & chairs vs. professors & lecturers

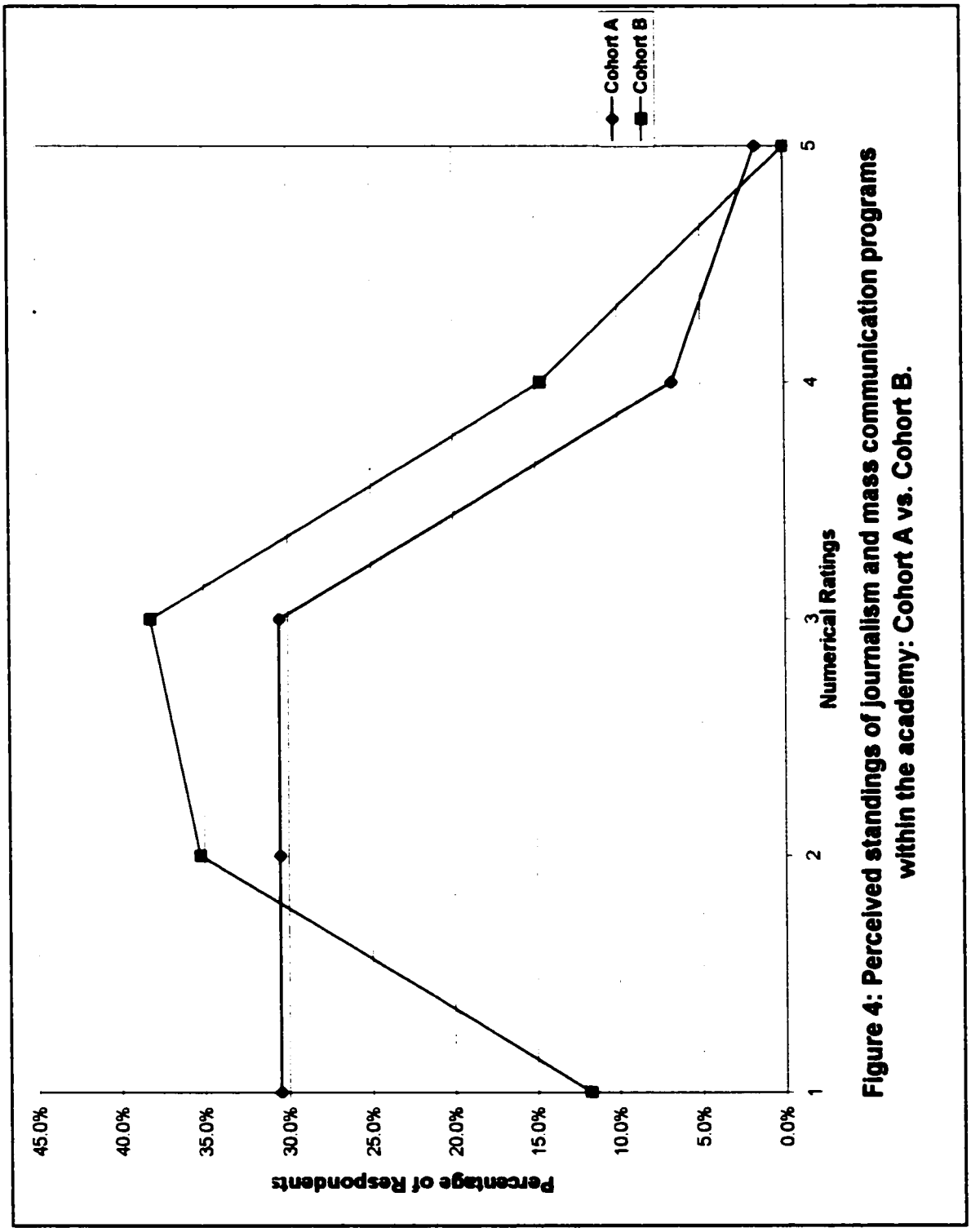

Figure 4: Perceived standings of journalism and mass communication programs within the academy: Cohort A vs. Cohort B.

A Cohort A department chair said, "Our ranking would be higher, but most people know little about what we do." Within Cohort B, a professor wrote, "Our program is strong, but journalism always gets mixed support in a university setting. A second Cohort B professor noted, "Lots of research productivity, but we're perceived as teaching too many 'skills.'"

Across Cohort A and B respondents to this item, 31 (36%) rated their programs as a "3." Fifteen out of 52 Cohort A respondents (28.8%) gave the "3" rating, while 16 out of 34 respondents from Cohort B (47%) gave the "3" rating. Comments about perceived program shortcomings became more pronounced at this level, with funding shortfalls, faculty workload, and poor student preparation added to the list of educators' woes. "There's grade inflation, some weak teaching, and many poorly trained high school graduates in our program," added one Cohort A professor. "There's a lack of respect for professional programs in a research university," noted a Cohort A department chair. "We are not seen as pure academics, and that hurts," wrote a Cohort A professor. Responses from Cohort B were equally instructive. "Too few faculty; emphasis on undergraduate education and teaching large enrollment service classes," wrote a professor in describing difficulties at his/her own institution. "Our communication department doesn't have a coherent focus," added another professor. It's too disparate." A third professor summarized several factors hampering program success: "Too many students, not enough faculty or funding."

Across the 86 Cohort A and B respondents to this item, 10 (11.6%) had rated their programs as a "4." Four out of 52 Cohort A respondents (7.6%) gave the "4" rating,

while 6 out of 34 respondents from Cohort B (17.6%) gave the "4" rating. Here, subjects amplified many of the frustrations that surfaced in "2" and "3" ratings. The difference was in verbal intensity. "We remain something of a second-class citizen in academe in the eyes of the other 'traditional' disciplines," said a Cohort B professor. "We are not well understood as a field, although many of use may be respected as individuals. Part of this, in many schools, may be a function of the relatively poor quality or research generated in the field." A department chair from Cohort B underscored those sentiments. "It is the nationwide notion that communication is not a 'true' member of the academy, that we are professional – not scholarly – in nature." "Engineering, computing and business majors garner greater respect in the academy, as well as in the professional world," added a Cohort A lecturer.

Three Cohort A professors relayed concerns about how money issues impacted their programs' standing. "Teaching journalism involves small classes (which are expensive) and journalism teachers aren't likely to seek or get research grants. This university regards teaching as less important than research – and bringing money to campus has a high priority," wrote one. The second noted that lab hardware and software is extremely expensive. The third wrote, "Programs such as our medical school bring in more dollars." Finally, another Cohort A professor pointed out problems with the basic structure of some journalism and mass communication programs. "Journalism programs flourish in colleges and schools of journalism, <u>not</u> in departments of communication within Colleges of Arts and Sciences."

Although 55.4% of respondents to this item indicated healthy program standings with "1" and "2" ratings, the 43.5% of respondents that gave "3" and "4" ratings underscore the need for journalism and mass communication programs to raise their academic standing within the academy. The fact that a greater percentage of Cohort A subjects gave their program "1s" than did Cohort B subjects may be partially explained by the fact that ACEJMC-accredited programs are bound by a set of standards that can help to raise their academic standing within their institutions. The fact that more Cohort B subjects gave their programs "3" and "4" ratings than did Cohort A subjects is cause for further concern, and may be partially explained by the fact that ACEJMC-accredited programs tend to be larger, more established, better funded, and therefore better recognized by their institutions. This finding merits further investigation into individual circumstances on Cohort B campuses.

6.) How much value does your institution place on faculty with significant field experience but no advanced degree, versus faculty with limited field experience and an advanced degree?

A total of 88 subjects from Cohorts A and B responded to this item. Across both Cohorts, 49 respondents, or 55.6%, indicated that their institution placed less value on faculty with significant field experience but no advanced degree, versus faculty with limited field experience and an advanced degree. Within the 57 subjects from Cohort A, 26 of them (45.6%) responded in this manner. For the 31 Cohort B respondents, 23 of them (74.1%) agreed. The overriding reason given for this response was research and

tenure requirements imposed by the university. The weight of the responses, however, seemed to indicate that departments highly valued professional experience, and wished they could hire more tenure-track faculty from this category. "Our accrediting association (ACEJMC) requires a master's degree," wrote one Cohort A department chair. "We are a department, and we highly value professional experience, but I can't hire full-time faculty without a doctorate." A Cohort B professor said, "No one can get on tenure track without a Ph.D., or advance past instructor rank without considerable graduate work toward the Ph.D. But in department decisions, the chair and dean act as though tenured professors are the ones without degrees or experience."

Other respondents appeared to dislike the fact that they were often forced to hire new Ph.D.s with limited field experience. "They (university administration) want a Ph.D. behind their names, not work experience," wrote a Cohort A professor. Another noted, "We used to stress professional experience. We are now forced to hire professionals off tenure track or Ph.D.'s who don't know the field." "Our institution places little or no value on field experience," concurred a Cohort B professor. Those with field experience but no Ph.D. are near retirement, never were promoted, or are adjunct." Two Cohort B subjects indicated that in rare instances, faculty with master's degrees had been sought for tenure track positions. "We are seeking a public relations professor with extensive experience and a master's degree, but that took approval of the provost," wrote one. The second responded, "We have succeeded in hiring and tenuring people based on field experience, provided the experience and performance has been truly extraordinary."

Across both cohorts, 22 respondents, or 25%, indicated that their institution favored a balance between less value on faculty with significant field experience but no advanced degree, versus faculty with limited field experience and an advanced degree. Within the 57 subjects from Cohort A, 18 of them (31.5%) responded in this manner. In the 31 Cohort B respondents, three of them (9.6%) agreed. "The advanced degree is weighted more heavily, but professional experience also has a role in our program, provided the faculty have a master's degree," said a Cohort B professor. A Cohort A dean wrote, "About half of our faculty have terminal degrees, and the remainder have master's degrees. That's a decent balance." A department chair from Cohort B noted, "We seek a balance between the two on our permanent faculty." Finally, a Cohort A professor said, "Our faculty must have a Ph.D., but field experience is valued and considered when awarding tenure and rank."

Across both Cohorts, only five respondents indicated their institution placed more value on faculty with significant field experience but no advanced degree, versus faculty with limited field experience and an advanced degree. Within the 57 subjects from Cohort A, four responded in this manner. For the 31 Cohort B respondents, only one agreed. "We place more value on field experience than other schools," responded a Cohort A subject. "We have a college-approved track in our tenure document for professionals without an advanced degree. We have two people on that track." A Cohort A dean wrote that his/her university accepted professional experience in lieu of the terminal degree in the communication field.

Notably, a fourth category of subjects from Cohorts A and B responded that field experience and an advanced degree did not have to exclude one another. These respondents noted that their institutions valued both the Ph.D. and field experience, and had successfully obtained faculty with both characteristics. "These are not mutually exclusive qualities," wrote a Cohort A department chair. "We have faculty with significant (10-20 years) professional experience and Ph.D.s. You can have both! In fact, the average professional experience of our faculty is about eight years." A Cohort B department chair added, "We want both and place equal value on them. They are not mutually exclusive, and you can't have one without the other. This is how my dean operates." A professor from Cohort A wrote, "Our focus is on hiring faculty with both Ph.D.s and significant professional/industry experience."

From the above responses, it is evident that the doctorate is increasingly a job requirement at journalism and mass communication programs of all types and sizes. As much as some program faculty indicated they would like to hire more faculty with field experience but no advanced degree, their institutions are not allowing it. The 25% of subjects who said their institutions favored a balance between the two indicated a recognition of field experience, but still underscored the importance of a doctorate. Perhaps the most notable finding in this item was that a number of subjects said they sought and were successful in obtaining faculty with both field experience and an advanced degree.

7.) What is your program doing now to make journalism and mass communication a viable discipline within the academy, and what barriers stand in your way?

A total of 84 subjects responded to this item. Respondents described a range of measures they were pursuing to maintain their discipline's viability within the academy. Across Cohorts A and B, 21 respondents (25%) said they were employing measures such as revising curricula, improving course content, raising academic standards, and focusing on teaching excellence to maintain or improve the quality of their educational offerings. "We have developed a core of 10 hours to be required of all communication majors – broadcast, journalism, public relations, speech, and organizational communication. Its goal is to develop good writers and critical thinkers who are unafraid of research," wrote a professor from Cohort B. Recognizing the media industry's centrality in maintaining program viability, one a Cohort A department chair said, "Our program is generally accepted as a viable discipline at this university, mainly because of the high esteem in which it is held among the mass media outlets we serve."

Across Cohorts A and B, 19 respondents (22.6%) said they were maintaining their discipline's viability by offering more interdisciplinary and general education courses, forming new partnerships with other academic departments and campus organizations, and taking a more active role in university governance and campus affairs. "We are integrating ourselves in significant ways into campus life – through major administrative and committee roles, and by demonstrating the high quality of our faculty's work in tenure and promotion cases," wrote a Cohort B professor. "Our people and our work are becoming more visible. We are also doing some major service teaching.

That helps." A Cohort A professor responded, "We are trying to integrate student media into the campus, do more cooperative work with other departments, and support community service programs." "We are offering more general-education courses on media literacy, women/minorities in the media, and international media," added another Cohort A professor. A Cohort A department chair wrote that it's often a matter of simply speaking up. "We maintain a high profile within our institution and argue our academic validity at every turn."

Across Cohorts A and B, 16 respondents (19%) said they were focusing on hiring more faculty with Ph.D's, producing better research, and publishing more frequently in scholarly journals. Notably, subjects also highlighted the importance of bringing new knowledge into the classroom. "We focus on the creation and integration of knowledge from the field, and its dissemination to students and the profession," responded one Cohort A professor. Another added, "We are teaching classes with an eye toward theory and research. We need more qualified faculty." A Cohort A dean noted "some resistance to accepting creative efforts that vary from the refereed publication approach."

Across Cohorts A and B, 11 respondents (13%) said they were attempting to purchase and utilize more technology in their classrooms. Another seven respondents (8.3%) said they were making basic structural changes to maintain their discipline's viability. "We are advocating placement in a professional college," responded a Cohort A dean. "Right now, we're talking with speech-communication about a new alliance," added a Cohort A professor. A colleague noted that his/her program had recently formed

a school of mass communication by combining a journalism department and a radio/tv/film department.

In Cohort A, two respondents said that ACEJMC accreditation had improved their lot within the academy. "Accreditation gives a hallmark of excellence and campus recognition," responded a Cohort A department chair. Additionally, two subjects from Cohorts A and B said that fundraising and generating their own resources had increased their discipline's viability within their institutions.

Factors that Cohort A and B subjects listed as barriers to increasing their discipline's viability centered mostly around shortages of money, faculty, staff, classroom space, and equipment. Other subjects cited academic tradition and a lack of understanding about the journalism and mass communication field. "We continue to emphasize professional rather then academic (research) achievement, and that is always a source of friction with some who do not understand our field," wrote a Cohort B professor. Another added, "Tradition and our reputation stand in our way. We are viable already but looked down upon by some." Another Cohort A professor placed much of the burden the K-12 education system. "Money is a substantial obstacle, but a greater obstacle is the education of the student today. Many college-bound students do not have the vocabulary or the grammar capabilities to write a coherent sentence. It is mandatory that the teaching in elementary school of grammar and syntax, and all the components of intelligent English, be strengthened."

Highlighting the difficulty of thriving as a professional program within an academic institution, a Cohort A professor wrote, "The biggest barrier is the university.

We try to follow their wishes, and in doing so, make our program weaker. Then, the program becomes even less visible."

Forty-four percent of the collective Cohort A and B responses indicated that journalism and mass communication educators are attempting to increase their programs' viability by doing things that the academy at large would understand and value. Examples here included revising curricula, raising academic standards, hiring more faculty with Ph.D.'s, and producing more research. The 22.6% of subjects who indicated their programs were reaching out to other departments and taking a more active voice in campus affairs are building a broader base of support by forming instructional and political alliances outside of their programs. The purchase and utilization of new technologies also appeared to play a role for a smaller number of subjects.

V. The Students

Which skills will be most important for students to succeed as journalists or mass communication professionals over the next decade? Please rate the following skill areas on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being the most important.

For a comparison of numerical item ratings across cohorts, see Figure 5.

Thinking and writing. Of 114 respondents across cohorts, 102 (89.5%) rated thinking as a "1". Eleven (9.6%) rated thinking as a "2". Mean rating across cohorts was 1.20. For writing, 101 subjects across cohorts (88.6%) rated it as a "1". Twelve (10.5%) rated it as a "2". Mean rating across cohorts was 1.15. The Mann-Whitney U-test was

applied to check for statistically significant differences between cohorts A vs. B, and between cohorts A and B vs. C. None were found.

Personal skills. Next in importance came personal skills, which earned a mean rating of 1.85 across cohorts. Eighty-two percent of respondents rated editing either a "1" or "2". Utilizing the Mann-Whitney U-test, no statistically significant differences were found between cohorts A vs. B, and between cohorts A and B vs. C.

Computer skills. This earned a mean rating of 1.94 across cohorts. Seventy-nine percent of respondents rated computer skills either a "1" or "2". However, 22 subjects (19.3%) rated it a "3" or "4." Utilizing the Mann-Whitney U-test, no statistically significant differences were found between cohorts A vs. B, and between cohorts A and B vs. C.

Editing skills. This earned a mean rating of 1.97 across cohorts. Eighty percent of respondents rated editing either a "1" or "2". Utilizing the Mann-Whitney U-test, no statistically significant differences were found between cohorts A vs. B, and between cohorts A and B vs. C.

Visual presentation. This earned a mean rating of 2.20 across cohorts. Although 71% of subjects rated it a "1" or "2", 28 subjects (24.6%) rated visual presentation a "3". As a whole, Cohort A respondents rated this skill slightly higher than Cohort B respondents. Employing the Mann-Whitney U-test, a statistically significant difference was established, with a z-score of –2.00 and a p-value of .046.

Also, faculty from cohorts A and B rated visual presentation skills slightly higher than their media counterparts in Cohort C. The Mann-Whitney U-test established a

statistically significant difference between cohorts A and B vs. Cohort C, with a z-score of −1.733 and a p-value of .083. A comparison of ratings given by deans and chairs with those given by professors yielded no statistically significant difference.

Taken as a whole, the data for this item reveal that a majority of respondents believe thinking and writing are the most important two skills students will need as media professionals in the future. These are skills that have endured for more than a century in the journalism and mass communication field, and skills that have always been most heavily stressed in journalism and mass communication programs. The high ratings given to thinking and writing also indicate that these skills have not lost ground in the Information Age. Indeed, there is reason to think they will become more important than ever as new technologies impact the media industry and society. The ability to make sense of news events, and convey them accurately and compellingly will always be in demand.

Notably, subjects across cohorts gave personal skills a higher mean rating (1.85) than computer skills (1.94) or visual presentation skills (2.20). Given the 63% of respondents in Section III who cited technology-related trends as most heavily impacting classroom teaching, it was surprising that the mean rating for these two items wasn't somewhat higher. The rating could be echoing what some respondents repeated throughout the survey: that colleges and universities shouldn't be in the business of teaching technology.

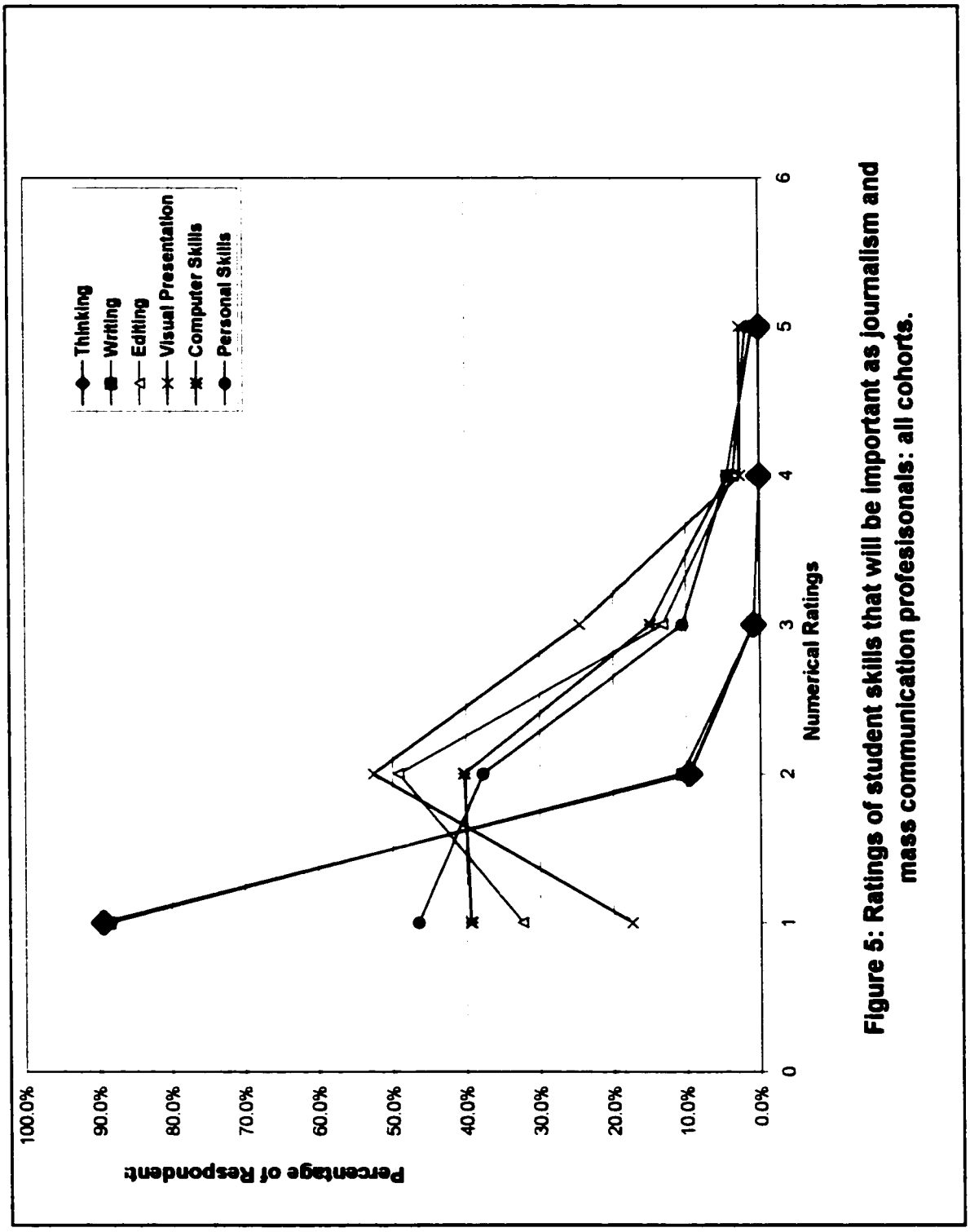

Figure 5: Ratings of student skills that will be important as journalism and mass communication profesisonals: all cohorts.

Ratings of student subskills

On these items, subjects were asked to rate a number of sub-skills within each of the main skill areas noted above (thinking, writing, editing, visual presentation, computer skills, personal skills). The 1-to-5 rating scale was identical to the one used for the main skill areas. Reviewing the data from responses to this item, the following conclusions emerge:

Thinking sub-skills: Not surprisingly, the sub-skill given the highest mean rating in this category (1.24) was "the ability to separate facts from opinions." It's one of the most important duties of any media professional. "Broad base in a variety of disciplines" came in second with a mean rating of 1.66, followed by "ability to negotiate ethical dilemmas (1.69). Last came "ability to recognize and address legal concerns," with a mean rating of 2.43. This could be attributed to the fact that copy editors often handle the task of recognizing and addressing legal concerns.

Cohort A and B subjects rated "broad base in a variety of disciplines" higher than did those in Cohort C. Employing the Mann-Whitney U-test, a statistically significant difference was established, with a z-score of –2.807 and a p-value of .005. Additionally, Cohort C subjects rated "the ability to separate facts from opinions" slightly higher than did their counterparts in cohorts A or B. Employing the Mann-Whitney U-test, a statistically significant difference was established, with a z-score of –1.937 and a p-value of .053.

Writing sub-skills: "The basics: grammar, punctuation and style" earned a mean rating of 1.32 – the highest of any sub-skills in this category. "Conveying the news

clearly and objectively" was nearly identical, with a mean rating of 1.35. These ratings underscore the continued importance of being able to communicate in a simple, straightforward fashion. "Research and interviewing" rated next in importance, with a mean rating of 1.67. "Producing copy for a variety of formats (print, broadcast, online, etc.)" earned a mean rating of 2.49, the lowest within the category. Again, given the number of respondents who listed convergence as a major industry trend impacting classroom teaching, it was surprising that this sub-skill did not fare better in the ratings.

Across cohorts A and B, professors gave higher ratings to "the basics: grammar, punctuation and style" than did deans and chairs. Utilizing the Mann-Whitney U-test, a statistically significant difference was established, with a z-score of –2.250 and a p-value of .024. The same was true with "research and interviewing" sub-skills. The Mann-Whitney U-test revealed a statistically significant difference, with a z-score of –1.592 and a p-value of .111.

Editing sub-skills: As with writing sub-skills, "editing for the basics: grammar, punctuation, and style" garnered the highest mean rating of this group: 1.32. Subjects gave a mean rating of 1.99 to "editing for audience and length," and a mean rating of 2.07 to "editing for legal and ethical concerns." Again, because editors often handle these tasks, respondents may have attached somewhat less importance to them. No statistically significant differences were found between any of the cohorts for editing sub-skills.

Visual presentation sub-skills: Notably, no sub-skill in this category garnered a mean rating above 2.29. Respondents rated conventional skills including photography and page design (both 2.29) slightly above infographic design (2.38) and broadcast

editing (2.48). So, while these sub-skills were important to subjects, they did not rate as highly as the most of the thinking and writing sub-skills.

Respondents from Cohort C rated photography sub-skills higher than their counterparts in Cohorts A or B. The Mann-Whitney U-test established a statistically significant difference, with a z-score of –1.803 and a p-value of .071.

Personal sub-skills: As with the ratings for main skill areas, subjects rated the sub-skills within personal skills slightly higher than those for computer skills. "Ability to work effectively with diverse team members" earned a mean rating of 1.56. Ability to manage stress and conflict" was rated second-highest, at 1.72. "Communicating across cultural boundaries" netted a mean rating of 1.93 and "ability to speak more than one language" came in last, at 2.74. No statistically significant differences were found between any of the cohorts for personal sub-skills.

Computer sub-skills: Computer-assisted reporting was the highest-rated sub-skill in this category, with a mean rating of 1.7. "Writing for online media" came in at 2.01, and "web page design and editing" earned a mean rating of 2.37. Again, with the effects of convergence on the media industry, it is notable that no convergence-related sub-skill was given a mean rating above 2.

Respondents from Cohorts B gave higher ratings to "computer-assisted reporting" than did respondents from Cohort A. Utilizing the Mann-Whitney U-test, a statistically significant difference was established, with a z-score of –1.958 and a p-value of .050. Professors from Cohorts A and B also gave higher ratings to "computer-assisted

reporting" than did deans or chairs. The Mann-Whitney U-test established a statistically significant difference, with a z-score of −1.877 and a p-value of .061.

Notably, respondents from Cohort C rated "web page design and editing" lower than did respondents from Cohort A or B. Utilizing the Mann-Whitney U-test, a statistically significant difference was established, with a z-score of −1.912 and a p-value of .056. This rating may reflect media professionals' preference for students who can think and write over those with strong computer skills.

Judging from the above ratings, thinking, writing, and human relations skills appear to still be at least as useful as computer skills in the Information Age. This finding affirms what several respondents noted in Section III as they discussed the importance of emerging social and human concerns, and their impact on teaching in journalism and mass communication programs.

VI. Teaching

How well is your college or university (or the institutions with which you are most familiar) preparing students in the following skill areas? Please rate each skill area on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 as the highest.

A total of 109 subjects responded to this item. For a comparison of numerical item ratings across cohorts, see Figure 6.

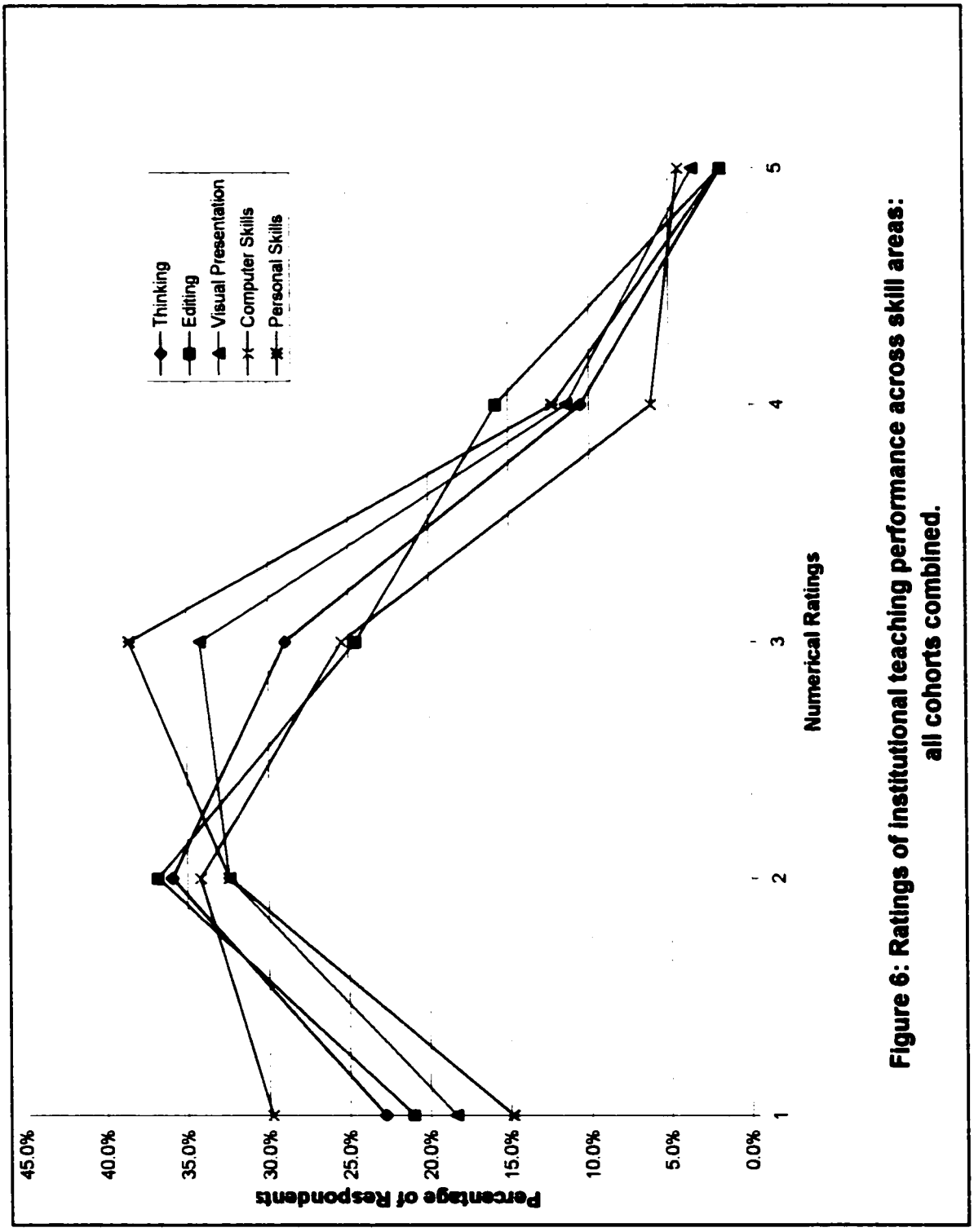

Figure 6: Ratings of institutional teaching performance across skill areas: all cohorts combined.

Thinking. Of all respondents across cohorts, 21 (19.3%) rated their institution's performance in this area as a "1". Another 41 (37.6%) rated their institutions as a "2". Thirty-three subjects (30.3%) gave their institutions a "3." Twelve subjects (11%) rated their institutions as "4," and two subjects (1.8%) gave their institutions a "5." Mean rating across cohorts was 2.36.

A comparison of ratings reveals that Cohort A and B subjects believe their institutions are doing a better job of teaching thinking than do subjects in Cohort C. Utilizing the Mann-Whitney U-test, a statistically significant difference was established, with a z-score of –1.676 and a p-value of .094.

Editing. Here, 16 subjects across cohorts (14.6%) rated their institution's performance in this area as a "1". Another 42 (38.5%) rated their institutions as a "2". Twenty-eight subjects (25.7%) gave their institutions a "3." Eighteen subjects (16.5%) rated their institutions as "4," and two subjects (1.8%) gave their institutions a "5." Mean rating across cohorts was 2.51. No statistically significant differences were found between any of the cohorts for this item.

Visual presentation. Fourteen subjects across cohorts (12.8%) rated their institution's performance in this area as a "1". Another 37 (34%) rated their institutions as a "2". Thirty-nine (35.7%) gave their institutions a "3." Thirteen subjects (11.9%) rated their institutions as "4," and four subjects (3.6%) gave their institutions a "5." Mean rating across cohorts was 2.57. No statistically significant differences were found between any of the cohorts for this item.

Computer skills. Twenty-eight subjects across cohorts (25.6%) rated their institution's performance in this area as a "1". Another 39 (35.7%) rated their institutions as a "2". Twenty-nine subjects (26.6%) gave their institutions a "3." Seven subjects (6.4%) rated their institutions as "4," and five subjects (4.5%) gave their institutions a "5." Mean rating across cohorts was 2.28.

A comparison of ratings reveals that Cohort A and B subjects believe their institutions are doing a better job of teaching computer skills than do subjects in Cohort C. Utilizing the Mann-Whitney U-test, a statistically significant difference was established, with a z-score of –1.807 and a p-value of .071.

Personal skills. Ten subjects across cohorts (9.1%) rated their institution's performance in this area as a "1". Another 37 (34%) rated their institutions as a "2". Forty-four subjects (40.3%) gave their institutions a "3." Fourteen subjects (12.8%) rated their institutions as "4," and two subjects (1.8%) gave their institutions a "5." Mean rating across cohorts was 2.62.

A comparison of ratings reveals that Cohort A and B subjects believe their institutions are doing a better job of teaching personal skills than do subjects in Cohort C. The Mann-Whitney U-test revealed a statistically significant difference, with a z-score of –1.901 and a p-value of .057.

Taken together, this data indicates that respondents believe their institutions as a whole are doing a good-to-average job of teaching students in the above skill areas. Mean ratings across skill areas hovered between 2.28 and 2.62. What is disturbing, however, is the small yet persistent group of subjects who rated their programs' performance as "4"

or "5" (fair or poor). Across items, 11 to 18% of subjects responded with "4s" or "5s." Worse, 12.8% gave these ratings in the thinking skill area – one of the most enduring and important ones for journalism and mass communication students. Faculty and staff working in these programs should take a hard look at the resources they might garner to improve their programs' structure, curricula, and fitness of faculty and staff.

Reviewing the wide distribution of scores for this data, one can also see that no clear pattern of consensus emerged as to how well institutions as a whole are teaching in the above skill areas. Rather than pure enthusiasm or dismay, the responses as a whole indicated ambivalence about institutional performance.

8.) Please describe any obstacles (e.g., institutional, financial, technological) that you believe hamper educators' success in any of the above areas.

In all, 102 subjects from Cohorts A, B, and C responded to this item. Far and away, the most frequent responses related to funding shortfalls in journalism and mass communication programs. A total of 44 (46.8%) subjects specifically mentioned the problem. Within the 57 respondents from Cohort A, the figure was 24, or 42.1%. Within the 28 respondents from Cohort B, the figure was 15, or 53.5%. Within the 17 respondents from Cohort C, the figure was 5, or 29.4%. "Financial obstacles keep educators from having resources to facilitate success in these areas," wrote a Cohort B professor.

Although Cohort C members work in the media rather than higher education, the problem was also evident to them. "State support for higher education is pitiful," wrote a

public relations manager from Cohort C. "There's a dramatic need for increased public and private funding." An assistant editor added, "Journalism programs don't get funding on par with disciplines such as engineering and science."

Close behind the issue of funding shortfalls came all of the other complications they inevitably create. Across cohorts, 17 subjects (16.6%) listed shortages in computer hardware, software, and laboratories as obstacles hampering their success in teaching the above areas. "This is also a factor in technological shortcomings," noted a professor from Cohort B. "Computers and software are expensive." Weighing in on the industry side, a TV news photographer listed "lack of up-to-date computers and software" as a problem in university programs.

An additional and more complex funding problem that subjects listed was the inability to fill faculty lines, and its attendant complications. Among those listed were (a) large, overenrolled classes, (b) faculty burnout, and (c) lack of time to conduct research, advise students, or develop new courses. Across cohorts, 12 subjects (11.8%) listed faculty shortages and related issues as obstacles hampering their success in teaching the above areas. "For example, we're facing a budget cut of 4% this year, plus cuts for the next," lamented one department chair from Cohort B. "So a shortage of faculty means fewer courses and huge classes, no assistants, and no technology." Another Cohort B department chair wrote," There's not enough time for course preparation, research, workshops, advising, or committee service." A department chair from Cohort A added, "Faculty tend to be saddled with courses, technology, service, and other demands. They scarcely can prepare students well in all these areas."

However, funding-related issues were not the end of subjects' concerns in the area of teaching success. Student factors – including lack of motivation, poor academic preparation, and busy personal schedules – were also prominent in the list of issues for Cohorts A and B. Across the two cohorts, a total of nine respondents (10.5%) listed student factors as obstacles to successful teaching. "One of the main problems is that students come to us ill-prepared and not accustomed to the level of work we expect them to do," wrote a Cohort A professor. "We need more resources to improve access to broadcast training." Two professors – one from Cohort A and another from Cohort B – pointed out how student demographics and personal lives are affecting classroom success. "Our commuter campus nature limits student investment in coursework because students juggle work and family," wrote one. Another added, "The student who attends a commuter, metropolitan university is the biggest obstacle. Student backgrounds are weak in many areas." A dean from Cohort A said, "Personal skills tend to be established by the time the students reach us. They are difficult to change."

Issues related to quality and professional background of faculty were mentioned a total of seven times across Cohorts A, B, and C. "Most of them don't have current newsroom experience," responded a lecturer from Cohort A. "It's difficult to attract and keep professionals," added a Cohort B professor. "We need to find faculty with a professional and academic balance."

Subjects from Cohort C were especially critical of faculty lacking professional experience, and those clinging to outdated methods of instruction. Of the 17 respondents, 4 (23.5%) listed it as an obstacle to successful teaching. "They do not want to change

their current methods, which are ineffective," wrote a public relations manager. "Their students come here as interns totally unprepared." "They (faculty) don't have actual journalism experience themselves," lamented an assistant editor.

Eight subjects from Cohorts A, B and C listed structural, political or interpersonal problems within institutions as obstacles to successful teaching. A professor from Cohort B described "an institutional culture that is overly complex and not transparent...infighting over shrinking institutional resources" as obstacles. In Cohort C, an assistant editor wrote, "There's a lack of coordination with other departments for teaching thinking, language, and liberal arts." A second Cohort B professor detailed these frustrations: "A chair and dean who believe there should be no standards or requirements that make students unhappy about working hard...a technology director and instructor who are sexist and territorial, and more interested in getting gadgets they like than in teaching the students and prioritizing purchases we can make to benefit the students." As personal as these complaints may sound, it's difficult to underestimate the barriers they create in a higher education setting. A professor from Cohort A noted a lack of agreement on how to evaluate teaching performance at his/her institution. "If you want instructors/professors to emphasize material that students don't see as 'fun,' (e.g., editing,), you need to evaluate teaching performance on something other than student evaluations."

Money, and everything it can do for an academic program, clearly dominated the response pattern for this item. More notable was how different percentages of respondents chose to quantify financial needs. Subjects who spoke up for better computer

hardware and software were obviously translating trends from industry and society into program priorities. Subjects who defined financial needs in terms of inability to fill faculty lines pointed directly to the many complications (large classes, lack of time, burnout) this problem creates for an understaffed program. Remaining respondents who mentioned quality of faculty and students, and structural/political/interpersonal obstacles, emphasized the importance of the human element and human interactions in any political situation.

9.) For any of the above areas, what resources do faculty need to effectively teach students?

In all, 98 subjects from Cohorts A, B, and C responded to this item. Responses fell into categories that closely mirrored answers from Question 8. Many of the most urgent needs identified were related directly to money. A total of 47 respondents (48%) specifically mentioned increased funding as a needed resource. Also predominant were responses identifying the things money can do for journalism and mass communication programs in terms of technology and faculty resources. Across all cohorts, 20 (20.4%) subjects listed technology items as necessary resources to effectively teach students. Examples included (a) improved technological infrastructure, (b) new computers and software, (c) upgraded and expanded computer labs, and (d) video and digital cameras.

Close behind came needs that money can satisfy in terms of faculty resources. Across all cohorts, 16 (16.3%) subjects listed these items as necessary resources to effectively teach students. Examples included (a) new faculty lines; (b) smaller course

loads and classes; (c) adequate salaries; (d) time and money for research, professional development, and travel; (e) technology training and pedagogical training; and (f) adequate support staff. "More faculty!" implored a public relations manager from Cohort C. "We need smaller class sizes and more time for faculty to do research." A Cohort B department chair wrote that his/her institution needed, "Better trained leaders with time to implement programs. More 'in-service' skills training for teachers. More time, less red tape." Recognizing the connection between money, technology and teaching, a Cohort A department chair noted that "faculty need training in technology, and the department needs more faculty lines in technology, visuals, and editing skills."

Nine subjects (9.1%) across Cohorts A, B, and C listed items that underscored the importance of faculty as an intellectual and human resource. "The most important ingredient is the faculty – its background, professionally and academically," noted a professor from Cohort A. Desirable faculty attributes cited included: (a) more professional experience, (b) ability and talent for teaching, (c) better professional connections, (d) greater ethnic diversity, and (e) improved personal skills. A professor from Cohort A drove home the importance of hiring faculty with media field experience. "We need more teachers who can teach professional skills. Earning a Ph.D. in cross-cultural communication or critical studies doesn't necessarily result in a successful teaching in these areas." A Cohort A department chair wrote, "Faculty themselves need to be erudite – and not all are. Personal skills such as courtesy, cooperativeness, good etiquette, and the ability to 'listen' are increasingly lacking in many faculty."

Subjects from Cohort C appeared to favor more substantial professional experience for faculty, and better connections between the classroom and newsroom. Of the 14 respondents, six listed these items. "Professional current experience in the field is needed, along with familiarity with equipment and methods used in today's newsroom," noted a public relations manager. "Faculty need more practical, on-the-job experience," a nonprofit media manager added. Other Cohort C subjects reflected on how faculty might look for assistance beyond campus. "I'd like to see a willingness to reach out to other resources than those in their own departments," wrote an assistant editor. "They need to find a way to provide real-life experience for all students, with more than one teacher who specializes in the visual side of journalism," a TV news photographer added.

Nineteen subjects (19.4%) across Cohorts A and B listed improvements in curriculum, instruction, or student commitment as necessary to effectively teach students. Examples included (a) higher admissions standards, (b) better evaluation measures, (c) better prepared students, and (d) continual reinforcement of high-level skills. A professor from Cohort A cited, "lower-level courses that require more writing and more rigorous education," as important. Two subjects noted that surmounting instructional challenges in journalism and mass communication education isn't always so complicated or costly. "Some of the most important skills – writing and editing – don't require many resources," wrote a Cohort B professor. A department chair from Cohort B noted "A chalkboard and pedagogical skill" as the most important resources available.

Across cohorts, the nature of responses to this item closely matched those from Question 8. However, the question also gave subjects the opportunity to elaborate more

specifically on what types of resources would help them teach students more effectively. Many of the respondents recognized the inseparable connections between technology, equipment, physical space, and faculty hiring/training. As with Question 8, a number of subjects also emphasized the importance of the human element, including quality of faculty and academic preparation of students.

VII. Technology

10.) How well do you believe college and university programs are preparing students for technological challenges they will face as news professionals? Please rank on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 as the highest.

In all, 106 subjects responded to this item. Of the total, 13 (12.3%) rated college and university programs as a "1" in this area. Another 43 (40.6%) rated college and university programs a "2." Thirty-one (29.2%) of subjects rated college and university programs a "3," and 18 (17%) gave colleges and universities a "4" in this area. One respondent gave a "5." Mean rating was 2.54. No statistically significant differences were found between any of the cohorts for this item.

For a comparison of numerical ratings on this item across cohorts, see Figure 7.

As with rankings in Section VI, (teaching effectiveness) the distribution of scores here indicate there is no wide agreement as to how well colleges and universities are preparing students for technological challenges ahead. More than half of respondents gave a "1" or "2" (excellent or very well).

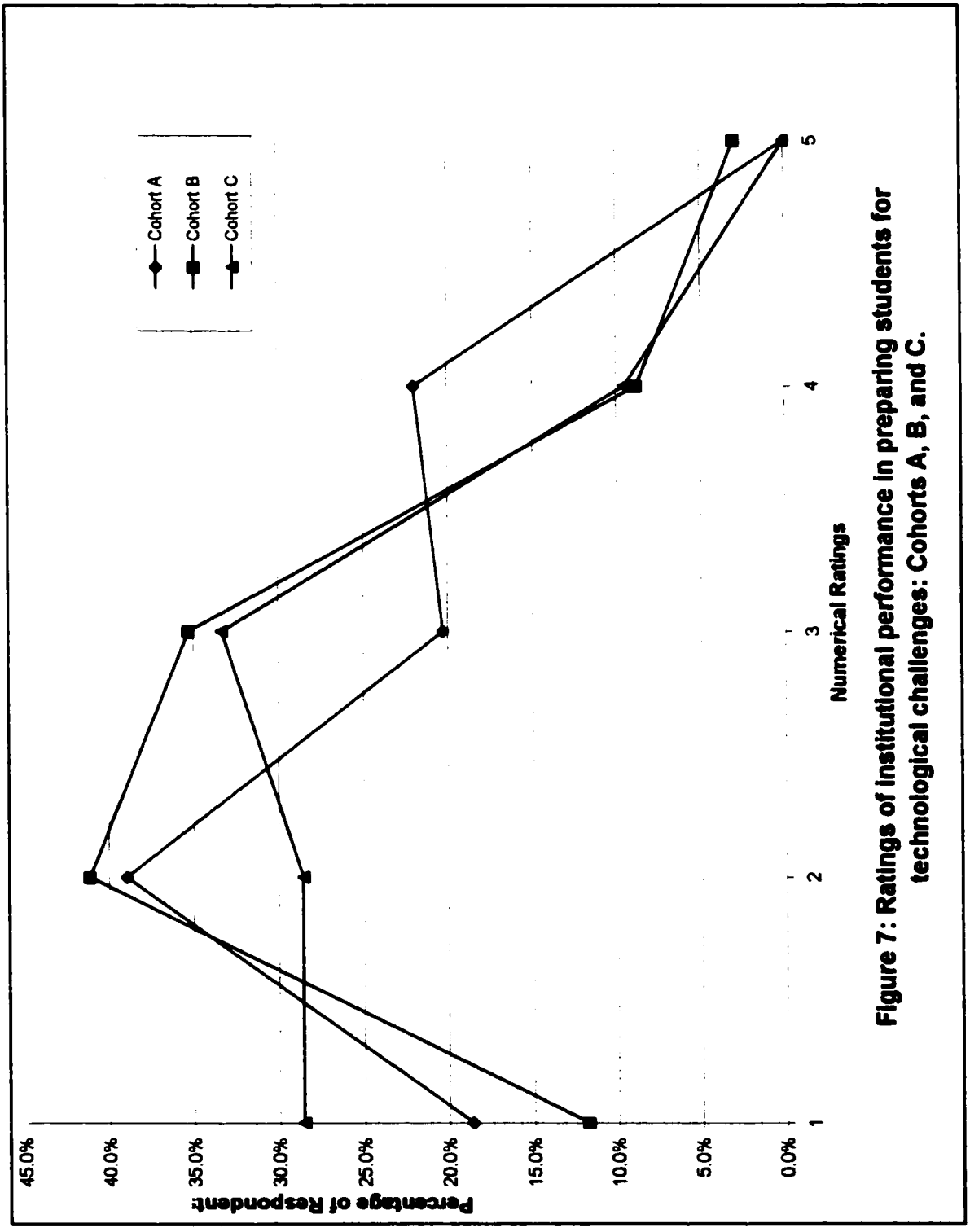

Figure 7: Ratings of institutional performance in preparing students for technological challenges: Cohorts A, B, and C.

Nearly one-third of responses were clustered in the middle range, at "3." However, the fact that 18% of subjects indicated a "4" or "5" (not well or poor) is further indication that colleges and universities have not yet been able to meet the challenge of preparing students in this area. Given current financial shortfalls and lack of agreement about what is most important to teach in journalism and mass communication programs, these ratings raise further questions about how much emphasis programs can realistically place on teaching technology.

11.) Which technology tools are most important for students to be able to use as news professionals?

A total of 98 subjects from Cohorts A, B and C responded to this item. Across the three cohorts, 47 respondents, or 48%, listed items related to basic computer skills as being the most important technology tools for students to be able to use as news professionals. Examples in this category included such terms as "computers," "current hardware and software," and "a range of computer skills." Within the 51 subjects from Cohort A, 24 of them (47%) responded in this manner. For the 29 Cohort B respondents, 12 of them (41.3%) agreed. Among the 18 Cohort C respondents, 11 of them (61%) agreed. Subjects across all cohorts acknowledged the importance of a connection to the media industry in prioritizing the most important technology tools. One Cohort B professor listed, "various computer programs related to the industry." Another wrote, "current professional software and equipment."

Close behind, 35 respondents, or 35.7%, said that information gathering through the Internet, Worldwide Web, and electronic databases were the most important tools. Typical terms listed in this category included, "Computer-assisted reporting skills," "online research skills," "ability to access and analyze databases," and "investigative research tools." "Students need to understand "computer programs in spreadsheets and data analysis that will train them to use the massive amount of information available to them," wrote an assistant editor from Cohort C. A professor from Cohort A noted, "Students primarily need to know how best to use the Internet for reporting." Another professor from the same cohort listed "computer-assisted reporting, and learning how to use the Internet wisely for research" as the most important tools.

Third, a total of 25 respondents, or 25.5%, listed items related to digital technology as the most important tools. Typical terms listed in this category included "digital sound, photography, and editing;" "digital aspects of information gathering and production;" "digital photo and video editing techniques;" and "digital video production."

Realizing that print media still exerts a heavy influence in the early 21st century, 11 subjects (11.2%) from the three cohorts listed desktop publishing skills as important. Examples in this category included "desktop publishing programs," "page layout and design skills," and "Quark and Pagemaker."

Nine subjects from across the Cohorts A, B, and C responded that website design skills would be most important for students to be able to use as news professionals. One dean from Cohort A listed "web design that integrates graphics, text, video, and sound" as important.

A small group of respondents stepped outside the typical range of ideas listed in this section. Across cohorts, nine subjects said it was more important for students to understand how technology affects society, and that thinking, writing, and editing will always be more important than ever-changing computer applications. "Technology changes rapidly," wrote a Cohort A professor. Students need to know editing, critical thinking, story visualization, interviewing skills, and news judgment." "Technology is secondary to being able to produce sound content," wrote a Cohort B professor. "We should not be training technicians." A second Cohort B professor also made a good case for colleges and universities staying out of the technology business. "Most colleges can't keep up with technology. The key is the ability to learn so that in the real world, they can quickly get up to speed with new technologies."

The varied responses to this question revealed an exhaustive list of technology-related tools, techniques and abilities that students will need to be able to use as news professionals. It's important to note, however, there was a divergence between technical skills like operating software, and higher-order thinking skills like computer-assisted reporting and online research. Critical thinking skills rank highly in the technology revolution. Considering the 35 subjects who listed "convergence" as the industry trend most heavily impacting what colleges and universities teach, it was noteworthy that only eight respondents across cohorts specifically mentioned the term on this item. For those who did, typical responses included, "writing for print, broadcast, and online formats;" "multimedia presentation equipment;" and "experience in a convergence news environment."

12.) How can colleges and universities equip students with these technology tools?

Here, 38 of the 91 subjects across Cohorts A, B, and C (41.7%) responded that simply spending money or providing computers for students would solve this problem. However, other subjects went on to provide further insights as to how, specifically, colleges and universities might equip students with the proper technology tools. A total of 19 subjects (19.3%) said that journalism and mass communication programs should be teaching more technology-related skills in the following ways: (a) integrating more technology content into current courses; (b) creating specialized, "hands-on" lab courses; (c) requiring more online learning; (d) improving student media organizations; (e) finding out what programs and equipment industry is using and building courses around them; and (f) creating more specialized internships for students. "Time on task and repetition are essential for new learning," noted a dean from Cohort A.

Eleven more subjects from across the three cohorts suggested partnerships with new groups, both off and on campus. Examples of possible off-campus partnerships included: (a) reaching out to media organizations for equipment and training opportunities for students and faculty; (b) raising funds through grant writing or by soliciting media organizations; and (c) developing relationships with technology providers for assistance with hardware and software purchases, and training. "Partner with cutting-edge companies in trial runs to help the companies come out with more user-friendly equipment and get newer tools into the hands of students for less," suggested a TV news photographer from Cohort C. In Cohort B, a professor wrote, "The ultimate

media organizations could supply technology to their primary feeder schools as a less expensive way to train their teams." Examples for possible on-campus partnerships included working more closely with Information Technology staff for help with training and equipment purchases, and collaborations with campus libraries and technology centers.

Seven respondents from Cohorts B and C suggested that journalism and mass communication programs need to be more proactive about getting technology directly into students' hands. "All students should be provided by the school with equipment needed in the real world. It should come as a part of the tuition they pay – not as an extra fee," wrote a Cohort C reporter. "Make sure each student has an up-to-date computer and the necessary software," said one Cohort B professor. A second added, "Laptops for all students, with Internet hookups and Smart Boards for all classrooms."

Five responses from Cohorts A and C indicated that selection and training of faculty plays a key role in answering the technology question. One Cohort A professor wrote, "Hire people or bring in adjuncts who know how to use the equipment." A second echoed, "Bring in better trained instructors – ones who have actually done this as a vocation." A Cohort A dean suggested, "Create 'clinical tracks' so that faculty with an M.A. and professional experience can be hired as assistant professors." Weighing in from the industry side, an assistant editor wrote, "Have specialists – Information Technology people, not journalism professors – teach the classes!"

As with other questions, several subjects from Cohorts A and B responded that it's impossible for colleges and universities to adequately equip students with the proper

technology tools. Higher-level skills in thinking, writing, and editing were again cited as being more important. These respondents put the burden on the students themselves to learn the skills outside of class. "Many of my students are equipped with these skills before they become majors in their sophomore or junior years," wrote a Cohort A chair. "In other words, I think these skills are ancillary to the 'real' intellectual skills of writing, editing, etc." "It's impossible to even try to stay on the cutting edge with technology, given the pace of change," wrote a Cohort B professor. "Technology must remain adequate, but our focus must be on content, not technology." A colleague noted that "classes can get students started, but the students have to motivate themselves to use class work as the starting point for a lifetime of learning/adapting/adjusting to technological change."

Money, technology, and faculty – common themes that emerged in questions 8-11 – were prominent again across responses to this question. Specific ideas about how to best teach technology, create new partnerships, and place technology directly in students' hands emerged, as well. In both Question 11 and this one, a small group of subjects said that colleges should not focus on teaching technology. Faculty expressing this sentiment should not be ignored in discussions about the future of journalism and mass communication education. They raise important questions about the role and function of academic programs, versus what is best left to the newsroom.

VIII. Partnerships

13.) Please describe any educational partnerships your organization has entered with media partners or colleges in your community. How have they benefited students, employers or your program?

In responding to this item, the vast majority of subjects across cohorts described partnerships with media organizations or professional associations in terms of internships and part-time work opportunities provided for students. Of 103 subjects, 47 (45.6%) of them responded in this manner. Within Cohort A, 19 of the 52 respondents (36.5%) listed internships; within Cohort B, 15 of the 31 respondents listed internships. For Cohort C, the figure was 13 out of 20 respondents (65%). All indicated that internships had provided valuable experiences for students, faculty and programs alike. "Internships are required," wrote a Cohort B professor. "They help students apply what they have learned. Many internships result in job offers. The success of our interns and graduates results in employers calling us about job openings." Some institutions apparently have created large and successful internship networks for students. "We work with a dozen radio stations, six TV stations, three area newspapers, two magazines, and one major ad agency for internships," wrote a Cohort B department chair. A Cohort A professor said, " I can tell you that without our aggressive paid summer media internship program, which over the past 19 years has earned 502 undergraduates $1.45 million in wages, we would be in trouble."

Eighteen other respondents (17.4%) wrote that they were utilizing media organizations or professional associations either by bringing working professionals to

campus for teaching, or sending faculty out to industry for new learning experiences. Subjects who indicated that they brought working professionals to campus described both adjunct faculty hiring and short-term campus workshops. "There have been some exchanges with journalists teaching for us and some faculty going into the newsroom to work – though the latter is rare," wrote a Cohort B professor. "But professionals add vital currency to the classroom and media contact sharpens faculty skill and credibility."

Across Cohorts A and B, seven of 83 respondents indicated that media professionals served on university advisory boards for curriculum planning and student media work. Also across Cohorts A and B, seven of 83 respondents also indicated they were involved with partnerships across university departments or with other schools, including high schools. Pointing the way to how journalism and mass communication programs might increase support in their local communities, one professor from Cohort B wrote that "students have done advertising/public relations programs for various institutions in the community – nursing homes, local schools, and a conservatory."

Notably, in Question 11 (technology tools needed), a number of subjects indicated that partnerships with computer/technology providers would be useful in helping faculty equip students with technology tools. However, Question 12, only three subjects indicated that their college or university had entered such a partnership.

Although nearly one-half of respondents indicated their organizations were involved in student internships, it should be noted that this in fact amounts to a partnership with the media industry, and an attempt to provide students with professional skills training in a real-world setting. The other types of partnerships cited – trading

media and faculty in educational exchanges and utilizing media professionals on advisory boards – also represent programs' attempts to get closer to their partners in industry and learn from them.

14.) Please describe any internship or cooperative education programs your university has created for students. How have they benefited students, employers or your program?

Of the 88 subjects across Cohorts A, B, and C who responded to this item, 100% of them indicated that their journalism and mass communication program or media organization had created or been involved with some type of internship program. The main distinction was whether the internships were created and managed formally as part of a program, or handled informally on an ad-hoc basis. Across cohorts, 47 subjects (53.4%) said their internships were primarily formal. Another 41 (46.5%) said their internships were primarily informal.

The most obvious internship benefits that subjects listed were real-world experience to complement classroom work and connections to full-time career employment. "Our students are required to do internships, and so we have many solid relationships with area employers," wrote a dean from Cohort A. Three other Cohort A respondents noted that they had assistance from campus career centers or internship coordinators. Several subjects from across cohorts described further benefits of formal internship programs. "We have a number of targeted internships with schools that do it right," wrote an assistant editor from Cohort C. "The interplay helps the schools teach

real-world skills and puts us in touch with what professors are doing." A Cohort B professor noted that internships at his/her school take place "at the end of a student's program, after he/she is prepared for the specific experiences of that internship. It's extremely beneficial."

Two subjects described their reservations about low-paying or unpaid internships. "Our paper offers internships, but they are unpaid, which is hard on some people," wrote a Cohort C reporter. A professor from Cohort A added, "I think we should emphasize education of our students – not providing cheap or free labor to the media."

Only one respondent indicated that his/her university program had been involved in a cooperative education program. Time commitment was cited as an issue. "We have cooperative education programs, but so far (in five years) no journalism student has taken advantage of one because they are too time-consuming for our busy students."

Most journalism and mass communication programs attempt to expose their students to internships. The main difference that emerged here was how the internships are managed. Some colleges and universities managed formal programs, while others handled them on an informal basis. The approach taken can significantly impact the quality of the student's educational experience. Also, educators' concerns about low paying and unpaid media internships deserve serious consideration from media corporations.

15.) What types of partnerships or internship programs would you like your organization to be able to undertake, and what impediments, if any, exist to their implementation?

Across all cohorts, subjects overwhelmingly said they would like their organization to be able to undertake more partnerships to create better student internships. Of the 68 subjects who responded to this item, 30 (44%) specifically mentioned internships. Of the 37 respondents in Cohort A, 16 (43.2%) listed this item; of the 16 respondents in Cohort B, 7 (43.7%) listed this item; of the 15 respondents in Cohort C, 7 (46.6%) listed this item. For Cohort A and B respondents, desired internship opportunities were virtually all mentioned in connection with local media organizations in the college and university community. Throughout, sentiments ran high for better pay, improved organization, more diverse opportunities for students, and more time for faculty to manage the internships. "We need more paid internships, and more with organizations outside the traditional advertising and public relations agencies," wrote one Cohort A professor. A colleague added, "We need to require all students to do internships as undergraduates. That sort of experience should be mandated in the ACEJMC guidelines."

Addressing barriers to expanded internship programs, eight subjects in Cohort A and B listed geography. "There are problems with physical distance from some media outlets," noted one Cohort B professor. A chair from Cohort A added, "Our students are sometimes reluctant to go too far from home." Seven subjects in cohorts A and B listed money, pay or quality issues as barriers. "Many media outlets want slave labor, which they call internships," said a Cohort A professor. A second colleague listed "cheap,

distant corporate media ownership" as an additional barrier. "Many media outlets don't have the budgets right now, and some aren't too interested," a third echoed.

Five more Cohort A and B respondents said they didn't have enough time to manage the internships. Three cited staff quality problems and staff shortages as barriers to internships. "Our internship director is not aggressive in seeking opportunities," noted a Cohort B professor. "He's nearing retirement, so I hope we'll do better when someone new is in place." "We cannot adequately supervise internships due to staff shortages," added a colleague.

Subjects from Cohort C responded with contrasting ideas about barriers to creating better internships. Five others said money issues, including intern pay and newsroom staff time were major barriers. Three more cited time as another barrier. The remainder listed problems including lack of office space, low student initiative, weak campus programs, and poor organization of internship programs. "It's hard for newspapers to devote the time and resources to molding new journalists," commented a reporter. A colleague added, "A more organized system would be helpful – both for the paper and for the students." Directly addressing corporate financial priorities, a public relations manager wrote, "The private media industry is failing to provide paid, decent internships to students."

Finally, one reporter from Cohort C and a department chair from Cohort A said they would like to be able to create more teaching and learning partnerships between college faculty and media professionals. "Summer and part-time opportunities for faculty to keep their skills current," suggested the reporter. "We need to get more professionals

into the classroom but it is hard to convince them of the need to break away from their jobs," added the chair.

Across Cohorts A and B, 12 of 68 respondents (17.6%) said they were satisfied with the various partnerships they had with media organizations, professional associations and other outside parties.

Collective responses to this item highlighted the fact that people on both sides of the news desk – faculty and media professionals alike – wish they could provide more internship opportunities for students. Judging from the calls for increased pay, better organization, and more diversity in student projects, one can also conclude that many subjects wished for *better* internships. Again, the theme of resources – couched in terms of faculty time, staff support and student pay, was prominent. Subjects who mentioned geography as a barrier highlighted how student-related factors often limit what is possible in terms of new partnerships.

IX. The Future

16.) Should journalism and mass communication education programs still be on college and university campuses 20 years from now? Please explain.

Across Cohorts A, B, and C, 109 subjects responded to this item. All but two (98%) responded with a "yes." The major reason given for positive responses revolved around three broad areas of benefit: (a) higher-level thinking and intellectual rigor that programs provide students; (b) professional training that programs provide the media industry; and (c) overall benefits that university programs and the media provide society.

Eleven of the 57 respondents from Cohort A (19.3%) cited the higher-level thinking and intellectual rigor that programs provide as a reason to keep journalism and mass communication education programs on campuses 20 years from now. Of the 33 respondents in Cohort B, eight (24.2%) listed this item; of the 19 respondents in Cohort C, 9 (47.3%) listed this item. "It's the only place that can develop the critical thinking skills and objectivity necessary for media to truly serve citizens and society," wrote a Cohort B professor. "I think the best journalists will be those with a broad base of knowledge," echoed a colleague. "They can learn the technology on the job." "Programs are – or should be – the best of what makes a good liberal arts education, and they are a model of interdisciplinary behavior. They should be more important than ever," added a Cohort B professor.

Judging from the balanced responses between the importance of skills versus higher thinking in academic programs, news professionals from Cohort C appeared to value programs equally for their intellectual role. "For a job that requires people to become experts in a day, students need a larger educational background to draw on," wrote a TV news photographer. "Journalism does not exist in an educational vacuum," added another media professional. "Journalists should receive a broad education in a college/university setting."

Of the 57 respondents from Cohort A, six cited professional training that programs provide the media industry as most important. Of the 33 respondents in Cohort B, one listed this item. Of the 19 respondents in Cohort C, eight listed this item. "People need more of the skills training to report and edit in an ethical and insightful manner,"

noted a professor from Cohort A. One colleague added, "It's the classroom experience that makes the undergraduate think, deal with competitive pressure, and deal with relationships." In Cohort B, a professor said, "Media aren't willing or able to train new workers. They expect them to come in with skills, a sense of ethics, and the ability to think critically." In Cohort C, which posted the highest response rate for this sub-item, one assistant editor put it simply: "Getting a degree in journalism prepares you for the job. English and technical writing are not the same." An editor added, "There will always be a need for solidly trained journalists, whether the medium be print, web, or broadcast – or as communication specialists." A TV news photographer observed that universities also provide an ideal setting for students to begin memberships in student chapters of professional media associations like the Society of Professional Journalists (SPJ) or the National Press Photographers Association (NPPA).

A total of 11 respondents from across the cohorts (10%) said they valued academic programs for the broad benefits that they and the media provided to society. "Journalism is at the heart of our democracy," said a department chair from Cohort A. "The mass media are an important feature of our modern culture. We should study their vast effects," observed a Cohort A professor. A lecturer from Cohort A wrote, "Training people how media work is one of the best citizenship tools we have. Training people to watch over government and corporate corruption will be more important then ever in 20 years." "This discipline is too important for society to lose," added a Cohort B professor. A reporter from Cohort C commented, "The media is crucial in our society. We must continue to turn out educated journalists." An assistant editor wrote, "What makes

American journalism the envy of most of the world is that it is taught with standards independent of any one media owner's bias." "Colleges of journalism and mass communication have a central role to play in explaining the importance of journalism and in training future generations of journalists," concluded a Cohort A professor.

Six respondents across the three cohorts responded "yes," but with qualifications. Two professors – one from Cohort a and one from Cohort B – noted that programs will have to continue evolving to represent the current state of the media and to maintain their relevance to society. A reporter and a public relations manager from Cohort C each wrote that journalism and mass communication programs need to continue to build closer ties to industry and work in close collaboration with the "real world of journalism." A Cohort A dean noted that journalism and mass communication would be much better off when housed within a professional school, like law or social work.

Two subjects did not answer this question with a "yes," or "no." Instead, they expressed uncertainty the future of journalism and mass communication education. "It's hard to say," wrote a professor from Cohort B. "Programs could be subsumed as traditional boundaries within the media continue to blur." A reporter from Cohort C said, "Maybe not as much as now, since distance learning is more possible/practical now. But classroom settings, group activities and face-to-face interaction is still valuable."

As the weight of responses indicate, most journalism and mass communication educators and professionals in this survey still highly value academic programs on university campuses. The reasons given underscore the intellectual and professional value that journalism and mass communication programs have always created for their

students, the media, and society. However, the qualified responses of a few subjects should give educators pause in their planning efforts. Programs will have to continually evolve – on a much steeper curve than in the past – to remain relevant to the profession, the academy, and to society.

17.) If you could envision the shape of journalism and mass communication education 20 years from now, what would it be?

A total of 92 subjects responded to this item. Consistent with the aggregate of responses to Question 1 (media industry trends), 20 responses to this question (21.7%) directly mentioned the term, "convergence" or its implications for the media industry and journalism and mass communication education. Of the 43 respondents from Cohort A, 13 (30%) cited convergence and related implications. Of the 31 respondents in Cohort B, two listed this item. Of the 18 respondents in Cohort C, five (27%) listed this item. "In 20 years, I see convergence journalism as the norm, and I see crossover in several areas, with online news being the norm, as well," wrote a reporter from Cohort C. A dean from Cohort A predicted, "Industry-defined walls – newspaper/magazine/broadcast – will be gone." A Cohort A professor wrote that journalism and mass communication programs will be "probably more generalized to match the converged nature of media. Less specific focus on individual media forms and professions. More 'macro' focus." Another Cohort A professor pointed to new directions that convergence creates for programs: "Global. More diverse, highly technologically driven, less reliance on the printed word. More transparent." Acknowledging the significance of information processing in the future, a

Cohort A chair predicted, "emphasis on gathering, packaging, and disseminating information – with changes made to fit technological innovation."

Other subjects – 20 across the three cohorts (21.7%) – predicted changes in educational delivery systems and instructional methods for journalism and mass communication education. Distance learning, online courses, internships, customized teaching from professionals, and media-based learning sites were among the most frequent responses. Of the 43 respondents from Cohort A, 13 (30.2%) predicted changes in this area; of the 31 respondents in Cohort B, one listed this item. Among Cohort C subjects, 4 of the 18 respondents (22.2%) listed this item. A reporter from Cohort C expected "a more flexible blend of classroom settings and far-flung co-ops, internships, and school-sponsored field training." A public relations manager predicted "a melding of professional and educational opportunities. More like co-op students who get real hands-on training while still in the classroom." "Programs need to be more interactive with actual news organizations," added an assistant editor. More involved in news that's actually happening, instead of 'pretend news.'"

In Cohort A, a professor predicted "more education at a distance. More self-directed work using computers." A colleague noted, "Computers and continuing education would allow us to individualize or customize a student's learning. We wouldn't spend time teaching hardware and software. Students would learn that on their own, allowing us to focus on professional issues."

Regarding the mix of professional skills, theory, broader intellectual abilities that the media and society expect from journalism and mass communication graduates,

respondents across cohorts were divided as to which areas should be most heavily stressed in the future. Among the 92 subjects, 11 (12%) said teaching basic professional skills will still be a major function of journalism and mass communication programs in 20 years; 11 more (12%) looked for increased emphasis on higher-level thinking and the liberal arts, along with a strengthening of programs' intellectual capacities. "No matter the form of journalism 20 years hence, the basics of writing, reporting, editing will still be essential," wrote a professor from Cohort B. An editor from Cohort C predicted "a continued emphasis on the basics of grammar, fact finding, and strong writing skills, combined with a foundation in ethics and responsible journalism."

The nine subjects who advocated a more intellectually based future for journalism and mass communication education expressed it in a variety of ways. "Today, people cannot study or know too much," commented a Cohort A professor. "Therefore, it is imperative that students study three years in courses in as many topics as they can schedule, plus theory and practice of the field of study, and intensive study of the techniques of writing clearly, concisely, objectively, and accurately." A department chair from Cohort A predicted that programs would become "specialty-focused with a concentration on academic areas and 'intellectual' components of journalism such as ethics, history, law – for example, economics and journalism, law and journalism, international affairs and journalism." "We will be educating students to enter whatever professions exist at that time," noted a department chair from Cohort B. "Our liberal arts programs are an important part of that learning." A reporter in Cohort C wrote that programs would be "continuing to evolve to teach the use of new tools, but also

continuing to educate students broadly in the sciences, social sciences and humanities." Throughout the responses, sentiments also ran high for a continued blend of practical skills and theory for journalism and mass communication students.

With a mix of optimism and pessimism, three subjects from Cohorts A and B made observations about the possible structure of journalism and mass communication programs in the future. A professor from Cohort B looked for "professional programs fully integrated into university life, widely respected and accepted – as law and medicine now are. But we must have a vision of excellence that our field still broadly lacks." Programs "could be stronger within separate colleges and schools of journalism and mass communication," wrote a Cohort A professor. "They may not exist under Colleges of Arts and Sciences because of the 'labor-intensive and equipment-expensive' situation journalism and mass communication must deal with." Finally, a Cohort B professor argued that the field must become a stronger academic leader within the academy. "There's a difference between what I think it (the future) will be and what I think it should be. Unless programs take on more of a leadership role, they will decline to a trade-school level of skill training. I would like to see a true profession with educational requirements and ethical standards."

Nine other subjects across cohorts said they looked to journalism and mass communication education to play a larger role in general education, provide more interdisciplinary courses, and teach all students to be critical media consumers in the information age. "Media education," predicted a Cohort B professor. "Interdisciplinary types of studies that clearly show how society depends on the media so that those going

into the field understand how what they do affects how things are." A colleague predicted that programs will be "still involved in thinking about news and making it relevant to people. Public service needs to be re-emphasized." In Cohort A, a lecturer said, "I'd like to see us teach media literacy to all college students and critical thinking to our own." A professor, also from Cohort A, guessed that mass communication would become more of a general educational commodity on many campuses. "Programs will join with information science and speech communication, blurring the disappearing line between personal and mass communication."

Two subjects from Cohorts A and C mentioned that it will be important for journalism and mass communication education to pay attention to media professionals at mid-career. "I would like to see some kind of continuing education format that professionals could do that would count toward a master's degree," wrote a TV news photographer from Cohort C.

Finally, nine respondents across the cohorts predicted that 20 years from now, journalism and mass communication education would look much like it does today, but more technologically driven. "I think the concepts will be largely similar to now, but the technology will change," wrote a Cohort A professor. "That's why we don't teach specific technology. "We teach theory, which will likely endure."

Aside from the heavy convergence and technology implications the future carries for journalism and mass communication education, respondents in this item highlighted the enduring importance of a broad liberal arts education combined with professional skills training. Although their form and style may change, the integrity of this basic

combination appears to be sound. Additionally, it is clear that educational delivery systems and instructional methods will become more advanced and flexible in terms of and technology and physical location. Some responses also contained warnings and clues about what programs will have to do if they wish to remain viable in the future.

18.) Who (e.g., faculty, administrators, media professionals) do you believe should participate in the planning, organization and management of curricular change?

In all, 103 subjects responded to this item. The most common answer listed was "Faculty, administrators, and media professionals." A total of 56 respondents (54.3%) listed this as the best combination of participants in curricular change. Within Cohort A, 24 of the 53 respondents (45.3%) listed this combination; within Cohort B, 21 of the 31 respondents (67.7%) did the same. For Cohort C, the figure was 11 out of 19 respondents (57.9%).

"All three. A shared vision is required if we are to have the support we need," wrote a Cohort A department chair. "Each group has a unique perspective on curriculum matters, and all views should be considered," noted a Cohort A professor. Other respondents wanted to include all three groups, but with qualifications. "Primarily faculty and media professionals," wrote a Cohort B professor. "But the administrators, who control the money and space, must be included for effective change." A colleague added, "Faculty and media professionals can put together solid curricular changes, but must be able to convince administrators of the need to stay current." "This should be done by both professional and academics in the field," wrote a Cohort A professor. "Of course,

management must have a say because of its position in the university, but that say should go only as far as finances, and not include course requirements."

The second-largest group of respondents (24 out of 103, or 23.3%) said they favored a partnership between faculty and media professionals only. Within Cohort A, 13 of the 53 respondents (24.5%) listed this combination; within Cohort B, five of the 31 respondents did the same. For Cohort C, the figure was six out of 19 respondents (31.5%). "We (the professionals) know what the graduates are missing. They (the faculty) know how to teach it," wrote an assistant editor from Cohort C. "Both faculty and media professionals should work together to give students more perspectives," suggested a Cohort C reporter.

Eleven more subjects across cohorts (10.6%) favored including students and alumni in planning for curricular change. "We have an advisory board of alumni who are in media, which has been helpful," said a lecturer from Cohort A.

Eight subjects across cohorts noted that faculty should be the primary planners in the curricular change process. "It should be the faculty," wrote a professor from Cohort A. "Administrators outside the discipline lack knowledge. Some media professionals are sufficiently, visionary, but not many." A colleague added, "Faculty. That's already mandated at my institution, where faculty call the shots in everything this question asks." "Faculty! We trained the pros," said a third Cohort A professor.

Two subjects from Cohort A suggested the inclusion of national policy makers such as the Federal Communications Commission (FCC), Federal Trade Commision (FTC), or the Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC). Also mentioned were think

tanks such as the Brookings Institution or Rand Institute, and professional associations like the Commission on Public Relations Education.

Finally, two more subjects from Cohort A noted that citizens and news consumers should be included in the curricular change process. According to a professor from Cohort A, this component is important, "given that there are few other good mechanisms for incorporating their (news consumers) visions into news practice."

Although respondents expressed a mix of views on exactly who should be involved in planning for curricular change, it was clear that most subjects favored an inclusive approach, with input from everyone who could affect planning outcomes. Still, in most cases, respondents placed first priority with university faculty, followed by media professionals. Administrators seemed to be recognized mostly for what they could provide in terms of resources and political approval to help launch new curricular visions.

Chapter 5: Discussion

Limitations of the Study

In weighing the validity of this study, it is important to look closely at the overall response rate to the survey and the response rates within each of the three cohorts. Although the overall response rate of 23% was not outstanding, response rates in this neighborhood are generally considered more acceptable for studies that are primarily descriptive or qualitative in nature.

In a study of trends in mail survey response rates, Green and Boser (2001) noted that standards for response will vary by population type, and that they should be targeted at 50% $\pm$ 20% for business and 70% $\pm$ 20% for education and the social sciences.

Further, the overall mix of respondents from the final working sample approaches a useful cross-section of the larger population. Fifty-one percent of respondents were ACEJMC faculty members, 32% were AEJMC faculty members, and 17% were media professionals. Although ACEJMC members outweighed their AEJMC counterparts by 19%, the overall sample contained 82% professors, deans and program chairs; and 18% media professionals.

Issues of generalizability and response/nonresponse bias emerge. If the response rate was more than 50% for Cohort A, yet less than 25% for cohorts B and C, how does this affect the survey results? Whose viewpoints are most strongly reflected under this scenario, and whose are excluded? A chi-square test for differences between institutions for Cohort A and B revealed a statistically significant value of 16.85 with a p-value of less than .0005. Most notably, 69% of Cohort A respondents came from public research

universities, compared with only 26.5% for Cohort B. By contrast, only 17.2% of Cohort A respondents came from public colleges or universities, compared with 52.9% for Cohort B. Fourteen percent of Cohort A respondents came from private colleges or universities, compared with 20.6% for Cohort B.

A chi-square test for differences in job titles between cohorts A and B revealed a statistically significant value of 9.151 with a p-value of .057. A total of 15.4% of Cohort A respondents were deans, compared with none in Cohort B. By contrast, only 52% of Cohort A respondents were professors, compared with 64.3% for Cohort B. Twenty-five percent of Cohort A respondents were chairs, compared with 32% for Cohort B.

Faculty and administrators from Cohort A were most strongly represented in the sample, and their responses have predominated in this study. Further, it is evident that Cohort A and B varied significantly on noted differences in institution type and job titles. These differences have led to results that favor the opinions of respondents working at research universities, with a significant influence from academic deans. Generalizability of the study is limited to the mix of institutions and job titles represented here.

Cohort A subjects represent ACEJMC-accredited programs, which are likely to be larger, better established, and more research oriented. The results reflect responses that are skewed in this direction. However, some journalism and mass communication educators could argue that ACEJMC-accredited programs are pursuing the ideas that will best position the field for the future, and that therefore, they represent the best sample of educators to survey.

Across all three cohorts, Cohort C (media professionals) represented a total of 18% of respondents, with a response rate of 22.8%. Considering that all respondents in Question 18 said media professionals should at the center of future planning efforts, this figure does not appear to give media professionals enough weight in the overall scheme. Therefore, these results may not be fully generalizable across the media industry. In a study of survey nonresponse among newspaper editors, Chang (1989) found that response rates in most mail surveys of journalists generally fall between 30% and 65%. Editors cited heavy work loads, frequent survey solicitations, and general misgivings about academic research as major reasons for not responding to surveys. Yet Chang's results showed that nonresponse does not necessarily cause a severe, significant bias in terms of some market and organizational characteristics of newspapers.

There are several possible reasons for the high response rate within Cohort A and the low response rate within Cohort B. Cohort A subjects are faculty members and administrators at ACEJMC-accredited institutions. The Cohort A mailing list was generated directly from the membership roster. The Cohort B list, by contrast, comprised individual members of an independent association who may or may not have been strongly tied to their institutions. Therefore, the Cohort A list may have targeted respondents with more institutional concern than those on the Cohort B list.

The length of the survey, the depth of the questions, and the effort required of respondents may have also contributed to the 23% response rate. According to Dillman, Sinclair, and Clark (1993), survey length and amount of effort required to complete it may adversely impact response rates. Weathers et al. (1993) echoed this finding.

However, it was precisely the open-ended nature of the survey itself that provided the most valuable information for the study. By virtue of its open-ended design, the instrument enabled participants to elaborate on a range of issues critical to journalism and mass communication education. The depth and quality of responses obtained would have been impossible to gather using items based strictly on ratings, rankings, or scales.

This survey was designed mostly as an open-ended instrument because the study's purpose was to explore the future of journalism and mass communication education through the impressions of faculty, administrators, and media professionals. In formulating such a study, the researcher cannot possibly know the respondents' thoughts, impressions, or ideas ahead of time. To presuppose the future by limiting participants only to rating or ranking-type items would have been a fatal flaw in this study. The collective weight of open-ended responses, with use of direct quotes, provides a level of richness and detail to enhance the understanding of the complex issues facing the media industry and education field.

Outcomes and Analysis

As the literature review and survey results reveal, journalism and mass communication programs have considerable work ahead of them in retaining their educational niche and growing along with their partners in academia and industry. Yet, the media profession and educational field have entered a new age of tremendous

opportunity. The time couldn't be better for journalism and mass communication education to lead a renewed educational and professional charge.

Because of journalism and mass communication education's historic duality between skills and theory, and the unique character of each program on its own campus, the outcomes of this study do not establish one set of programmatic or strategic solutions, nor do they prescribe one type of model designed to work for all programs. Instead, this study represents a modest attempt to rediscover the rich history of journalism and mass communication education, understand how it informs present circumstances, and join it with a quickly accelerating future.

The Academy

To begin, it must be noted that some survey respondents said that journalism and mass communication is already a viable discipline at their institutions, and that the outlook for the field is not uniformly grim. The weight and mix of numerical ratings on this item point directly to two facts. First, nearly half of journalism and mass communication programs in both Cohorts A and B appear to be healthy in terms of academic standing (55.4% rated their programs as a "1" or "2" – good or excellent.) Programs who are "doing things right" are working on combinations of (a) hiring quality faculty, (b) maintaining and increasing academic rigor, (c) fundraising and partnerships, and (d) making themselves highly visible on campus and in their communities. The age of the program also appeared to play a role in higher ratings.

Second, the 44.6% of respondents who rated their programs a "3," "4," or "5" continue to be hampered by a (a) lack of resources, (b) perceptions of low academic status, (c) poor program visibility, and (d) a lack of outsiders' understanding of the field. These are problems that have plagued journalism and mass communication education since its early days.

Although many in both academia and media appear to sing the field's praises, they are asking it to perform two very different functions at the same time. Producing better research while providing improved professional training are formidable challenges – and even more so with shrinking financial and human resources, and growing calls for increased program accountability. What is being asked of journalism and mass communication is impossible to fully implement without a broad-based re-investment of faith and money into these programs. Journalism and mass communication education can survive and thrive in the future, but the academy and industry will have to become more active partners to ensure lasting success.

To hasten that process and help raise journalism and mass communication's academic stock, university faculty and administrators should consider Denning's (1996) student-centered approach to academic research. In this world, faculty research is valued and rewarded to the extent that it directly benefits students and the learning process itself. Research of little or no consequence to student learning is less valued. Therefore, if faculty can conduct research that expands the boundaries of mass communication knowledge and informs media as a professional practice, they can create a winning educational partnership for all involved. Admittedly, such a change would be slow in

coming to academic institutions, where the curricular wheel is slow to turn. Still, this type of research is especially promising for journalism and mass communication, because it is academic and practical at once, and benefits everyone involved.

At the same time, if journalism and mass communication programs are to produce a greater quantity and quality of research, administrators must enable them to hire enough faculty qualified to do the job. Judging from responses, most institutions now require programs to hire tenure-track faculty with terminal degrees. Here, 55.6% of faculty in Cohorts A and B said their institution placed less value on faculty with significant field experience but no advanced degree. As strongly as some respondents said their departments favored field experience, it was clear that the institutions mostly valued the Ph.D. and the promise of research productivity that goes along with it. Further, several subjects indicated that they had been successful in obtaining faculty with a terminal degree *and* field experience, and were quite happy on both fronts. If journalism and mass communication programs can hire can hire educators grounded in industry who can also pull their discipline to the academic forefront, the field's future stock should rise considerably. Two difficulties can be anticipated, however. First, moral support for hiring more research faculty is quite different from financial support. If the academy is demanding more research productivity from journalism and mass communication programs, it will need to dedicate money and faculty lines to the cause. Second, research-oriented faculty with both a terminal degree and field experience are still something of a rare commodity in journalism and mass communication education. While larger, research-oriented universities may be able to attract them with larger salaries and

institutional prestige, smaller colleges and universities may not fare so well. This could create a continuing "catch-22" for institutions stuck between the need for better research to garner resources and raise academic stock, and the inability to produce it until they can attract the right faculty for the job.

In building viability at any academic institution, close behind research comes the importance of creating educational excellence in other areas. The 25% of respondents who said their programs were attempting to increase their viability in this manner (revising curricula, improving course content, raising academic standards, and focusing on teaching excellence,) highlight the need for journalism and mass communication programs to review and improve academic standards, reinforce faculty interest in teaching, and where needed, redesign entire sequences and curricula. Work in this area should create an added benefit: if programs can formulate strong curricula that the media industry respects and draws upon, it follows that programs should attract new students and earn even greater respect within their own academic institutions.

Looking further at subjects' responses about viability within the academy, it is also evident that journalism and mass communication programs must now increase their institutional visibility by reaching out aggressively to faculty, students, and administrators in other corners of the campus. Possible areas for improvement include: (a) offering more general education courses open to all students; (b) creating more interdisciplinary courses and programs with other departments; (c) producing research and promoting its relevance to the entire academic community; (d) improving and

expanding student media; and (d) taking a more active role in faculty governance and campus committees.

In summary, if journalism and mass communication education is to garner the academic respect, administrative commitment, and financial resources it now needs to thrive in the academy, it must produce new and relevant research, improve academic standards, and reach out to new groups of faculty and students. The field must also make itself better understood to others within the academy and the larger community.

The Profession

Sixty-three percent of survey respondents listed technology-related trends as most heavily impacting what colleges and universities teach in their programs. Convergence and new technologies are transforming society and the media profession, and demanding new intellectual and technical skills of its followers. However, the question seems to be one of balance: How much weight should journalism and mass communication programs be placing on technology skills, versus empowering students with the ability to understand and learn new and ever-evolving technologies? It's important to expose students to new techniques in newsgathering and storytelling. It's important to adjust curricula and reformulate sequences to reflect a changing profession. Yet it's impossible for most college and university programs to purchase, install, and teach around a host of new hardware and software applications that change every year or two. Most programs simply do not have (and are not likely to ever have) sufficient financial and human resources for this sort of undertaking.

As many respondents indicated, such a radical shift in educational priorities would be an unwise departure from the time-tested practice of educating journalism and mass communication students with a mix of broad intellectual abilities and professional skills training. In coming generations, graduates will need all the critical thinking ability and worldly knowledge they can gather to succeed as media professionals. And, programs will need all of the intellectual power they can muster through research and scholarly achievement to produce new knowledge and remain viable within their institutions. Technology skills training on its own isn't the answer.

What of the new professional skills that programs must teach? In order to avoid either becoming awash in technology or ignoring it entirely, program planners should instead be looking to create a more balanced approach between the two. Technology must be embraced, understood, and taught, but within a larger intellectual framework. For example, a computer lab equipped with web design software or a student newspaper with digital cameras can provide students with hands-on technology opportunities within the context of wider learning. Other more basic computer skills cited by respondents, such as word processing, computer-assisted reporting, or database searching, can more easily be integrated into existing classes, where the connections between technology and larger news issues can be demonstrated. Journalism and mass communication education must hold onto its traditional strengths while accommodating these changes.

Social and human concerns of the 21st century (diversity, ethical values, etc.), cited as important by several respondents, will figure prominently into the future, as well. As a profession, journalism has always chronicled and reflected trends in society; these

times should be no different. Indeed, "the social and economic issues related to convergence and computer-related communication" (as stated by a Cohort A professor) may well exceed the importance of the technology itself. Journalism and mass communication education must continue to put people first – through the courses faculty choose to teach, the content they emphasize, and which values they impart to students.

Students and Teaching

Which skills will be most important for students to succeed as media professionals over the next decade? More directly, which skills should journalism and mass communication faculty be teaching students? As the data indicated on both student skills and sub-skills, respondents as a whole placed the most value on thinking and writing skills – those that have always been most critical to academic and professional success in media. Technology and visual presentation skills, while also important, did not rate quite as highly for faculty or media professionals.

It is easy to say the programs must continue to stress thinking and writing skills in their curriculum, but harder to envision the skills' exact shape or niche amid coursework in the Information age. Equally important, how will faculty create and enforce rigorous academic standards while being asked to offer more general, consumer-oriented courses? One can draw two conclusions. First, journalism and mass communication programs must be able to count on university administrators and the academy to stand behind their quest for academic respectability. In part, this means support in raising program entrance requirements, enforcing course prerequisites, and creating challenging coursework.

Courses that demand considerable thinking and writing work from students mustn't be altered or abandoned simply because they are unpopular, or because students don't consider them enjoyable. Higher education is intended to be an experience that pushes students out of their academic comfort zones and into new learning territory. Further, journalism and mass communication courses are intended to prepare students for thinking and writing challenges in the professional world that will likely be more intense than anything they encounter through internships or in the classroom. Faculty will probably face an uphill battle in setting and enforcing more strict academic standards.

Second, faculty and administrators should realize that thinking and writing skills do not have to be casualties of the high-tech age. As several respondents indicated, the ability to make sense of events and communicate clearly about them will only grow in importance over the next decades. This idea should come as welcome news to faculty who may be bound to more traditional notions about journalism and how to teach these skills. Contrary to reservations some may harbor, a departure into the digital media environment presents fresh teaching opportunities and new ways to underscore time-honored media values. It could, in fact, prove to be a re-invigorating force in faculty careers, igniting new interest in journalism and mass communication's future as a discipline.

The spread of numerical ratings that respondents gave regarding how well institutions are teaching various skills, indicates that journalism and mass communication programs still have work to do in approaching a level of instructional quality that faculty can endorse. Especially disquieting was the 12% of respondents who consistently rated

their college or university's teaching of thinking skills as a "4" or "5" (not good or poor). The multitude of resource shortages, including faculty lines, equipment, and physical space, no doubt play a part in this assessment. Poor morale can often fester in working conditions like this. Still, one would hope for a day in journalism and mass communication education's future when all faculty can rate their institution's teaching as a "2" (very good) or a "1" (excellent). To get there, programs must concentrate on hiring and retaining faculty with a love for the classroom, and those whose research will bring them closer to students and the media profession. This echoes what a number of survey respondents said: that the human and intellectual qualities of the faculty must be considered first in efforts to improve university teaching.

Partnerships

Combining survey respondents' impressions and ideas about internships with the literature review yields some useful parallels. The literature cites several studies and statistics underscoring the advantages of internships. Journalism and mass communication faculty, students, and employers have always understood their benefits. Yet, the literature notes that the academy as a whole has been slow to grant legitimacy to the internship, because administrators don't know what to call it or how to assess it. Internships simply don't fit into the classic university scheme of classroom study. Some of respondents' comments regarding barriers to better internships, such as better organization, more support staff, and more faculty time to manage them might be best addressed to university administrators. A careful examination of the internship's

educational value in professional programs should convince them to lend more resources to this endeavor.

Of all subjects who responded to the survey, only one said his/her institution was involved in a cooperative education partnership. Considering the wealth of literature on the success of cooperative education in business, engineering, information technology, and other fields (Berman, 1998; Thiel & Hartley, 1997; Vick, 2001), one wonders why the concept hasn't caught on in journalism and mass communication. The answer likely rests with program, employer, and student factors together: (a) academic faculty and staff lack the time it takes to initiate, manage, and evaluate the projects; (b) many university communities do not have enough (or large enough) media employers to support such a venture; (c) many students may be unable to devote the necessary time and effort; and (d) most media organizations are unable to devote time, space, or salaries to long-term student employees. Also, media employers may not view cooperative education as a desirable system for teaching and hiring new employees. Rather than investing considerable time training a student to fill a specific job slot, they would probably rather focus on short-term internships, then hire from a large, open pool of potential employees.

Yet, the potential promise of cooperative education for journalism and mass communication education is considerable. Combined with ongoing coursework in the academic program, it could provide the shop-floor immersion that students need for careers they will soon enter. From a time and energy standpoint, it could be argued that longer-term, cooperative education ventures would be easier for faculty and employer to manage than a series of short-term internships, which have to be re-established and

monitored every quarter. In addition, cooperative education could provide media employers with workers who are prequalified, groomed, and trained for their own workplace.

Thiel and Hartley (1997) note that college faculty and employers must work together on several levels to make the cooperative education experience a successful one for all parties. Elements of success include: (a) program publicity and active student recruitment, (b) sufficient academic preparation by the student, (c) ongoing development of sites, (d) accurate student-employer matches, (e) structured orientations by faculty coordinators, (f) weekly written reports from students, and (g) a concrete academic appraisal of the project.

The Future

In exploring how to secure a viable academic future for journalism and mass communication education, much of the discussion has been limited to what journalism and mass communication education must do for itself. To focus exclusively on this perspective is to overlook *what the academy and the media industry can do for the discipline.* Success in any endeavor implies a shared effort, and because this discipline has always stood with one foot in the academy and the other in industry, it makes sense to look to these partners for assistance .

Like any other program, journalism and mass communication must pull its research and teaching weight on campuses. But as hard as department members may try to work for academic and political position, efforts will fall short unless deans,

presidents, and fellow faculty decide to break with tradition.....to reconsider what constitutes academic merit and what is valued in a university community. Administrative leadership must then consider according journalism and mass communication programs a standing on par with its schools of business, medicine, or engineering.

The best way to accomplish this is to grant programs full status as freestanding schools of journalism or mass communication. If merited, such a move would carry powerful financial, academic, political, and symbolic connotations. The added visibility, respectability, and student drawing power would give programs the equal footing they need to compete for students, dollars, and the best minds. Equally important, such an organizational change pulls programs out from under the disciplinary umbrella of Colleges of Arts and Sciences. Since the late 1940s, when universities began to consolidate programs in this manner, many journalism programs have been forced into unhappy marriages with speech, personal communication, rhetoric, and other marginally related disciplines. In many cases, departmental status within a College of Arts and Sciences has relegated journalism and mass communication to an unhappy place alongside completely dissimilar programs such as English, psychology, art, and foreign languages. Although journalism and mass communication has always drawn much of value from its brethren in the liberal arts, its professional nature dictates full school standing, apart from the others.

Issues of equipment and physical space raise additional questions about what the academy can do. By virtue of their work, journalism and mass communication programs require considerable university resources to purchase hardware and software, and house

the computer classrooms, darkrooms, TV stations, and newspaper offices to provide professional-level training. Many institutions have been unable or unwilling to create spaces for programs to grow, or to provide new facilities when old ones have worn out or become obsolete. Now is the time for university leadership, in return for FTEs and worthy scholarship, to commit real dollars and undertake fundraising partnerships to help programs obtain the teaching equipment, new space, and renovations that are needed. If journalism and mass communication education is to lead the information charge in the 21st century, 1970s-era lecture halls and classrooms designed for typewriters will no longer do. It will take 21st-century facilities to do the job.

Looking to what the media industry might be able to do to help journalism and mass communication education, it's important to remember that many media organizations are already heavily engaged with their educational partners, providing internships, guest speakers, technology tools, and job opportunities for graduates. Others might do more if their partners in higher education would take more initiative. The level of media involvement and quality of partnership varies across the board.

Participants in both academia and media would like to see internships that are better organized, better paid, and better targeted to emerging career areas. While some participants wrote that colleges and universities are responsible for establishing campus internship programs, several noted that media organizations are responsible for setting up their own programs to take on the interns. Corporate ownership must be convinced that it is in their best interests to invest some modest money and personnel to improve internship programs. Given that many corporations extract profit margins of up to 30%

from their newspapers and broadcast stations, it shouldn't be an impossible task. As with faculty in the academy, reporters and editors can work all they want to create new internship programs, but without the salaries, office space, staff time, and symbolic endorsement from top management, success will be severely limited. It is time for corporate media ownership to invest in their future employees and the people who are educating them for tomorrow.

The proposition of better support for journalism and mass communication internships is a bit more complex in the arena of advertising and public relations. These business are extremely diverse, and operate in every conceivable environment, from large corporations to small agencies, and state offices to nonprofit groups. Their individual needs for interns, and their ability to pay for and manage them, varies widely. Campus-based internship programs must be proactive in contacting these organizations and establishing or continuing programs that will benefit everyone. Advertising and public relations professionals, in turn, must work to accommodate interns, pay what they can, and help organize worthwhile educational experience for students. Internships create a rich source of entry-level employees and a wise investment in media industry's future.

New teaching and learning partnerships between journalism and mass communication educators and media professionals need to be created, as well. It's an idea that has barely been realized yet, but one that holds tremendous promise for everyone. Faculty can create pathways for editors, designers, or other media professionals visit their classrooms for extended teaching assignments. At the same time, faculty could take on

summer or part-time externships in newsrooms or other professional settings. The knowledge shared would equal more than the sum of its parts.

Students would gain the latest knowledge direct from practitioners, and revamped teaching from faculty informed with new ideas from the field. Faculty would gain new professional experience and fresh teaching perspectives, not to mention dozens of work samples, case studies, and shop-floor lessons to integrate into future class sessions. Media professionals would gain the opportunity to share their expertise in a fresh setting, and bring the skills that employers need most directly to students.

A situation like this would also enable faculty and students to practice using a host of new media technologies that might otherwise be impossible to access. Technology-related needs cropped up consistently throughout this survey project, yet no clear answers emerged as to how it might be acquired or taught. Partnerships present one possible avenue that doesn't require a complete retooling of university programs or massive investments in ever-changing equipment. A few well-informed media professionals could demonstrate a range of techniques to groups of students using reasonably good school computer hardware and software. Faculty could gain insight into the latest industry tools and methods, and relay that knowledge back to campus.

Journalism and mass communication faculty and media professionals might learn from and understand each other better through these types of exchanges. Faculty have much to offer the workplace, and would enjoy dusting off their skills. Media professionals can contribute much to the classroom, and could benefit from teaching what they do on a daily basis. Theory and practice could truly feed one another and grow

together in a setting like this. However, for this type of intellectual partnership to take off and stay running, financial and moral support from university administrators and top media managers is imperative. The potential for intellectual and financial benefit should be evident to all.

Final lessons from comparator programs

A brief return to the three comparator programs (nursing, business, and teacher education) provides some final historical lessons and clues about the future of journalism and mass communication education. It reflects both pessimism and hope. The upheaval, struggle, and uncertainty that journalism and mass communication education faces today, other professional programs have already experienced. They have lived in uneasy, paradoxical relationships with their parent institutions for more than 100 years. At times, each of the programs has been misunderstood and undervalued in the academy. None of them has disappeared. However, all are attempting to adapt to new realities on their campuses and in the marketplace.

Considering professional programs' land-grant college roots and historical dedication to service and the liberal arts, it's hard to deny that these professional programs have earned their place of respect in the academy. Yet, academic legitimacy is still hard to attain at many institutions. What nursing program planners told the National League of Nursing Education in 1945 sounds much like the world of journalism and mass communication education today: "Although nursing schools and departments have been established in many colleges and universities, it would be a mistake to assume that the

trial period is over and that there is anything like general agreement on the place of such schools in institutions of higher education or even of their right to be there. Conflicting ideas still exist about the aims and purposes of such schools, how they gear in with the aims of liberal arts colleges, the kinds of nurses they are supposed to prepare, and many other questions." Similar doubts have nagged teacher education through the 20th century.

Yet, according to the original six criteria that Dr. Abraham Flexner laid out for professional occupations in 1916 (Deloughery, 1995), the media professions have clearly strengthened their professional status through the early 21st century. Likewise, journalism and mass communication programs have rightly earned professional standing among their brethren in the academy. Yet they still face a common professional program dilemma, which John Goodlad references in Tom's discussion of teacher education (1997). "Universities rarely will invest the resources needed to run first-rate programs. Instead, they prefer to use the programs to attract students and generate income, which is often siphoned off to other parts of the institution. It reflects the low status that many professional programs must shoulder."

If there are any bright spots to be found among the comparator programs, they are located in Peter Denning's discussion (1996) of new business designs for the entire university. Denning believes that in the future, higher education will be controlled by institutions that conduct more practical research and overhaul their academic structure to reflect a heavier emphasis on professional programs and a client-focused operation. In particular, Denning cites marketplace demands including (a) a rising level of industry requests for professional education, (b) student and employer demand for more practical

competence, and (c) teaching students how to cope with the apparent rise in complexity in a world increasingly dominated by technology. Although the academic legitimacy of these demands are not yet recognized at many institutions, the media industry and journalism and mass communication students already understand them. One would hope that the academy will take a hard look at all of its professional programs and recognize new realities that the marketplace is bringing to its door.

In asserting that universities will have to re-orient themselves toward training students for specific competencies, Dening argues convincingly that such practical goals are entirely consistent with larger aims of general education, which include socialization, group participation, communities, and histories. It's an idea that journalism and mass communication educators have understood for more than 100 years.

In considering who should be involved in planning for the change now facing journalism and mass communication programs, survey respondents said they favored various mixes of stakeholders – including faculty, media professionals, administrators, students, and alumni. Cowen's study (1994) of Case Western Reserve's Weatherhead School of Management provides some useful insights on this score. Adopting and outside-in perspective that is common to business but uncommon to academia, faculty here enlisted graduates, students, donors, employers, and various community members to help them identify issues most central to the change process. Planners then worked to align the needs and expectations of external stakeholders with interests and competencies of faculty, and meld their institutional strengths and aspirations together with those of stakeholders. According to Cowen, this type of synthesis increased the likelihood that

faculty would embrace and internalize the changes. Gathering input from all stakeholders, faculty projected where they wanted the program to be in 10 years, and developed a set of strategic initiatives based on such factors as student quality, faculty profile, resource availability, and community involvement. The strategic initiatives pointed out specific directions that university faculty and administrators would have to pursue to bring their visions to life. Translating this business-oriented planning process to a journalism and mass communication setting would not be difficult, and could provide faculty with the multiple perspectives they will need to adopt effective curricular changes.

Summary

The history, evolution, and current status of journalism and mass communication programs in American higher education has been turbulent, often contentious, and multifaceted in its vision. At every turn in their development, programs have mirrored the rapid pace of social growth and technological progress the United States experienced through the 19th and 20th centuries. In every regard, journalism and mass communication education has embodied the American ethos of practicality and self-empowerment that the Land Grant College Act first inspired 140 years ago. The professional schools that this act helped create have been enriched in spirit and purpose as journalism and mass communication programs have become a part of them. Now, standing at the door of a new century, journalism and mass communication education appears to again be

transforming itself in ways that will both reflect and drive new trends in industry and society.

Like the democratic principles on which American journalism was originally founded, journalism and mass communication education will now have to adapt to increasingly complex times while retaining the core skills and values that have made it so resilient. The role and structure of journalism and mass communication within the university's professional curriculum will always change, but it can only grow in stature and significance over the next millennium.

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February 20, 2002

Dear Mass Communication Educator or Media Professional,

Greetings from the University of Washington in Seattle. I am a doctoral student at UW, working on my dissertation research. I also work at UW-Tacoma as a print media lecturer and adviser to *The Ledger*, UWT's student newspaper. My dissertation topic addresses the future of journalism and mass communication education, and what educators must do now to prepare students for rewarding and productive careers in the industry.

The enclosed survey is intended to help answer this research question: **"What is the best way to structure the future of journalism and mass communication education so that it remains a viable discipline within the academy?"**

Survey results will be used to identify factors that could be used to design models for journalism and mass communication programs of the future. You have received this survey because your knowledge and opinions on this matter are important. The survey is being sent to:

1.) journalism and mass communication program heads at the 108 U.S. programs accredited by the Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism and Mass Communications (ACEJMC);
2.) 300 randomly chosen members of the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (AEJMC); and
3.) 92 media professionals serving as heads of local professional chapters of the Society of Professional Journalists (SPJ).

Near the top, you are given the opportunity to code yourself according to group. Your identity will remain anonymous, and responses are not linked to your identity in any way. Questions are a combination of Likert-type, rank-order, and open-ended items. Space is provided at the end for you to add any remaining thoughts or impressions of possible use to the researcher. Your participation in this project is voluntary, and you may refuse to answer any question in the survey. Completion time is approximately 20 minutes. Please complete this survey as soon as possible and return it in the enclosed stamped envelope.

If you have questions about the survey or would like to discuss anything further, please contact me at the above phone number or e-mail address. Thank you so much!

Andy Lingwall

Survey Research Questionnaire for Faculty and Media Professionals

The following survey is intended to measure the perceptions of journalism and mass communication educators and media professionals about the current state of journalism and mass communication education, and the best way to structure programs in the future.

Please answer each item as completely as you can. Skip sections that do not apply to you. At the end of this survey, space is offered for additional comments.

When you are finished, please enclose this survey in the stamped envelope and return it no later than ***March 15, 2002.*** *Thank you!*

I. Your Background

Please check the box that applies to you:
___ Faculty member at an ACEJMC-accredited school. Discipline:_____
___ Faculty/AEJMC member at a non-ACEJMC accredited school. Discipline:_____
___ Media Professional

Job title: _____

II. Your Organization

Please check the box that mostly closely matches your organization:

For faculty:
____ Public research university
____ Public college or university
____ Private college or university
Other: _____

Approximate total enrollment: _____

Please describe the academic structure of your program within its institution (school, college, division, etc.)

Approximate program enrollments (broken down by major if possible):

For media professionals:
____ Large metro daily newspaper
____ Medium-sized daily newspaper
____ Medium-sized weekly newspaper
____ Small weekly newspaper
___ Other _____
Approximate circulation: _____

III. The Profession

In your opinion, which trends in the journalism and mass communication professions are most heavily impacting what colleges and universities teach in their programs?

How have college and university programs responded, and why do you believe these responses have or have not been effective?

How are the above trends making university-based journalism and mass communication programs more important or less important?

Do you believe that journalism and mass communication is best taught in a college classroom, a professional setting, or through some combination of the two? Please explain.

IV. The Academy

(media members: skip this section and proceed to section V.)

How would you rate the academic standing of your program within your college or university? Rank it on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being the highest.

1 2 3 4 5

What do you believe accounts for this situation?

How much value does your institution place on faculty with significant field experience but no advanced degree, versus faculty with limited field experience and an advanced degree?

What is your program doing now to make journalism and mass communication a viable discipline within the academy, and what barriers stand in your way?

V. The Students

Which skills will be most important for students to succeed as journalists or mass communication professionals over the next decade? Please rate the following skill areas on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being the most important.

Thinking:	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Writing:	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Editing:	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Visual presentation:	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Computer:	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Personal skills:	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Within each of the above skill areas, please rate the following sub-skills on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being the most important.

Thinking:

___ Broad base in a variety of disciplines (history, law, economics, etc.)
___ Ability to separate facts from opinions
___ Ability to negotiate ethical dilemmas
___ Ability to recognize and address legal concerns

Writing:

___ The basics: grammar, punctuation and style
___ Conveying the news clearly and objectively
___ Research and interviewing
___ Producing copy for a variety of formats (print, broadcast, online, etc.)

Editing:

___ Editing for the basics: grammar, punctuation, style
___ Editing for audience and length
___ Editing for legal and ethical concerns

Visual presentation:

___ Photography
___ Page design
___ Infographic design
___ Broadcast editing

Computer skills:

___ Computer-assisted reporting
___ Writing for online media
___ Web page design and editing

Personal skills:

___ Ability to work effectively with diverse team members
___ Ability to manage stress and conflict
___ Communicating across cultural boundaries
___ Ability to speak more than one language

VI. Teaching

How well is your college or university (or the institutions with which you are most familiar) preparing students in the following skill areas? Please rate each skill area on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 as the highest.

Thinking:	1	2	3	4	5
Editing:	1	2	3	4	5
Visual presentation :	1	2	3	4	5
Computer skills:	1	2	3	4	5
Personal skills:	1	2	3	4	5

Please describe any obstacles (e.g., institutional, financial, technological) that you believe hamper educators' success in any of the above areas.

For any of the above areas, what resources do faculty need to effectively teach students?

VII. Technology

How well do you believe college and university programs are preparing students for technological challenges they will face as news professionals? Please rank on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 as the highest.

1 **2** **3** **4** **5**

Which technology tools are most important for students to be able to use as news professionals?

How can colleges and universities equip students with these technology tools?

VIII. Partnerships

Please describe any educational partnerships your organization has entered with media partners or colleges in your community. How have they benefited students, employers or your program?

Please describe any internship or cooperative education programs your university has created for students. How have they benefited students, employers or your program?

What types of partnerships or internship programs would you like your organization to be able to undertake, and what impediments, if any, exist to their implementation?

IX. The Future

Should journalism and mass communication education programs still be on college and university campuses 20 years from now? Please explain.

If you could envision the shape of journalism and mass communication education 20 years from now, what would it be?

Who (e.g., faculty, administrators, media professionals) do you believe should participate in the planning, organization and management of curricular change?

X. Additional Comments

Please use this area to record any additional observations you think are important in the planning, organization and management of journalism and mass communication education in upcoming decades. Thank you for your participation!

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March 30, 2002

Dear Mass Communication Educator or Media Professional,

Hello again from the University of Washington in Seattle. Last month, you were included on a mailing list to receive a survey questionnaire regarding the future of journalism and mass communication education in the United States.

If you have already completed the survey and returned it, many thanks. In case you haven't had the opportunity to fill it out yet, I am writing this letter to encourage you to do so as soon as possible. I hope to begin data analysis by April 15.

If you never received the survey or need another copy, please send me e-mail to the above address, and I will mail you another immediately. Your participation in this project is voluntary, and you may refuse to answer any question in the survey. Completion time is approximately 20 minutes.

If you have additional questions about the survey or would like to discuss anything further, please contact me at the above phone number or e-mail address. Thank you so much!

Sincerely,

Andy Lingwall

JAMES ANDREW LINGWALL

6912 47th St. Ct. W., University Place, WA 98466
(253) 565-9001 jal@u.washington.edu

Education

Ed.D., Educational Leadership and Policy Studies, University of Washington, 2002.
Areas of concentration: Journalism and communication instruction; foundations, history and policy of higher education.

M.Ed., Educational Leadership and Policy Studies, University of Washington, 1997.
Areas of concentration: Teaching and learning at the community college; educational leadership and administration; student services; foundations, history and policy of higher education.

B.S., Public Relations, University of Florida, 1989.
Areas of concentration: Public relations and communications; news reporting and writing for print and broadcast media; marketing; publication design.

Current Position

Print Media Lecturer, University of Washington, Tacoma, 1999-Present

- Design and teach courses in public relations and journalism in the university's Interdisciplinary Arts and Sciences Program
- Provide academic advising and supervise independent study projects

Faculty Adviser to* The Ledger, *1999-Present

- Instruct newspaper staff in all aspects of journalism including news writing, photography, page design, desktop publishing and student press law
- Work with students to prepare and submit stories for publication
- Serve as liaison between students and university administration

Course Design & Teaching Experience

Writing for Public Relations, 2000-02 at UWT

- Designed and taught first-ever UWT course to introduce students to the field of public relations and its basic writing principles
- Worked with students to produce news releases, backgrounders, advertisements, brochures and website copy for a range of clients
- Structured and led specialized learning activities including group design projects, collaborative writing exercises and team critiques of print pieces

Principles of Public Relations, 2000-2002 at UWT and PLU

- Designed course and taught pr principles to upper-division students at two universities
- Instructed students in media relations, client relations, market research, crisis communication, and legal/ethical responsibilities of pr practitioners
- Structured and led class campaign project for a Tacoma-area client

News Writing: 1999-2002 at UWT; 1998-99 at TCC

- In a news lab setting, taught students basic principles of reporting and news writing, ethics and news judgment, and communications law
- Structured and led specialized activities to improve student writing, including collaborative writing exercises and individual editorial conferences
- Added emphasis on visual journalism and computer-assisted reporting

Feature Writing for Print Media: 2000-2002 at UWT; 1998-1999 at TCC

- Designed, taught and assessed first-ever news feature writing courses at UWT and TCC
- Structured and led specialized learning activities including in-class interviews, group critiques and collaborative writing sessions
- Added emphasis on visual journalism and computer-assisted reporting
- Built working media connections with *The University Place Journal, The Peninsula Gateway, Tacoma Reporter* and other newspapers for student queries and submissions

Editing and Design for Print Media: 2000-02 at UWT and PLU

Taught upper-division course covering:

- Design: page layout, photo spreads, typography, infographics and use of color
- Editing: news judgment, selection and editing of copy, headline writing, photo cropping and sizing
- Revamped course for emphasis on visual journalism and computer-based design

Planning for Computer-Assisted Reporting Course, 1998-1999 at TCC

- Worked with library faculty to plan a two-credit course teaching students to research news stories using the Internet and other electronic resources, and to develop effective search and evaluation strategies for writing news stories
- Course was offered spring 1999 in conjunction with news writing class

Education 101: College Success Seminar, 1997-1998 at TCC

- Taught new TCC students college skills including writing, test-taking, critical thinking, university transfer and career planning
- Structured and led in-class exercises on diversity and team building
- Provided individual advising and personal mentoring to students

Professional Communications Experience

Publisher of The Ledger, UWT's student newspaper, 1999-Present

- In addition to advising, oversee all business operations including printing, technology, facilities, and a $30,000 annual budget
- Recruit, train and manage editorial and advertising staff

- Set advertising policy and manage advertising department
- Serve as liaison between students and university administration

Freelance Features Writer and Theater Columnist, The News Tribune, 1993-Present

- Publish "Front-Row Seat, "a biweekly column on Tacoma-area community theater
- Report on regional music and arts communities
- Write six stories per month including play reviews, music previews, community features

Public Relations Specialist, Tacoma Community College, 1993-99

- Conducted media relations for local, regional and national audiences; generated news angles, feature stories, press releases and photos on college programs and people
- Produced publications including catalog, program brochures, class schedule
- Developed and implemented marketing efforts for college programs on main campus and off-campus centers in downtown Tacoma and Gig Harbor

Account Executive, Russell & Herder Advertising, Brainerd, Minnesota, 1992-93

- Planned and executed public relations campaigns for corporate, healthcare, tourism, and other clients
- Produced and distributed news articles, marketing plans, advertisements and brochures
- Established and monitored annual advertising budgets

Staff Reporter, Successful Business, Rochester, Minnesota, 1990-1992

- Reported on banking, retail, business-related issues; wrote hard news, feature stories
- Edited and laid out newspaper on a weekly basis
- Shot photographs for stories and spot news coverage

Reporter/Editor, Faribault Daily News, Faribault, Minnesota, 1989-1990

- Covered a daily beat including police, fire and courts; agriculture and general assignment
- Edited and laid out Agri-News page on a weekly basis, local briefs on a daily basis
- Shot photographs for stories and spot news coverage

Staff Reporter, Florida Business Journal, Gainesville, Florida, 1987-1989

- Reported on real estate, banking, other business issues for northern Florida readership
- Edited and laid out newspaper on a weekly basis
- Shot photographs for stories and spot news coverage

Campus Leadership/University Service

Pacific Northwest Association of Journalism Educators, 1999-present

- Elected president for 2002-03 term
- Work with faculty colleagues from Washington, Oregon and Idaho to advance college-level journalism instruction, and build working connections with industry newspapers in the Northwest

UWT Community College Outreach Work, 2000-2001

- Collaborated with IAS faculty colleagues to build new instructional and transfer connections between area community colleges and IAS program
- Traveled to area community colleges, and host community college faculty to plan for new transfer and curriculum agreements

The University of Washington, Tacoma Partnership Project, 1996-1999

- Worked as liaison between TCC and the University of Washington, Tacoma to build new academic and institutional partnerships
- Played a major role in positioning TCC as UWT's main feeder institution by planning and conducting UWT information days, advising sessions and faculty/student panels

TCC Classified Staff Organization President, 1996-1997

- Represented 105 classified staff in administrative and budgetary matters on campus
- Led legislative efforts on key classified staff issues including salaries, benefits and staffing levels
- Advocated for individual staff members in personnel matters

TCC Committee Memberships

- TRIO Student Services Search Committee for Director, Educational Planner, 1997
- Presidential Search Advisory Committee, 1996-97
- Legislative Task Force, 1996-97
- Budget Committee, 1994-97
- College Council, 1994-97
- Education and Training Committee, 1994-96

Student Services

Tacoma Community College, 1996-1998

- Provided individual academic advising to students
- Conducted new-student advising and orientation sessions
- Recruited Tacoma-area high school students through classroom visits and campus tours
- Job-shadowed staff in Admissions, Registration, Advising, Assessment and Counseling

Honors and Awards (selected)

Walter White-Garry L. Meyer Memorial Scholarship
Funding for completion of doctoral dissertation
Fall 2001

Visual Journalism for Educators Fellowship
The Poynter Institute for Media Studies
Summer 2000

1999 Silver Paragon Award
National Council for Marketing and Public Relations

"Video Advertisement/PSA, Series" at TCC

1997 Gold Medallion of Excellence
National Council for Marketing and Public Relations
"Best Viewbook" at TCC

1995 Silver Medallion of Achievement
National Council for Marketing and Public Relations
"Best Promotional Campaign" at TCC

1992-93 Addy Award
Advertising/Marketing Federation of Central Minnesota
Four-Color Brochure for Minnesota Office of Tourism

Selected Research

"Journalism and Mass Communication Study in American Higher Education: Foundations and Future Challenges," doctoral dissertation, University of Washington, 2001-02

"The Writing Center and the News Writing Classroom: In Search of Instructional Intersections," University of Washington, Tacoma, Fall 1998

"Constructivist Teaching in the Community College Classroom: Policy Design and Reflective Critique," University of Washington, November 1997

"Building Academic Bridges: A Student Services Partnership Project between Tacoma Community College and the University of Washington, Tacoma," master's degree thesis, University of Washington, May 1997

Selected Publications

Book Review: "An Editor for Oregon: Charles A. Sprague and the Politics of Change" *Pacific Northwest Quarterly*, Spring 2000

With Tacoma Community College's Help, Police Officers Create First-Ever, Statewide Skill Standards," *Community College Journal*, February/March 1998

"Welfare Reform and the Role of Community Colleges," *Trustee Quarterly*, November 1997

Directions and Challenges: A Student Services Manual, Washington State Student Services Commission, 1997

"Out Front in Engineering Education," *Community College Journal*, April/May 1997

"Literacy a Family Affair in TCC Even Start Program," *Community College Journal*, April/May 1996

"Tacoma Community College Turning out a New Breed of Law Enforcement Professional," *Community College Journal*, October/November 1995

"In Faculty Learning Communities, Everyone Wins," *Community College Journal*, August/September 1994

"Community College Program Offers Help and Hope," *Connections* (American Association of Colleges and Universities), Fall 1994

"TQM in the Classroom," *Community College Times*, February 1994

"Learning the Ropes of Working Together," *Community College Times*, October 1993

Clips from The News Tribune, Successful Business, The Faribault Daily News and The Florida Business Journal (1987-present) available upon request.

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