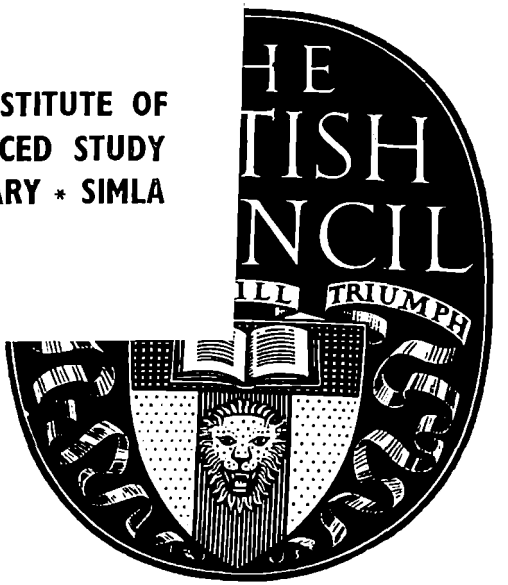
PRESS, FILM AND RADIO IN THE WORLD TODAY
A series of studies published by Unesco

THE TRAINING OF JOURNALISTS

A world-wide survey on the training of personnel for the mass media



PRESS, FILM AND RADIO IN THE WORLD TODAY

Series of studies published by Unesco

THE TRAINING OF JOURNALISTS

A world-wide survey on the training of personnel for the mass media

UNESCO

Published in 1958 by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
19 Avenue Kléber, Paris-16e
Printed by Cedo Nulli, The Hague, Holland

Printed in Holland
M.C. 58.IV.19A

PREFACE

The present book must be viewed in the general framework of Unesco's efforts with regard to the training of journalists, which are described in the following section; it grew out of this work and in part reflects it. Readers will, it is hoped, find it useful as a source of reference. Even more important, a survey of the principles and methods used in the training of journalists, and of the facilities available for such training in different parts of the world, may prove valuable as a guide for future action at both the national and the international level.

The book is divided into three parts, which reflect the major preoccupations of Unesco in this field. Part One, 'International Collaboration in the Training of Journalists', contains an account of Unesco's objectives and of its contribution to date and also a report on the First International Centre for Advanced Journalism Training, established under Unesco's auspices at the University of Strasbourg.

Part Two, 'Training Principles and Methods', contains eight papers on different aspects of journalistic training. Marcel Stijns, editor of Het Laatste Nieuws *(Brussels), and president of the International Association of Journalists, discusses the requirements which the journalistic profession expects its new recruits to meet and the attitude of professional organizations. Wilfrid Eggleston, director of the Department of Journalism at Carleton University (Ottawa) contributes a broad discussion on specialized training for the information media, and M. Chalapathi Rau, editor of the Lucknow* National Herald, *deals with the professional qualifications of those called upon to train future journalists. The role of the university with regard to journalistic training is examined by Troels Fink, the head of the school of journalism at Aarhus University (Denmark). An American authority, Neil Luxon analyses recent changes in the academic and practical fare offered by university departments of journalism particularly with relation to the increasing importance of audio-visual media. Walter Hagemann contributes a paper on professional publications as teaching aids, and also a selected bibliography. Fernand Terrou, the president of the newly founded International Association for Mass Communication Research, deals with the relationship between professional training and research into the means of disseminating information, and also sketches the development of international*

co-operation in the field of mass communication research. Finally, a paper by Armand Gaspard of the International Press Institute describes the work of that body with regard to journalistic training.

A geographical survey of existing facilities is to be found in Part Three, 'Training Facilities in Different Countries'. The information presented is not comprehensive, but an attempt has been made to describe the training methods and facilities of most of those countries where specialized journalistic training, in one form or another, has become an accepted institution. Several of the reports in this section, like many of the papers in the second part, were first read in somewhat different versions at the Expert Meeting held at Unesco House in April 1956 (see p. 14). They were later submitted to the authors for revision and may now be taken as generally representative of the information available in mid-1957. It is thus possible to give an up-to-date account of existing training facilities in the various countries and at the same time to assess international collaboration in this field at a stage when, with the establishment of the Strasbourg Centre, it has assumed concrete and permanent form.

It is hardly necessary to point out that the papers in the third part may serve to illustrate many of the points made in the second part. They show that useful results can be achieved both by on-the-job training programmes, such as those described in the section on the United Kingdom, and by university courses on the lines of those described in the reports on the United States of America, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and other countries. Papers from a number of small or technically underdeveloped countries demonstrate that the organization of suitable training programmes is not necessarily dependent upon the existence of a flourishing press organization or an elaborate education system. A paper by Harry Heath of Iowa State College, dealing with radio and television training in the U.S.A., indicates the steps that are being taken to prepare students for careers in the new mass media which are steadily gaining ground in all continents. The training of radio and television journalists is becoming a matter of increasing urgency.

Despite the generally encouraging picture presented by this survey, the reader may be left with the feeling that the development of the training of journalists — like the developments of mass media themselves — is far from balanced, and leaves much room for improvements. If this publication can help to bring about such improvements, and to foster the kind of international action, and (no less important) national action, on which they often depend, it will have served its purpose.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Asia

Europe

Oceania

PART ONE

International collaboration in the training of journalists

The Role of Unesco

by the UNESCO SECRETARIAT

Journalism today is an exacting calling. To gather, present and interpret the news by whatever medium — press, film, radio or television — demands not only high technical skill to match the great strides made in the mechanics of communication, but also the ability to understand and make understandable to others the swiftly changing and complex panorama of modern times.

The situation not only presents a challenge to those engaged in the profession; it carries wider social implications which affect everyone. If, as is generally conceded, an informed public opinion is one of the best guarantees for a healthy national and international 'climate', and since the basis of public opinion is the information carried by the mass media, then it follows that the validity of opinions held by the public will largely depend on the knowledge, understanding and sense of responsibility of those who provide the information.

Journalists as a whole, both in their professional associations and as individuals, realize this social responsibility and have devised ethical codes to guide them in meeting it. And they have long recognized the value of good general education and solid professional training to equip themselves for the task.

But what is the best type of education they should get, and how should their professional training be arranged? Where and how should it be given? What subjects should be covered?

For years, the professionals have disagreed among themselves on these questions as have the educators, and the considerable gap that has frequently existed between the two sides has made it difficult to arrive at workable solutions.

Countries which have training systems in operation have, naturally enough, adopted different approaches. In some, the accent has been on technical craftmanship learned 'on the job'; in others, the stress has been more academic, aimed at raising the general educational level of the trainee; while a third group has favoured a mixture of the two systems according to local tradition and preference.

Until quite recently little had been done to bring together the varying experience so far gained, to compare and discuss the different approaches and, from this pooling of theory and practice, to frame conclusions and recommendations that could not only improve training techniques where they exist but make

possible their creation or adaptation in regions still lacking them.

The task was clearly an international one, and the necessary forum for the international exchange needed was provided by Unesco.

It is a role for which Unesco may claim to be particularly well fitted. Under its constitutional mandate to promote the free flow of ideas by word and image it has, since its inception, worked in close harmony and co-operation with many international organizations, both governmental and professional, on such practical issues as reducing obstacles to the transmission of press messages and the movement of press material. With the United Nations it has worked on the broad issues of freedom of information, giving special attention to the raising of professional standards and improvements in the techniques of mass communication. And basically the Organization's aims are to promote better and broader education everywhere.

Unesco's interest in professional training for journalism was therefore a logical part of its long term objective to promote better international co-operation and to prove its worth by providing examples of such co-operation in the fields of education, science and culture. At the same time training for journalism could not fail to contribute to the improvement of relations between peoples through increased mutual knowledge and understanding.

After scattered efforts over a period of years to support and expand what already existed, Unesco took a new initiative by convening an international group of experts on training for journalism. The meeting, the first of its kind, took place at Unesco Headquarters in Paris from 9 to 13 April 1956. The experts who attended the meeting were not only highly qualified in their own right, either as practising journalists or as teachers of journalism, but between them they represented 25 countries, different media of information, and different methods of training. The result was a welding of professional and academic experience, of news-room and class-room skills for journalistic training, from every corner of the world, all presented from an international viewpoint.

The meeting was attended by official observers from the United Nations, the International Labour Organisation, the Council of Europe, the International Federation of Journalists, the International Organization of Journalists, the International Press Institute, the International Association of Universities and other organizations with interests in the field.

The conclusions reached by the experts were unanimous. These are given textually in later pages, but the main ones are underlined here.

The experts agreed that the key to improving the quality of information lies in 'more thorough education and training of journalists in all media'; that training should be of a twofold nature — technical, covering the techniques of the profession,

and general education to give the journalist 'as much knowledge as possible concerning the subjects with which he deals'. They urged that, while there should be no restrictions to entry into the profession, the beginner should come equipped with a minimum level of general education and have opportunities to raise that level. The valuable role of universities in providing facilities for education and training in journalism was acknowledged and the need for co-operation between them and the information enterprises and organizations in any project to improve training was stressed.

An important recommendation of the meeting, and one specifically directed to Unesco, was for the creation of regional training centres to provide training for teaching staff, offer refresher courses for teachers of journalism as well as for practising journalists and to undertake studies in teaching methods and mass communication techniques.

The successful launching, with the support of Unesco and the French authorities, of the first such regional training centre at the University of Strasbourg is detailed in the following chapter. The possibility of aiding the organization of regional centres to serve Latin America and South-East Asia is now being studied by Unesco.

Important advances have thus followed from Unesco's initiative of 1956. The problem has been surveyed and remedial action planned in the light of international experience and needs; the gap between the professional and the academic approach has been greatly reduced and their mutually valuable contributions recognized as the basis for future co-operation; and, finally, the establishment of the first regional training centre at Strasbourg will provide concrete experience and guidance for similar centres in other parts of the world.

Continued active support by Unesco in this whole field is guaranteed by the action of Unesco's General Conference which, at its ninth session in New Delhi (November-December 1956), adopted a resolution authorizing the Director-General to assist Member States and mass communication enterprises to improve the techniques and expand the means of communications, and particularly by:

'... formulating and carrying out of measures to improve facilities and techniques for the education and training of information personnel, at national and international levels, through:

'1. Seeking the advice of specialists on the methods, curricula and procedures to be utilized;

'2. Assisting Member States in developing training facilities;

'3. Promoting the establishment of regional centres for education and training in journalism;

'4. Promoting the production of teaching aids.'

It will be seen that this programme closely reflects the spirit of the international experts' recommendations. In carrying it out, Unesco will seek and expects to obtain the wholehearted

co-operation of all the organizations, informational and educational, which share its interest in developing training facilities for journalists working in all media.

THE INTERNATIONAL EXPERT MEETING: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Preamble

The welfare of peoples depends upon their decisions, freely and intelligently arrived at. The validity of these decisions depends upon the informed opinions of the citizens which, in turn, are based upon the accuracy and completeness with which the facts and events are made known to them. The adequacy of this reporting depends upon the understanding, the knowledge, the skill and the sense of responsibility of journalists.

In the field of mass communications there are two principal objectives. One is to improve the quality of information, and the other is to facilitate the free flow of information within countries and across national boundaries.

The key to the first objective is to be found in the more thorough education and training of journalists in all media. This meeting has addressed itself to the study of this problem and the formulation of recommendations.

While no uniform standards can be imposed, the meeting was nevertheless impressed by the need to pool ideas and experience in order to provide some guidance for those engaged, in whatever capacity, in the education and training of journalists.

The needs of the modern world require that such education and training keep pace so far as possible with the development of new means of communication. To this end, the conferences and discussions of those who are concerned in any way with the processes of journalistic training and education are especially valuable.

At present, the growing interdependence of peoples, the complexity of world affairs and the rapid expansion of communications confront journalism in press, radio, television and film, with new responsibilities, challenges and opportunities.

Freedom of information is an essential part of democratic life and of the fundamental rights and freedoms of man. Journalists are no exception to the rule that the members of any profession will receive from the public only the degree of respect and trust to which their own merits entitle them. It is, therefore, important that the highest standards of the profession should be maintained so that the press will play its part in strengthening the peoples' belief in this fundamental freedom.

The meeting wishes to express its gratitude to the Director-General of Unesco for convening the gathering. It is hoped that his initiative will lead to further fruitful action towards the

improvement of professional standards in all the media of mass communications.

The Need for Training. Methods of Selection, Education, Training

1. No restriction should be placed in the way of those wishing to enter journalism — the term is used to cover all media — since any such restriction would run counter to the right of freedom of expression and infringe the liberty of the press. The meeting considers however, that it is not inconsistent with this declaration of freedom that beginners should come to the profession equipped with a minimum level of general education.

2. It is desirable that those who contemplate careers in the mass media should enter the profession with a full knowledge of what to expect of it and what the profession expects of them. Experiments of varying efficacy have been tried or are in use, as means of offering vocational guidance and of discovering reliable selection methods, but much remains to be accomplished in this field. All efforts to improve selection methods, to raise the educational level of entrants and to guarantee fair remuneration will ultimately prove of benefit to the industry and to the profession, and to the public they are both called upon to serve.

3. Study and refresher courses of various kinds and conceptions are likely to be among the most immediately effective methods of improving professional standards in all areas of the world. Such facilities are to be envisaged at all stages in the career of a journalist and for those specializing in teaching journalism. Much has already been done in this direction by professional associations, special institutes and educational establishments. But the need and possibilities for developing such activities remain considerable, especially at the regional and international level.

4. A particularly useful form of combining the further training of teaching staff with the development of recently established training institutions is that by which experienced journalism teachers combine educational travel abroad with guest lecturing and research. This applies particularly to those specializing in the teaching of the principles of communications and international affairs.

5. It is impossible to aim too high in providing educational facilities for prospective journalists and at all stages of their training and the exercise of their responsibilities.

6. In any allocation of fellowships, other teaching and training aids and further facilities, due account should be taken of the acute and special needs in the technically underdeveloped areas of the world.

7. There are two basic needs in the training of the journalist: one is technical training in the arts of communication; the second is as much knowledge as possible concerning the subjects with which he deals. Both aspects of journalistic training should

be designed to develop the journalist's sense of inquiry and devotion to the results of his inquiry; a responsible habit of fully investigating and reporting facts and events; and of separating news from opinion in conformity with the profession's own highest standards.

8. Methods of training vary from country to country. Thus, in the Americas, there is a well-established system in which schools of journalism in universities play a main role. In the United Kingdom a system of on-the-job training is conducted under the National Council for the Training of Journalists. In other European countries, different systems are followed. Elsewhere in the world where definite systems have yet to be established or developed, there is a deeply felt need for training facilities that will assist those already in the profession and prospective journalists.

9. Whatever system is found best to meet local circumstances, the two aspects of education — technical and general — should be integrated into a curriculum that meets the requirements of the profession and recognizes the necessity of a certain level of general education.

10. It is desirable that on-the-job training programmes should be systematic and supplemented with professional and general education outside the newspaper office.

11. In order to provide a background for accurate interpretation of international news and events, training programmes should include a study of current affairs and of the history and culture of other peoples. Foreign language teaching should be extended and encouraged.

12. The meeting attaches great importance to increased opportunities for exchange of journalists and teachers of journalism between different countries being provided on the widest possible scale. These visits to foreign countries should be mainly to broaden the journalist's knowledge and understanding and should not necessarily be linked to working as a staff member in the country visited.

13. This meeting recognizes the enormous strides made in the new media of mass communication. Concern about journalism training must extend to all information media, new and old. In the training of journalists for all media, the great potentialities for fresh approaches to human communication should be kept in mind.

14. In extensive areas of the world, broadcasting and the news and documentary film are more widely used as educational and journalistic media than the newspaper. A widespread idea that the candidate should be thoroughly grounded in newspaper techniques before he enters the field of the newer media is being challenged. A fresh approach to these and related problems may be called for.

The Role of Universities

15. In many countries the universities are playing a valuable role by providing facilities for education and training in journalism. Sometimes schools or faculties of journalism are part of the universities and in some countries there is a more or less formal connexion between schools of journalism and universities. In any project aimed at raising the level of professional education and training in journalism it is desirable to develop co-operation with the universities.

16. It is recommended that universities and other educational institutions undertake the promotion of research into problems of the press and of other media of mass communication. Teachers at schools of journalism should wherever possible combine teaching with research work of this kind.

17. More widespread provision should be made by universities and by professional and educational institutions for advanced study by working journalists who wish to enrich their educational background or engage in specialized study.

18. Wide general culture and good professional training are essential in journalistic life. To ensure that personnel in the mass media possess these qualities, those who teach them must be properly educated, trained and equipped with the necessary technical knowledge.

19. The development of teaching methods and new experience are of interest to all professional circles. Schools of journalism and other institutions concerned with professional training should make available, upon request and on as wide a scale as possible, the fruits of their experience, research results and publications.

20. Inter-aid in this respect might also take the form of bilateral arrangements between universities and other training establishments, whereby teaching staff and students are exchanged for varying periods.

21. The world of journalism, including publishers, editors, executives, administrators and technicians, can make a most valuable contribution to professional training institutions and to research programmes, by co-operating with teachers of journalism in such matters as laboratory work, training periods and research.

Centres for Training in Journalism

22. A proposal of merit is the creation of regional or international centres devoted to raising the standards of training and education of journalists in various parts of the world. Eventual establishment of a world centre might follow.

23. Such centres should give due consideration to the need for specialized instruction in the newer information media, especially in underdeveloped regions with a low literacy rate.

24. Such centres might be attached to universities or other recognized institutions, or be independently established. The tasks of the centres might include the following: (a) The training of teaching staff; (b) the pooling of the experience acquired; (c) the improvement of teaching methods and techniques; (d) the compilation of a body of educational data, and the drafting of pilot textbooks and other teaching aids; (e) the co-ordination of theory and practice as regards large-scale communication media and their effects; (f) the study of the basis and structure of large-scale communication media and of freedom of information; (g) the organization of seminars and refresher courses for teachers of journalism and journalists; and (h) the publication of specialized studies and research.

25. There is much to be gained from the organized exchange of ideas, skills, and experience among newspaper, radio and television journalists, journalism teachers, and other information specialists. This might be done at these centres which should, however, not seek to duplicate, to parallel or to supplant existing institutions.

26. Publishers, journalists and journalism teachers should be invited to participate in seminars and refresher courses and to give lectures. Lectures and short courses might also be organized for the benefit of both journalists and the public, through such centres and elsewhere. Regional centres for the advancement of journalism education should periodically exchange their experience in the course of special study conferences the results of which should be publicized as widely as possible.

27. The centres here recommended should be readily accessible to teachers of journalism and have at their disposal cultural and other facilities to contribute to the training of the teachers themselves.

28. The widest possible base should be sought for the financing of the proposed centres — and of such preliminary teams as might be required to set them up. Funds might be sought from professional organizations, industry, the mass media enterprises, foundations, Unesco and governments, provided there are no political conditions attached to these grants.

Research

29. Research on an international scale should facilitate the organization of professional training programmes, by suggesting possible improvements in education methods and providing tools and materials, such as publications, audio-visual aids, etc.

30. In developing an international research programme in relation to professional training, due consideration should be given to the following matters: (a) The drawing up of an international terminology for mass communications; (b) the compilation of selected readings on research methods and techniques; and (c) the establishment of an inventory of those research

tasks which are of the greatest interest in relation to journalism training programmes.

31. The preparation of a comprehensive series of prototype textbooks suitable for wide international use in training for journalism would be most useful. These textbooks should cover technical and commercial as well as editorial problems and be published in the greatest possible number of languages.

32. In order to promote information and discussion on the various national and international aspects of the training and education of journalists and on research programmes in the field of mass communication, this meeting invites editors of professional, trade and scholarly periodicals to pay more attention to subjects of this kind in their publications.

Co-operation of Professional Organizations

33. The desirability of close association and co-operation of all connected with the main media of mass communication has already been stressed. This meeting considers that the best results can be achieved where there is co-operation, formal or informal, between the industry and the professional association on the one hand, and the university authorities and other interested institutions on the other, for instance in the choice of curricula and standards required.

34. Publishers, editors, broadcasters, film producers and others can facilitate the practical work of professional training institutions, in particular by: (a) Authorizing practical training periods by students at different kinds of enterprises and permitting the use of materials which are needed for laboratory work and the provision of documentary information. These facilities might also be extended to national or foreign members of the staff of these institutions and organizations; and (b) giving their staff the greatest possible opportunity to participate in professional training and research work.

35. National and international professional organizations and institutions are invited to place on the agenda of their next congresses a study of the problems concerning the assistance by the profession to training programmes.

The Role of Unesco

36. In connexion with the establishment of centres as suggested above, this meeting makes the following recommendations to Unesco:

1. That Unesco, in close co-operation with the appropriate professional organizations, should study the establishment of centres staffed by expert teachers.
2. That, in this study, Unesco should take into account proposals or suggestions made in the course of this meeting or by other qualified persons, professional bodies or universities.

3. That Unesco should envisage the establishment of a permanent international council, the nucleus of which would consist of the first international expert meeting on professional training for journalism and representatives from professional associations of publishers, and journalists. This council, which would continue on a voluntary and long-term basis the action initiated at the present meeting, would permit of the co-ordination of all activities undertaken with a view to improving the training of professional journalists, and especially that of teachers of journalism.
4. That Unesco should bring the results and recommendations of the present meeting to the knowledge of the General Conference at its ninth session (November-December 1956), and also to the notice of all professional quarters concerned.

37. It is recommended that Unesco, in co-operation with appropriate bodies, should investigate ways and means of collecting the results of experiments wherever found in industry and the professions as regards vocational guidance and selection, and of making them available on as wide a basis as possible.

38. It is recommended that Unesco pioneer the production of specialized prototype teaching aids for prospective journalists suitable for adaptation wherever needed.

39. It is recommended that Unesco give high priority, within the frame of reference of its Aid Programme, to requests for assistance in establishing or developing facilities for the training of press, radio, film and television staff. Professional circles in interested Member States of Unesco should urge their governments to take advantage of these possibilities under the Aid Programme and under such services as Unesco may be in a position to offer by addressing appropriate requests to the Organization.

40. It is recommended that Unesco expand its assistance in the development of training for journalism by helping to afford an ever increasing number of editorial personnel and journalism teachers opportunities of widening their horizon and professional scope. All currently available facilities should be made known to the professional circles, not least with the object of stimulating the provision of additional facilities.

41. It is recommended that Unesco assist, upon request, in the organization of regional and international seminars and study courses for information personnel and, particularly in the preparation of combined study courses for journalists and journalism teachers.

42. For worthy projects of journalism training which cannot be financed by local resources, aid should be sought from international organizations, and, in particular, from Unesco, through its Programme of Aid to Member States and Technical Assistance. Professional associations can, through their own Member States, draw attention to the need of such assistance.

43. Unesco is urged, by any facilities within its reach, to

promote the development of research on subjects connected with journalism training and educational programmes, and to facilitate better international exchange of research which may be carried on now or in the future.

The International Centre for Advanced Training in Journalism

by JACQUES LÉAUTÉ
Professor at the Faculty of Law and Political Science, Strasbourg; Director of the Centre

The International Centre for Advanced Training in Journalism, at Strasbourg, is the first of the regional centres whose creation was proposed by the experts attending the meeting held in Paris, in April 1956, under the auspices of Unesco. In a report on the meeting, the Director-General of Unesco wrote in this connexion:

'A proposal of merit is the creation of regional or international centres devoted to raising the standards of training and education of journalists in various parts of the world....

Such centres should give due consideration to the need for specialized instruction in the newer information media, especially in underdeveloped regions with a low literacy rate.

'Such centres might be attached to universities or other recognized institutions, or be independently established. The tasks of the centres might include the following: the training of teaching staff; the pooling of the experience acquired; the improvement of teaching methods and techniques; the compilation of a body of educational data, and the drafting of pilot textbooks and other teaching aids; the co-ordination of theory and practice as regards large-scale communication media and their effects; the study of the basis and structure of large-scale communication media and of freedom of information; the organization of seminars and refresher courses for teachers of journalism and journalists; the publication of specialized studies and research.'

The past history of Strasbourg, its geographical position and its present role were all factors in favour of its selection as the home of the centre as envisaged in this proposal, while the idea itself was in line with a long-standing interest of Strasbourg University. After a number of preliminary exchanges, formal conversations took place at Strasbourg, in October 1956, between representatives of the Unesco Secretariat and seven

Unesco experts, on the one hand, and representatives of the faculties concerned, headed by the Rector of the university, on the other. As a result, it was decided to set up an International Centre for Advanced Training in Journalism and to arrange an international meeting to determine the structure and methods of operation of the future centre, whose sphere of action was to include Europe, Africa and the Near and Middle East.

The meeting, organized by the university in conjunction with Unesco, took place at Strasbourg from 3 to 5 December 1956; it was attended by specialists from 17 different countries.[1]

The consensus of opinion among those present was that 'initial training' and 'refresher training' for teachers of journalism were too dissimilar to be covered by the same course of studies. It was therefore judged necessary to treat the two separately, and attention was mainly directed to the planning of the refresher courses; it was agreed that a start should be made on 'training' proper once the refresher courses were actually under way.

In point of fact, the term 'refresher courses' proved an unsatisfactory description of the educational needs of the geographical region under consideration. Admittedly there is always room for improvement in any teacher, however knowledgeable, and the opportunities for improvement offered by a refresher course never come amiss.

In practice, however, above a certain level, it is difficult to find persons qualified to give further instruction to teachers because there is no one with more experience in the subject than the teachers themselves. The obvious alternative is to arrange for teachers to meet and to pool the results of their own practical experience. This is the position in Europe, which is, with America, the continent where the teaching of journalism is most advanced. It was accordingly decided that the Strasbourg Centre should organize short sessions devoted to a comparison of the methods used in the teaching of journalism; these would be attended by relatively small teams of specialists in this branch of teaching (about thirty participants at a time).

In the present context, the word 'journalism' is used in its widest sense. The purview of the teaching we are considering is not confined to the printed press; it includes journalistic training for the cinema, radio and television. The centre is indeed concerned with training for all mass communication media.

The term 'teacher' of journalism must likewise be understood in a wide sense, in view of the extent to which the training varies in form from one country to another and even, in some countries, from one institution to another. Primarily, the term denotes those persons whose profession is the teaching of journalism (professors, lecturers, assistants, etc.); in many

1. Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Finland, Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Israel, Italy, Lebanon, Netherlands, Pakistan, Poland, Spain, Switzerland, Tunisia, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, United Kingdom, United States of America.

countries there are regular schools or faculties of journalism, which students enter prior to becoming journalists. But the term also covers professional journalists and other persons who give only a few hours, either of their working time or spare time, to the teaching of journalism; in many countries this teaching is provided independently of the universities, under the auspices of the professional organizations, and is often intended for working journalists who have entered the profession without prior training. In these cases the training is mainly in the form of seminars, evening courses and week-end courses for students who have had some years of practical experience.

Moreover, one would not really be justified in limiting the list of possible participants to 'teachers' of journalism in the two senses explained above. Besides people specializing in teaching, there are others who can make a useful contribution. First among these come certain journalists of long standing who have reached the stage where their example exerts an influence on their junior colleagues. Journalism can in fact be learnt in the lecture room only up to a certain point. Much — most, indeed, in certain countries where there is still considerable hostility to schools and faculties of journalism — is also to be learnt from observing the practised hands of the profession at work. These 'veterans' can contribute usefully to our knowledge of the exact needs of the profession and of the effects of the various methods of teaching, whilst their participation in the sessions may enable them, in turn, to broaden their own cultural horizons still further. They too are welcome at the centre. Again there are others, unconnected with professional journalism, to whom the sessions may be of interest. One group consists of university graduates wishing to take up the teaching of journalism within their own academic field (prospective professors of the history of the press, political economy, etc.). Another group consists of persons who are in no way concerned with teaching but whose occupations (civil service, commerce, etc.) often bring them into contact with the press. This last category may at first seem to have little to do with the centre's objects, but its participation is none the less desirable on that account. All over the world, there are men in important positions who know practically nothing about the press. They are suspicious of it and they antagonize it by their lack of understanding. It is therefore of importance that their successors should be better prepared for their future relations with the press, and their presence at sessions on journalism may contribute towards that end. However, this is a secondary objective of the centre, and participants belonging to this category should only be admitted if there are sufficient vacancies.

PRINCIPAL FUNCTIONS OF THE CENTRE

The experts who met at Strasbourg in December 1956 took the view that the centre should be principally concerned with the general culture imparted to the journalist, his knowledge of the problems peculiar to each of the mass communication media, his technical training and the techniques of 'the teaching of journalism'.

From the scientific viewpoint there is much to be gained from the comprehensive examination of needs and the comparison of methods. Systems borrowed from abroad are of course rarely likely, as they stand, to meet the needs of another country, since these vary according to the nature of the national press, the openings available for journalists who have completed their professional training, the political and social role of the press in the country in question, and even national ways and customs. But consideration of a foreign conception may be the spark kindling ideas for its successful transposition into another system of instruction. This possibility makes the examination worth while.

Even if no such practical results are achieved, meetings of specialists in the teaching of journalism are desirable; they may help to bring about improved understanding among journalists.

Here we touch on a kind of preliminary hypothesis, an initial postulate, which inspired the centre's founders and those who took part in the Strasbourg meeting: namely that good can come of broad and frank exchanges of views between men differing in disposition and convictions. Working together for weeks on end, participants will get to know one another well; on their return to their own countries they will be better able to explain the differing reactions of newspapers abroad to the same event; so that, by degrees, some indirect benefit from these international contacts will be felt by the newspapers and perhaps even by public opinion. This may not be an absolute certainty, in practice, but the experiment is at least worth trying.

Participants will not have a great deal of time, however, to spend on such exchanges. The experts who met at Strasbourg considered that sessions should not exceed six weeks in length, and the brevity of this period has been the determining factor in the organization of the sessions.

It would have been impossible to include a comparative study of all journalism courses in the programme of every session. It was therefore decided that a thorough exploration would be made, at successive sessions, of the fundamental problems involved in education for journalism. Each session will thus have its own major research theme, and the results will be published as they become available. In this way, a comprehensive body of documentation will gradually be built up. It will need revising as methods of journalism teaching develop. So there will be no lack of work!

But the membership of participating teams will be different at each session. And since, by the time they leave Strasbourg, the participants should have gained a general idea of comparative theory concerning the training of journalists, in its main lines, the study of the principal themes will go hand in hand with more general lectures followed by seminars.

In order to derive the fullest benefit from the technique of comparative study, it was decided that the whole team at each session should take part in the whole of the comparative review of methods, even when a branch of mass communication — written, filmed, broadcast or televised — is being dealt with which may lie outside the special fields of some of its members. For the specialist in each medium today must be aware of the needs and trends in other media. In every country, the future will bring changes in the relative position of each medium within the general context of journalistic activities. It is therefore important that the people who will have a part to play in these changes should be well informed. At the same time it is essential that the human contacts so important for international understanding should be increased between representatives of different branches. The work of each session ought therefore to be a team effort covering all sectors of communication.

The ideas outlined above have been put into effect in the programme for the first session of the centre, which took place from 15 October to 1 December 1957.

The session was divided into three periods of a fortnight each. The first was devoted to the general problems common to all forms of news dissemination, and the main subject for comparative study was the teaching given on the different roles of news services throughout the world. Teachers from the Western countries, including the United States of America, and from Eastern Europe were invited to take part in the session. The full scientific and human value of such a comparative study could not have been secured without the participation of American teachers, who have raised the techniques of journalism teaching to a high level. Each speaker was asked to give an account not only of the views on information held by his own country but also of what is said there about the ideas current in other countries — including those ideas which differ most widely from the political point of view. This theme is undoubtedly an explosive one and affords full opportunity for an airing of the differences between Eastern and Western ideological concepts. However, the organizers felt that they ought to begin by allowing free expression of these differences, thus investing the proceedings with an atmosphere of frankness. The future will show whether or not such differences make scientific co-operation in this domain impossible.

The second fortnight was given up to the consideration of training problems peculiar to the printed press. The major theme was a study of ways of learning to select and present

news. In addition there were lectures on the various methods of instruction for the writing of leaders, news stories, etc.

The subject for the final fortnight was broadcasting and television. The governing principles of news training in these spheres were likewise examined from an international standpoint. It did not appear possible, however, to select a specific theme for comparative study before undertaking a general examination of methods, which, in this sector, are of relatively more limited application. A practical study of listener and viewer reactions, along the lines of the investigations undertaken in a number of countries, took place at the end of the session.

As the experiment had not been completed at the time of writing, comments on its results will be published later.

Consideration of the problems relating to the second object of the Strasbourg centre — the initial training of teachers of journalism — will take place at some later date. The sessions in this instance are likely to be longer (probably nine months).

ADMINISTRATIVE AND FINANCIAL ARRANGEMENTS

It was mainly with these objectives in view, and in the spirit outlined above, that the administrative and financial arrangements of the Strasbourg centre were made. But material contingencies had also to be taken into account.

The International Centre for Advanced Training in Journalism is now formally established as an autonomous public entity (known as a university institute), of international scope, within the University of Strasbourg.

The governing body, which is responsible for all important decisions concerning the centre's activities, is the administrative council. The Rector is chairman of this council, and equal representation is given to the university staff and to journalists. The University of Strasbourg attaches a symbolic value to this parity, whereby it has sought to show that, in the centre, the press and the university are working in close co-operation with regard to the teaching of journalism.

On account of its relatively large size, the council can only meet a few times in each year. A smaller committee, known as the studies committee, consisting of five members appointed by the governing body, is responsible for questions calling for speedy settlement, within the limits of the powers delegated to it for that purpose by the council. The principle of dual representation is still maintained, as the committee consists of two professional journalists and two members of the university staff, under the chairmanship of the Director of the centre.

The Director is a professor, appointed by the Rector on the recommendations of the council. He is assisted by a Secretary-

General, who is a former professional journalist. Thus close liaison between the university and the profession, which is essential for the success of the centre, is maintained at all levels.

Although its scope is international, the centre is nevertheless an integral part of the University of Strasbourg. It is not a dependency of Unesco, the latter's role making this impossible. Nor is it an intergovernmental institution; neither its operation nor its financing have been the subject of an international agreement, and it is the French budget which bears the greater part of the centre's costs.

However, ample provision is made for the appointment of specialists from abroad, whether university men or journalists, as members of the council — half the seats being reserved for them.

Some contributions from foreign sources towards the centre's expenses are already coming in. Enrolment fees for sessions are paid by participants whatever their nationality; gifts in kind have also been received. Unesco has contributed towards the technical equipment of the centre and has established fellowships for participants at the first session. Lastly, a number of foreign organizations are sending some participants at their own expense. This material aid is supplemented by valuable moral support.

Such is the newly founded Strasbourg centre. Its success depends upon a great many factors, the most important of which, beyond doubt, is a genuine and firm determination on the part of the countries concerned to see that it grows in strength and vitality.

PART TWO

Training principles and methods

The Role of Professional Organizations, Schools of Journalism, Information Enterprises, and Private and Public Bodies

by MARCEL STIJNS,
President of the International Federation of Journalists; Editor-in-chief of *Het Laatste Nieuws*, Brussels, Belgium

INTRODUCTION

The indifference—or even hostility—once shown towards schools of journalism has diminished in recent years. Although the saying 'one must be born a journalist' is still heard quite often, it is generally acknowledged that, for anyone taking up journalism as a career, it is no longer enough to be gifted, to be able to write and to allow one's imagination to have free rein. The technical problems of composing, printing and distributing newspapers have repercussions on the journalist's work, in which certain methods have now become obligatory.

The art of journalism used to be acquired in newspaper offices, the trainee working under the guidance of his seniors. From the technical point of view, this is still the best method. Apprenticeship has, however, become a thing of the past, particularly in large newspaper offices and in countries where the publication of newspapers had to be suspended during the war or was hindered by the scarcity of newsprint in the early postwar years. There was a time when so many young people flooded into newspaper offices that the older employees found themselves overburdened, not only with their own work, but also with the responsibility of training and supervising the new recruits.

The oft-expressed fear that schools of journalism might find themselves turning out too many holders of diplomas, and that this would result in the growth of a class of people describing themselves as journalists but without any real experience in the profession, has proved to be unfounded.

According to Charles T. Duncan, acting Dean of the School of Journalism of Oregon University (U.S.A.), the number of diplomas awarded by American schools in 1955 was 2,048, i.e., 3.3 per cent more than in the previous year, but the number of posts available exceeded that figure.

In Great Britain, the number of journalists has increased. In August 1939, the editorial staff of the *Evening Standard* numbered 88, and in March 1952, 114. The *Daily Express* had an editorial staff of 231 persons (including junior staff) in July 1939, and 264 in 1952. The corresponding figures for the *News*

Chronicle were 253 and 319, and for the *Star*, 134 and 191. This increase can be partly attributed to the adoption of the five-day week; it should be also noted, however, that British newspapers still contain fewer pages than they did before the war. It would therefore seem that newspaper offices need a larger number of journalists than in the past.

THE ATTITUDE OF PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Professional organizations, for their part, have taken the view that good training for journalists would justify salary adjustments and an improvement in standards of living.

There is general agreement among newspaper publishers and professional journalists' organizations that all forms of government intervention should be avoided; hence the preference of these bodies for schools or departments of journalism attached to universities which enjoy undisputed intellectual independence. As an alternative, they have, in some cases, combined forces and set up schools of their own.

This has been the case, for instance, in Belgium, Great Britain, and Norway. In such schools of journalism, the syllabuses are drawn up independently or in co-operation with professional press organizations. In many cases, the same may be said of the schools or departments of journalism attached to universities. Nevertheless, there are universities which do little or nothing about the training of journalists, but concentrate rather on studies of the history of the press, its position and influence in public affairs, and other more academic problems. Sometimes, again, journalism is studied and taught in relation to the propagation of an ideology.

THE ROLE OF SCHOOLS OF JOURNALISM

A study of the syllabuses of schools of journalism shows that about 75 per cent of the courses consist of general background instruction.

At the outset, it was difficult to find books on journalism, and still more difficult to find capable teachers. It should be remembered, however, that professional organizations even then laid emphasis, as they still do today, on the need for a good general background. From this point of view, universities offer a wide variety of courses, and even those which are only relatively useful from the point of view of practical journalism may be said to develop the mind and teach students to view situations and problems from every angle.

The disproportion between general background courses and courses in journalism proper is not of great importance if the studies are spread over a sufficient number of years, as is

generally the case in the United States of America, where students spend from four to six years at a university. The same is not true in Europe, however, where courses in journalism usually last two years. In practice, this is liable to produce specialists for newspaper work, that is to say, graduates with a very thorough knowledge of a certain branch of learning who, in addition, have picked up some idea of journalism; so that, while they will be capable of reporting on economic, financial, legal or international questions, they will be at a loss if they are ever called upon to work outside their own particular field.

Although it is important that newspapers should have experts for their various specialized sections, it is nevertheless a fact that news flows into newspaper offices every day, twenty-four hours a day, and that it sometimes has to be reproduced in the newspaper at relatively short notice. The editorial staff must therefore be able to appreciate the importance of the various news items and present them to their readers in an intelligible form.

University graduates take longer to adapt themselves to the discipline of newspaper offices. Faced with special subjects which they have often never heard of, and assignments which sometimes strike them as very strange, they wonder what use their academic training can be. Yet experience has shown that most of them are successful in carving out a place for themselves, and that those who are really gifted immediately take to a profession in which the possession of a diploma may be an excellent recommendation, but in which a flair for reporting and sound practical results are the real stepping-stones to success.

The syllabuses of certain schools of journalism include, for example, courses in forensic medicine; these courses are obviously not intended to teach student-journalists how to conduct a post-mortem examination, but are designed primarily to enable them to understand and explain the meaning of the technical terms which they will come across in law reports. The same is true of courses in music, when the purpose is not to train composers, or courses in stock exchange transactions, when there is no idea of training speculators.

Similar methods might well be more generally adopted. Bare information is boring to readers. What they want is an interpretation of the news. It is the business of the journalist to meet that desire, and at the same time to help raise general intellectual standards. He must also make sure that his interpretation is a true one and that his comments are clearly distinct from the facts themselves. This problem has been brought up by Mr. Lester Markel, Editor of the Sunday edition of the *New York Times* and Founder-President of the International Press Institute, and was mentioned again in November 1954, at the meeting organized at Tampa (Florida) by the Associated

Press. It is a problem which must be dealt with by editors in the day-to-day work of agencies and newspapers, but there is no reason why it should not be given some attention in schools of journalism as well.

THE COMPLEXITY OF NEWS SERVICES IN THE MODERN WORLD

In recent years, the press has placed even greater emphasis on general information than it did after the first world war. The problems of interest to the general public have increased in number and complexity. Between the two wars, to take only one field of information, people interested in international organization had only to keep up with the work of the League of Nations, the activities of the International Labour Office and the question of German reparations, the last-mentioned being a problem with both political and economic implications. Today, the activities of the United Nations cover a far broader field. The range of Unesco's work is wider than that of the old International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations. We have seen, successively in recent years the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (UNRRA), the Marshall Plan, the Mutual Security Agency, and the Organization for European Economic Co-operation. There are also the North Atlantic Treaty Organization and the offshore purchase scheme, the Council of Europe, the European Coal and Steel Community and the Western European Union, all of which raise a wide variety of difficult problems. In addition, there are the problems concerning atomic energy, which will come increasingly to the fore as work connected with the peaceful uses of atomic energy progresses.

In all these fields, in addition to real specialists capable of a critical and truly scientific approach, the staff of every newspaper must include several members sufficiently familiar with all these different questions to be able to present news accurately and in a way which will be readily understood. Journalists have to learn a great many things that their secondary education has not taught them, and the field to be covered is too wide for them to make a thorough study of each subject by following an appropriate university course.

ADVANCED STUDY AND REFRESHER COURSES SPONSORED BY THE PRESS

The International Press Institute, like some of its national committees, has already organized meetings of journalists belonging to neighbouring countries with the object of studying the kind of information on events in one country given in the newspapers of another. Several such meetings of French and

German journalists, for instance, have been arranged. The discussions at these meetings, confined at the outset to purely professional questions, were finally extended to include the psychological and political aspects of Franco-German relations, though no attempt was made to suggest solutions and, still less, to impose them. A similar meeting organized between journalists of the United States of America and Great Britain yielded satisfactory results, and a conference of newspaper publishers and editors belonging to Asian countries where the press is not subject to government control, was held in Tokyo. A meeting of Indonesian and Dutch editors was held in Zürich. Mention should also be made of the American Press Institute's seminars and the international seminar organized by Harvard University.

Furthermore, the International Press Institute is conducting a study, from the journalistic point of view, of the question of free access to information and the transmission of news, while the International Federation of Newspaper Publishers, Proprietors and Editors is considering the same problem from the point of view of transmission costs, which was also the subject of Francis Williams' report, *Transmitting World News*, published by Unesco.

The problem of newsprint, studied by the research services of *The Economist* of London, and the subject of a joint report by Unesco and FAO,[1] has been discussed at each meeting of the International Federation of Newspaper Publishers, Proprietors and Editors. This problem also concerns the International Press Institute, since the organization of editorial services depends upon the number of pages in a newspaper, while the International Federation of Journalists has to think of the future prospects of members of the profession.

The problems involved in the printing of newspapers and their economic management deserve more thorough study. New techniques should enable many improvements to be made on the editorial side, while the economic situation of the press closely affects the independence of newspapers and journalists alike.

As far as the professional training of journalists is concerned, much still remains to be done. Reporting is often entrusted to a regular team, which travels to carry out investigations and attends the big international conferences and meetings, but is not present in the office to help the editorial staff when ordinary news about the current activities of international institutions comes in. If the newspaper subscribes to several press agency services, it receives different versions of the same news and it is the business of the editor who stays in the office to compare them and to extract the essential points. To do this efficiently, he must be familiar with the way in which these

1. *Paper for Printing, Today and Tomorrow*, Paris, Unesco, 1953.

institutions work. Visits should therefore be organized (during slack periods) to provide information for office-bound journalists, and arrangements should be made for similar facilities for students attending schools of journalism, on the lines of the United Nations seminar organized by the International Press Institute in 1955.

If newspapers are to make an effective contribution to international understanding, their staff should be given an opportunity to get to know and to understand the situation in the different countries and to learn how countries react. Foreign news of secondary importance is often presented in a sensational manner because the journalist responsible does not understand that things are relative and attributes to events the significance they would have were they to occur in the country in which the newspaper is published.

This is particularly true of news on parliamentary procedure and practices. Misunderstandings may arise because identical words have different meanings. They may occur between countries speaking the same language, such as Great Britain and the United States of America, or between the Netherlands and France, on the one hand, and Belgium on the other, where the two official languages are French and Dutch. Classic examples are the differences in meaning between 'to table' in Great Britain and the same expression in the United States of America, or between 'to control' and 'to demand' in English and 'controler' and 'demander' in French. The difference of meaning between 'institut' in French and 'institute' in English may be responsible for lengthy and fruitless discussions. A study of cases of this kind might well be recommended. It would be of practical help to all those whose business it is to present and comment on news.

Without freedom of opinion, the press would have little reason for existence. It is therefore essential to oppose any measures liable to transform journalism into a government service or to prohibit access to the profession, for that would be the first step towards control. This does not mean that newspapers and journalists claim arbitrary powers. In Great Britain, for instance, the General Council of the Press (which consists of representatives of publishers and journalists), while firmly maintaining the independence of the press and defending it against unjustified and frivolous attacks, has unhesitatingly condemned improper journalistic practices. Its condemnation carries all the more weight because it is not subject to any governmental control.

CO-OPERATIVE MEASURES FOR THE PROVISION OF TRAINING FACILITIES FOR JOURNALISTS

From 23 to 25 May 1953, a congress was convened by the Institute of Press Science, attached to Amsterdam University. The congress adopted a statement in which attention was drawn to certain points appearing to apply to several countries:

'The closest possible relations should be maintained between universities, journalists' training schools, centres for research on press science and the press itself.

'With regard to training schools for journalists

'(a) It is in the interests of schools of journalism that their syllabuses should be supplemented by a general university training and, in particular, that they should establish close contact with faculties or institutes of political and social science.

'(b) The profession itself (publishers and journalists) should co-operate, particularly in the technical part of the training.

'(c) Although attendance at a school of journalism should not be compulsory for entry to the profession, which must remain free, the directors of newspapers should nevertheless give preference to young students trained by such schools.'

'With regard to research centres

'The scientific study of the press, preferably in institutes that are closely connected with universities, should be encouraged.'

The Congress then drew up a draft programme for practical international co-operation between research organizations.

A formal request was made to Unesco for assistance in carrying out the work thus outlined, namely: (a) Development of closer relations between journalists' training centres and the press; (b) supplementing of syllabuses; (c) extension of the scope of research to cover all media of communication affecting public opinion.

The international meeting of experts convened by Unesco in April 1956 was in line with the recommendations of the Amsterdam congress, which met with widespread approval. The various consultations which have been going on since the Amsterdam congress will, of course, lead to some revision and amendment of the plans. Some interesting observations were noted during the congress itself. In the course of the discussions, the chairman, Professor K. Baschwitz, expressed the view that it would not be a desirable state of affairs if all the members of a newspaper's editorial staff were university graduates, particularly as the press, as it is constituted at present, would be unable to use them all or to pay them appropriate salaries. Similarly, the chairman also remarked, it would not be a good

thing if every student of press science were to become a practising journalist. Mr. Claude Bellanger, the Secretary-General of the International Federation of Newspaper Publishers, Proprietors and Editors, pointed out that journalists who have learnt their trade 'on the job' are not necessarily the worst, and that the value of their intelligence and experience is by no means negligible.

Any action which would, in practice, restrict entry to the profession to those who have been trained in schools of journalism would be doomed to failure in those countries where the concept of freedom of the press corresponds to that accepted by the members of the International Federation of Newspaper Publishers, Proprietors and Editors, the International Press Institute and the International Federation of Journalists. These two latter organizations have included an identical definition of that concept in their statutes: freedom to obtain information, freedom of opinion and comment, and freedom to disseminate information. The consequence is that, in such countries, the press expects voluntarily to shoulder its own responsibilities, in the spirit of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and to maintain its freedom of action, thus implying the acceptance of differing opinions and hence the preservation of the individuality of newspapers and journalists.

It should be realized that the press and other information media will have to make a great effort to maintain their influence and accomplish their educational task successfully. Any devices simply employed with the object of attracting attention will finally become monotonous. To give the same news and present it in the same way, as is becoming the rule with newspapers belonging to the same chain, is likely to weary the public and to destroy the bonds of interest and affection which should exist between any reader and 'his' paper. This danger is increasing with the introduction of teletypesetting, excellent as this technique may be as a means of reducing newspaper production costs. Not only are stock exchange rates and radio and television programmes supplied to newspapers in teletypesetting, but already in certain countries agency messages are received on perforated tape which can be inserted immediately into the linotype machines. If those responsible for the press take the line of least resistance and allow themselves to be tempted by such easy methods of economizing, the newspapers of a whole country — or even of a group of countries with a common language — will become to a large extent standardized and readers will finally lose interest in them, consulting them only as a source of practical information, just as one consults a railway time-table or a telephone directory.

Certain national schools of journalism have foreseen this danger. They have selected as lecturers journalists with widely differing political opinions and from widely differing newspapers. These lecturers often deal, in their classes, with prob-

lems which have already been treated by their colleagues, but they present these problems in their own way and the students are entirely free to start a discussion and to express opposing views. At national and international levels alike, a standardized form of training is to be avoided, even when the objectives in view are identical.

Reference is often made to the slogan of C. P. Scott, the famous editor of the *Manchester Guardian:* 'Comment is free, but facts are sacred'. What he went on to say should, however, be quoted in full, for it shows that Scott, like his colleagues, was not only claiming a right and laying down a rule, but that he was also aware of the difficulties facing journalists and was advocating a self-imposed discipline. In the article which he published in the *Manchester Guardian* on 5 May 1921, he said: 'Comment is free, but facts are sacred. "Propaganda", so called, by this means is hateful. The voice of opponents no less than that of friends has a right to be heard. Comment also is justly subject to a self-imposed restraint. It is well to be frank; it is even better to be fair. This is an ideal.'

THE SCOPE OF INTERNATIONAL ACTION

The desire to preserve national individuality is no bar to international co-operation. A great journalist of independent views, the late Henry Wickham Steed, was considered in his own country as the official champion of 'continental' Europeans. Yet, though he was always explaining the mentality of other peoples for the benefit of his compatriots and looking at England, so to speak, with the eyes of a foreigner, he himself remained profoundly English.

As was mentioned earlier, several organizations have already taken practical steps to foster international co-operation. The International Press Institute has organized exchanges of journalists between newspapers of countries belonging to the Institute, and the Commonwealth Press Union has been working along the same lines. In addition to exchanges of journalists, the Scandinavian countries are endeavouring to organize joint courses in journalism. The International Federation of Journalists has reached agreement on a 'Statement of the Duties and Obligations of Journalists'.

These achievements were possible because the parties concerned were thinking on similar lines and at the same time acting on their own initiative. Every opportunity should be afforded for the continuation and extension of such activities. This does not preclude the development of international co-operation, provided that the individuality of each participant is respected and that basic principles are not affected.

The International Federation of Newspaper Publishers, Proprietors and Editors (FIEJ), at the meeting of its Executive

Committee in Algiers in November 1955, explained its attitude in the following words:

'The FIEJ desires to recall the principles of freedom to which it is fundamentally attached. Article 2 of its Statutes declares that "the sense of freely accepted personal responsibility which should inspire editors and publishers of newspapers is one of the essential guarantees of the independence of the press".

'This being so, the FIEJ cannot consider collaboration with press organizations which do not recognize the value of these principles and do not consider them as fundamental to their very existence.

'However, since full information is a necessity, the FIEJ hopes that, in cases where such information is not already available, detailed and accurate data may be gathered so as to provide a comprehensive survey of the press in all countries of the world.

'The FIEJ for its part, is willing to support such an exchange of technical information insofar as this does not imply or entail any concession whatsoever on the ideological plane.

'It expresses the hope that an institution such as Unesco might be prepared to compile the appropriate documentation.'

Unesco might also organize exchanges of textbooks on journalism used in the different countries, a comparative study of teaching methods, and a study of teaching aids — such as, for example, the system instituted by the Werner Friedmann Institute in Munich, where news broadcasts have been arranged, at reasonable cost, by means of tape recordings and a loudspeaker.

Schools of journalism might also be supplied with teaching aids such as films showing how a newspaper is produced, or how a big international conference is organized and explaining the part played on such occasions by the representatives of the press, broadcasting services and television and newsreel companies.

The International Federation of Journalists has decided to study the problem of copyright from the angle of news dissemination and the work of journalists. Here again Unesco's assistance will be of the greatest value.

Lastly, Unesco can render great services by giving technical assistance to countries which have no professional training centres of their own or in which the work of schools of journalism is hampered by lack of resources.

Specialized Training for Press, Radio, Television and Films

by WILFRID EGGLESTON,
Director of the Department of Journalism,
Carleton University, Ottawa, Canada;
President of the Canada Foundation

INTRODUCTION

The newspaper is three or four centuries old, and, if one considers the *Acta Diurna* of the Romans, there were journalists long before that. The production of a newspaper has always demanded literate reporters and editors, skilled craftsmen and technicians; some training must have been necessary for the production even of the modest corantos and gazettes of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Nevertheless, the widespread concept that specialized or professional training is essential for successful journalism is a relatively recent idea. It is still not current over large areas of the globe; even in the United States of America, the country which has accepted the idea most thoroughly, the professional training of journalists on an important scale goes back barely fifty years.

Since the newspaper has attained an impressive stature over the centuries without the aid of formal schemes of specialized or professional training, it may be pertinent to ask what are the developments of the past two or three generations which have altered the former situation so materially as to demand a drastically new approach to the training of journalists working in all the mass media. While there is now a widespread and growing conviction that specialized training for the journalist is inescapable, it is by no means universal, and it will do no harm to look searchingly once more at the assumptions on which such a conviction must be based.

It is a truism to say that mass communication has undergone a revolution in the past century. But why? A brief answer is that the society which the press serves has itself been transformed almost beyond recognition in some respects, and that if the press is to continue to play its vital role as a medium of mass information and enlightenment it has to keep up with the constantly evolving challenge. There was a time when a journalist in the more sheltered and static parts of the world, reporting and reflecting on the events of a fairly staid and self-sufficient society, insulated from the shock of affairs in distant parts, might admirably serve his community with a modest literary education and such knowledge of public affairs as any intelligent man might pick up on his beat. Also, before the days of mass education, cheap paper and penny postage,

the newspaper was normally produced for the literate few by one of themselves, one who 'spoke their language'. The problem of reaching the masses had not yet arisen. Technical equipment was still modest and simple.

But the day when a journeyman printer might carry 'an apron full of type' and a hand press into a new settlement and forthwith begin to publish a weekly newspaper has, in most parts of the world, forever disappeared. The technological revolution has changed the whole face of society. The telegraph, the railway, the automobile, the steamship, the aeroplane, radio, television and the motion picture are only the more obvious agents and ferments of drastic change. In the words of a Canadian political scientist: 'To make the most of this world, and exploit its material possibilities to the full, we have created an interdependent society of great complexity.'[1] From these two aspects of interdependence and complexity emerge some of the gravest problems facing the new journalist. Events have vastly increased the size of anyone's effective community, and while this has brought enormous benefits, it has also brought corresponding problems and difficulties. So long as one's community consisted of the persons living within a radius of five or ten miles it may have been possible without too much difficulty to get along without an elaborate machinery of intelligence and interpretation. Each citizen might then have been able to keep an eye on what was happening and to adapt his own behaviour accordingly. But when the bounds of one's effective community are extended to include a country, a continent, or even the whole world, the task of finding out and reporting what is going on can no longer be left to the individual. He must now entrust that job to a specialist, that is to the newspaperman, the reporter, the editor, the broadcaster and the maker of news and documentary films. These specialists must serve as his eyes and ears in respect to all the world beyond his own immediate horizon.

The other aspect is the growing complexity of modern society. How many residents of a great city can any longer, by their own unaided activity, keep abreast even of developments in the council chambers, in the factories and in scientific laboratories within a few yards of their doors? Here again, if the citizen is to know what is occurring, he must entrust the task of digging, selecting and reporting and explaining to an agent. That agent, the journalist, cannot hope to serve the citizen in this brave new world without acquiring new and exacting skills, and an encyclopaedic range of miscellaneous information, a range which might have impressed even Francis Bacon or Leonardo da Vinci. The basic question then is: Can the new attorney for the masses, the journalist, report and interpret this 'interdependent society of great complexity' to

1. Dr. J. A. Corry, President of the Canadian Political Science Association.

his readers and listeners while still employing the training and equipment thought adequate in the days before the technological revolution?

It is, I assume, an underlying conviction of many of us that the answer to this question must be: No. The old limited training or indeed lack of formal training, will no longer serve. Journalism has begun to make on the practitioner a series of professional and technical demands of the most formidable nature. A journalist can hope to meet the new challenge only if new norms of education and training are adopted.

PRESENT TRAINING METHODS FOR JOURNALISTS

First, there is training 'on the job', without any formal scheme or supplementary education formally prescribed — learning by doing. This may be described as the traditional method, and it is still very common, in the newspaper, radio, television, and film-making worlds. It has produced some great journalists in the past, and presumably will continue to do so.

A drawback of this traditional method in the present age of increasing responsibility is the limitation it is likely to impose on the journalist's intellectual development. Any talented young person, trained under this system, becomes an outstandingly capable craftsman. As an accurate and objective reporter of surface facts he may go a very long way. But when the events and situations to be reported become more complex, he may find himself against a wall which has no door, or before a door to which he possesses no key. If the reporter of facts is expected in due course to become an interpreter of facts, he may, unless he is an exceptional person, find himself unable to rise to the challenge. As an editor, he may find himself extraordinarily well informed about the superficialities of his old beats, but without any grasp of the more profound and fundamental facts of his complex environment. The modern journalist must take the whole world, to some extent, as his parish. The apprentice who left school at fourteen may have been able to continue his education while learning on the job, but is there any vocation which makes heavier demands on the time and nervous energy of the individual than that of the ambitious and successful reporter on a metropolitan daily? Or for that matter, in radio or television journalism or in the field of film-making? How many such craftsmen are likely to acquire a wide and deep education in their 'spare' time?

An important recent variant or development of the 'learning on the job' method is that whereby the beginner is not just left to pick up what education he can in such spare time as may be snatched from the demands of his daily work — his employer not only provides a substantial amount of time off for further training and education, but without cost to the trainee

makes educational and training facilities available over a number of years.

Short courses for journalists, instituted under the aegis and direction of professional institutions and schools of journalism, have grown up in a number of countries. They offer valuable background education and advanced training for those journalists who wish to supplement their pre-vocational studies or who feel the need of enriching their educational and technical background. Such courses are still too rare, it may be suggested, to meet more than a small part of the general world need for better education and training in journalism.

At the opposite end of the scale, in a sense, from the purely vocational 'on the job' schemes of training are those university courses — perhaps more common in Europe than anywhere else, though found also in the United States of America — which are devoted to the scientific study of mass communication. These college courses may lead to a Master's or Doctor's degree.

'The press', a term originally confined to printed matter of a journalistic character, but now extended to include radio, television and film, is intensively studied as a factor in history, a current social agency, and an important modern industry. These theoretical studies may range far and penetrate deeply. The value of such academic and professional research is not questioned, but it may be contended that such university courses are far more likely to produce social scientists than working journalists. If the student does not embark upon the practice of journalism until after graduation, he may have by then acquired a scholarly approach, a literary and scientific style, and a passion for thoroughness and penetration, which well qualify him to do valuable academic research, but which may even be a handicap in practising the arts and skills of mass communication. To be able to speak or write for the multitudes is in itself a skill of no mean measure. Scientists seldom learn it. Moreover the expense of such a prolonged course, requiring perhaps six or seven years to the doctorate stage, severely limits the numbers likely to be available for recruitment to the press.

Between these two extremes is a training programme which, taking the world as a whole, is the one most commonly found, and apparently is growing in favour. It requires full time enrolment for a number of years in an institution of higher learning, in a course which offers both theoretical studies and practical exercises. The details vary considerably from institution to institution and from country to country, but in general the course lasts two or three years if it leads up to a diploma, and four or five years if it leads to a university degree. The emphasis in many institutions is upon a good education in the liberal arts, as good in quality and almost as good in quantity, as that obtained by a candidate for the degree in arts or science.

Indeed, the degree is treated in many universities as a variant of the arts or science degree. The student is taught both the theory and practice of journalism, and the exercises in the skills may be as varied, as difficult, and as thorough as actual working assignments on a newspaper or radio or television station. Indeed, regular working assignments on commercial or college publications may be incorporated into the journalistic programme.

Great variation exists in the stress placed on realistic training in the skills, but it seems to be a growing tendency to limit the teaching of technical and literary skills to the fundamentals of communication and the orientation of the student into the atmosphere he will find when he goes out to practise his craft. There appears to be a growing recognition of the fact that, whether a recruit proceeds directly to a newspaper or to some other agency of mass communication from elementary school or from college, there is no substitute for thorough learning of the job on the job. The difference is that graduates of such departments and schools of journalism as those described above should be able to begin learning rapidly and effectively from their first day in the office, since all the essential elements of reporting, writing and editing have been mastered while at college. Thus, they escape the long, painful and sometimes completely frustrating weeks of adjustment faced by recruits who go in quite 'green'.

There is no guarantee, of course, that every graduate of departments and schools of journalism will measure up to such standards. There are a number of ways in which such schools can fail. The expense of completing such a university course may exclude many of the most promising recruits. The quality of the liberal arts education may be inferior, and the standards may be too low, so that the graduate does not even go out with a good education. The subjects themselves may be poorly taught by teachers who themselves know little of the theory and even less of the skills of journalism. In such cases the graduate may be a poorer recruit than a straight arts graduate from a better college; he may have to unlearn much of what he has been taught, before he can make a passable journalist. Much of the time which might have been spent in obtaining a good liberal arts education may prove to have been worse than wasted. And at the age of 22 or 23 a beginner in the news-room may be less adaptable than if he had entered at 15 or 16.

There are many problems to be solved before a satisfactory method of training journalists for today's problems can be evolved. They arise at each stage in the process — in recruitment, in vocational training, in background education, in acceptance by the employers, and in professional indoctrination and professional growth after establishment in the occupation. Some of these problems have already been hinted at.

PROBLEMS OF RECRUITMENT

The adequacy of tomorrow's journalists hinges on the potential quality of today's students. How can the world of journalism see to it that it gets a fair share of the ablest young men and women entering the general stream of employment? How can those with the useful latent gifts and talents be steered into the profession? How can a young man or woman be tested for aptitude and given sage counselling on a career, on whether to train for journalism or turn to some other field?

Once students are enrolled at the beginning of a two- or three-year diploma course, or a four- or five-year degree course, it is usually possible in a few months for instructors to spot likely successes and likely failures and give appropriate counsel. At any rate, if a student lamentably fails in the subjects of general education, he is automatically eliminated. Similarly, if he or she appears to be lacking in language sense or the ability to see, dig and organize, it may be possible, before too much time is wasted, to recommend some other line of work. In this connexion it may be urged that too much stress should not be placed on skill in verbal expression or a fluent literary style. So much of journalism is seeing, digging and organizing, and so common is the division of reporters into 'legmen' and 'rewrite men' that a student of unusual capacity for understanding and collecting facts and opinions need not be discouraged solely because his writing lacks polish or because he is slow in learning the art of writing simple accurate reports. If he is a good investigator there is probably a place for him somewhere.

PROBLEMS IN THE TEACHING OF SKILLS

Part of the problem lies in the difficulty of finding adequate teachers, and another part lies in the cost of technical equipment. Not every teacher of journalism has previously proved himself as a journalist; and not every crack journalist is a skilful teacher. It is easy to draw up desirable qualifications for teachers of journalism, but very difficult to find available people who measure up to such qualifications.

Is it too much to suggest that (a) an effective teacher of journalism is likely to have practised successfully the profession of journalism for a number of years, in its main branches, that (b) he or she has sufficient academic education to appreciate the full value of the background studies, and also to move freely in and be accepted by the faculties of arts and sciences with which he is linked, and, finally, that (c) he has some natural aptitude as a teacher or has been trained in pedagogical methods? It is not too difficult perhaps to find teachers who qualify in the second and third of these qualities, but a success-

ful journalist who also ranks high in the second and third is rarer; and once he has been found, it may be very difficult to lure him away from a profession in which he excels, and which perhaps he finds too fascinating to leave.

Laboratories for students of journalism have much to commend them, but newspaper plants, radio and television stations and film-making units are notoriously expensive to install and operate, and are luxuries beyond the means of most small universities. An acceptable substitute may conceivably be found in a working arrangement with the newspapers, radio stations, etc., in the community, whereby all students serve a short interneship in the medium of their choice. If such an arrangement cannot be made, practical exercises must be improvised on the campus with whatever ingenuity the instructor can muster. Fortunately most of the fundamental skills of the journalist, up to the point where copy is actually printed or sent out on the air, can be taught without expensive or elaborate equipment. The mimeograph and the tape recorder are within the means of the most modest budget. Work on student publications has a more limited value. Far more realistic exercises can usually be contrived by a journalistic instructor without any actual printing or broadcasting. The seeing, digging, selecting, organizing and writing skills can be effectively trained without publishing a daily newspaper or operating a broadcasting station.

SPECIALIZED SKILLS

In the past thirty-five or forty years the range of the skills employed in the world of journalism has been materially widened. Radio, television and the film are still being principally employed to provide entertainment and education. Nevertheless a substantial and increasing emphasis is being placed on audio-visual journalism.

The content of journalism has not thereby been materially changed. No matter what the medium, the coverage of news, and the research and reflection necessary to provide interpretation, background and comment do not change much with the changing medium. Radio, however, introduced the human voice as an important method of informing and commenting. The use of still pictures, graphs, maps, and so on had already reached a very high level of technical excellence and was widely used. The use of sequences of pictures and so on introduces new levels of lifelikeness, but does not alter materially the content of journalistic communication. The public is still, as before, hungry for news and for explanation of the news. The new media make it possible for journalists to provide the food for such hunger in a more varied and sometimes more effective way than ever before.

The effect on journalistic programmes in schools has already been considerable and will increase. Writing for the ear must take into consideration the physical, physiological and psychological differences between that and the preparation of a printed text. The modern journalist should be trained in oral as well as written communication. The news story structure, the diction, the syntax, the rhythm, are different. Enunciation, articulation and emphasis take the place of typography and punctuation. Each medium has its peculiar strengths and inadequacies. The aspiring journalist should be thoroughly aware of these peculiarities, so that he can use the various media with a maximum of appropriateness and effectiveness.

As with training for newspaper work, the student of the new media will learn the new skills thoroughly 'on the job', after he is employed. But employers of graduates in journalism will expect the fundamentals of the new skills to have been taught in the class-room.

Students in radio journalism will prepare scripts and get some practice in delivering them. The student of television journalism will assist in covering news events by camera and microphone. The student of film journalism will engage, presumably, in some practical projects as a part of his training.

The high cost of broadcasting and film-making equipment will prevent all but the most wealthy educational institutions from owning and operating modern plants on the campus, just as it precludes them from operating a modern daily newspaper. But practical teachers can be drafted on a part-time basis from the respective industries, and working arrangements with studios will provide most students with some practical experience before graduation.

PROBLEMS OF BACKGROUND EDUCATION

These seem to me relatively clear-out. The department or school of journalism should, wherever possible, be integrated into a first class liberal arts college, whether large or small. If the specialized journalism courses are maintained at a high cultural level, and the teachers of journalism are scholars as well as craftsmen, the department of journalism should fit without embarrassment into the liberal arts faculty. The students in journalism may be accepted as a special category of arts candidates, majoring in the field of mass communication, and having no more 'trade school' characteristics than students in, say, engineering or law or medicine.

PROBLEMS OF ACCEPTANCE BY EMPLOYERS

No matter how satisfactory the training programme may appear to be up to the point of graduation, it still fails if the graduate is rejected by the mass communication employers — the newspaper, radio, television or film world.

The history of training for journalism in a number of countries suggests that this is one of the more formidable obstacles to be surmounted. The idea that journalism can be learned at school or college is still denied by many publishers and editors. In a very important sense, of course, they are right. The graduate of a school or department of journalism is not yet a trained journalist, and he cannot become such until he has spent years in the profession. He must still begin at the bottom of the ladder, but his ascent will be more rapid and more prolonged than that of most untrained recruits. What formal training courses must establish to the satisfaction of the employer is that the graduate is a more useful and potentially more promising recruit than one who comes without a combination of professional and academic preparation for the task.

How long, in any country which introduces specialized pre-employment training in journalism, it will take to win over the industry will depend on the quality of the graduates. The prejudice against the schools begins to break down as soon as a few graduates have begun to demonstrate that they make good journalists. If an employer is pleasantly surprised with a graduate of a journalistic course he is likely to engage another. As graduates of schools of journalism rise to the position of junior executives, they are likely to favour employing graduates of similar courses to their own. When, as has happened in North America, numerous graduates of schools of journalism become managing editors and publishers, the prejudice against the products of schools like their own fades away.

This course of events, however, can be halted by a group of inferior graduates from such schools. It is of particular importance that the pioneer waves of graduates in journalism should be carefully selected, well educated, and realistically trained. In Canada, for instance, it was a fortuitous circumstance, of a highly favourable kind, that the first generations of graduates in journalism were almost all World War II veterans — mature, earnest, and with an unusually rich background of experience and travel.

Those training courses introduced largely through the initiative of the newspaper industry itself are obviously not likely to meet with serious opposition from the employers; it may be regarded as a highly desirable objective in setting up new courses of training for journalists to seek in advance the co-operation of executives and publishers. Many schools and departments of journalism appoint an advisory or associate committee of working journalists, owners or publishers, to meet

occasionally with the teaching faculty to consider common problems in the training of aspiring journalists.

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT

Some suggestions for improvement of the present situation can be inferred from certain of the assertions or speculations advanced above. Specifically, these may be supplemented by a few concrete suggestions.

1. Steps can be taken to attract more and abler student candidates into training programmes. The profession can be made more attractive financially. Its prestige can be raised by professional associations. One indirect factor making for a higher status is, of course, a general rise in the level of public education, and an increasing public awareness of the valuable and indeed indispensable role played in our modern interdependent society by the honest, accurate, intelligent reporter and the conscientious enterprising editor and publisher.
2. More money should be spent on scholarships and fellowships to assist students of limited means to get to the best schools of journalism. Fellowships and bursaries for working newspapermen should also be increased to provide more 'sabbatical' years and opportunities to travel and study in other countries.
3. The problem of finding able teachers of journalism could be met over the years by a programme which would combine the merits of the Nieman Fellowships with a system of 'teaching fellows' at the larger and more important schools of journalism, especially those connected with famous universities. Working journalists interested in doing some work as teachers might be given the necessary financial aid to enable them to study at such a university for a year, it being understood that a portion of their time, perhaps one-fifth or one-quarter, would be spent in teaching journalism at the school of journalism situated within that university; with the remainder of their time they would be free to study as they chose. Over the years such a scheme would almost certainly provide a corps of experienced journalist-teachers who would meet all the requirements for posts of the kind outlined above.
4. If training schools for journalism are to serve the modern world adequately, more attention will have to be given to audio-visual instruction. An extension of the philosophy of communication to radio, television and films will be required. The future graduate in journalism will be better prepared for his career if he has mastered at least some of the fundamental skills used in oral communication and the use of combined aural and visual methods as in tele-

vision and film. Future teachers of journalism should be well informed as to the relative strengths and inadequacies of the various media, and be able to teach the elements of all. Future schools of journalism will, for the most part, find it necessary to obtain a working arrangement with nearby broadcasting stations and film studios so that a certain amount of realistic apprenticeship for students can be arranged.

5. National or international institutes for raising the level of journalism might be aided by private industry or by government funds. Provision to enable outstanding journalists to lecture for brief periods at schools and departments of journalism might be made.

Training Teachers of Journalism

by M. Chalapathi Rau,
Editor, *National Herald*, Lucknow, India.

A RAPID SURVEY

There are now few countries with a well-developed press where an effort has not been made to establish training in journalism. One of the outstanding features of programmes for education in journalism is extremely rapid growth.

The uneven development of training in journalism is seen in the fact that while approximately 645 programmes were being offered by institutions of higher learning throughout the world in 1952-53, about 550 of them were in the United States of America and only 95 in all other countries. If all institutions offering education for journalism in the U.S.A. were counted, and not merely those which have departments of journalism at accredited universities and colleges offering a four-year programme in the subject, the U.S.A. would seem to hold an even more predominant position. This lack of balance reflects the general development of the press but it also shows the unequal interest taken in the training of journalists. However, it is natural that where formal courses in journalism have only recently been established, they should still be largely experimental.

In professional practice, it seems that one of the best solutions hitherto adopted is that of training in the workshop. The natural writer and news-getter can fulfil at least most of his functions without special training. But the very character of the profession of journalism is changing; its background is changing and expanding. Journalism is becoming more

utilitarian and less literary. Even its literary form and content are changing. Consequently, training is necessary to fit men into the profession and to answer its complex needs. It is also necessary to make the profession fit into the social scene.

It takes time to produce results. To produce competent teachers takes even longer and is even more difficult. The schools and departments of journalism in the U.S.A. are known to be remarkably well equipped in this respect and many have extensive printing plants at their disposal. But even there it is increasingly being recognized that not merely is training necessary for recruits, but that education programmes, research and teaching methods also require periodical reorientation.

PRESENT INADEQUACIES

The time has now come for some authoritative and systematic assessment to be made, not only of present standards and conditions in journalistic education, but also of its shortcomings, since an awareness of existing imperfections is essential if a sound system of training for both students and teachers of journalism is to be developed in the future.

The formal training of journalists must win a place of respect for itself. It must go beyond the experimental stage and become an accepted part of an integrated educational system. Up to the present time, courses have been allowed to develop in a haphazard manner, at the mercy of such factors as university accommodation, the demands of the organized press or the scope of the employment market, without relation either to existing social requirements or to the basic tenets of journalistic practice. Exchanges of experience have remained largely within the confines of national boundaries. There has been some effort toward mechanical standardization but no real attempt has yet been made to set up standards for journalistic education as a basis for the achievement of high professional standards in practice. The literature of journalistic theory and practice must be added to. Research has mainly been carried out hitherto on a national scale only and has yielded only limited result. There have not been enough books, especially books applicable to conditions in many parts of the world.

A serious defect in journalistic education as it has developed in recent years is a certain lack of integration of theory and practice. The teacher's experience, once he starts teaching, is often divorced from the practice of journalism and becomes confined to the laboratory. Moreover, teachers are generally the products of schools. There is no exchange between experience and theory, between the newspaper and the school of journalism, between broadcasting and broadcasting instructors. Advanced teaching experience should go hand in hand with greater practical experience.

If the teaching of journalism is to be considered worth while, the teachers themselves must be trained like all other teachers, particularly in view of the degree of specialization involved. There should be frequent exchanges of experience among the different schools of journalism.

It is expected of teachers of journalism that their experience should be large and varied, even in the case of specialists, and that where their experience is limited, it should be enlarged. They should possess a wide range of professional and technical national and international experience.

The need for teachers of journalism will be more obvious in some areas than in others. In areas not well served with training facilities for journalists, the present number and circulation of newspapers and per capita consumption of newsprint and the present proportion of broadcasting receivers to the total population reveal vast possibilities for the expansion of the press, radio and other means of mass communication. These are the areas where teachers are particularly needed either immediately or in the foreseeable future. So far the conditions which could produce teachers with adequate experience and aptitude have been lacking. Here then is a field where the training of teachers of journalism should be promptly encouraged. The supply, of course, will have to be measured by the demand.

POSSIBLE IMPROVEMENTS

For a short-term programme, two courses of action seem open: (a) Teachers must primarily come from the journalistic professions, but if they are to be turned into good teachers they need more than professional techniques; above all they should know how to teach. (b) Teachers may also come from schools but should be given facilities for acquiring practical experience.

The basic qualification for those who come directly from the profession should be at least ten years' actual experience in any of the spheres of journalism. Training programmes may comprise: study visits to leading institutes of other countries where journalism is taught, refresher courses conducted on an international or regional basis, seminars, exchanges on a wide basis, scholarships and fellowships. The training courses should consist of higher training in the various journalistic skills, study of international affairs and the sociology of the press, study in research methods, study of communications and mass observation methods.

For those who are already teachers but who wish to gain advanced practical experience, the training programme may comprise: workshop experience on a newspaper, in a radio station, etc., workshop experience at selected centres abroad, seminars and refresher courses, professional orientation with

the co-operation of professional bodies, scholarships and fellowships. The training course should consist of: handling responsible work at higher levels, public relations work on newspapers and at radio centres, study of research methods, study of international affairs and the sociology of the press, study of communications and mass observation methods.

However, the need for an international starting point is obvious. Journalism instruction should not differ widely as regards qualifications, purposes, methods and results within any given country. It should not and need not differ widely between countries.

International or regional centres would be common pools of experience. They would help to establish and maintain standards, and would facilitate international action to meet particular needs in particular areas, especially with regard to the training of teachers.

Principles for the Training of Journalists

by Troels Fink,
Head, School of Journalism,
University of Aarhus, Denmark

INTRODUCTION

The training of journalists has developed in quite different ways in the United States of America and in Europe. An academic tradition has for more than a generation been established in the American schools of journalism, many of which are attached to universities. In Europe only a few countries have an academic tradition for the training of journalists — until recently the training of journalists has been largely a matter of learning by practical experience, of trial and error. Many highly qualified European journalists have of course followed university studies, but in law, economics, the arts, etc.

More recently, the need for properly organized special training for journalists has been felt in many European countries. Provision has been made for some form of elementary training in special schools connected with universities or established by the press organizations. In some cases universities and press organizations have co-operated in setting up schools of journalism. This is the case in Denmark, for example, where the press organizations and the University of Aarhus have organized courses for journalists both at elementary and advanced levels.

In this paper attention will be concentrated on training in Europe, and much of what follows will be based in particular on the experience gained in the conduct of courses in journalism at the University of Aarhus.

BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

In organizing a scheme for journalistic training it is worth considering whether schools of journalism are to prepare prospective journalists immediately after they leave their ordinary schools, or whether it is more important to provide further education for journalists who have already spent some years as members of an editorial staff. In the latter case, a natural selection has — at least to a certain degree — already taken place before special instruction begins.

In Aarhus, for example, two years' practical work is a prerequisite for admission to the elementary course in journalism and most participants have three years' practical training behind them. Experience has shown that this principle works well. Much time is saved because the students already have a working knowledge of journalism and are therefore able to discuss the matters dealt with in the lectures. Admission to the advanced course is not granted until one year after completion of the elementary course or after six years' practical work on an editorial staff.

ADVANCED TRAINING

While the training of journalists at the elementary level necessarily covers a range of subjects in general culture and practical journalism, training at the advanced level may be more concentrated and intense. Here, a probing study of the very basis of journalistic work, the gathering and presentation of news, is most important. The treatment of news is only one aspect of journalism; but all journalists should enrich their experience by a close and detailed study of the sources of news and their relative reliability as well as of news presentation at different stages.

Again, at the advanced level it is possible to combine a close study of the nature of news with a study of the main political, economic, social and cultural factors in contemporary life. Such a study may be related in part both to current news and to world affairs. By collecting news and analysing events, the students obtain at the same time material which, together with data from other sources, may be used for writing up actual newspaper articles. A series of articles written by a number of students may cover many aspects of an important topic. Such work should therefore be planned with care. Students may be given papers

to prepare in order to study and present the necessary background, and lectures can outline general trends against a wider setting.

This form of instruction rather resembles the work of normal university seminars. Papers or articles are distributed in mimeographed form to each student who is thus given a sound basis for discussion. The teacher offers criticism of the way in which news has been treated and leads discussions on the actual content of the stories. He also goes into the question of language and style. In the same way, domestic politics, economics, problems of social welfare and other subjects may be studied. In each case the work should be based on material such as is normally dealt with in a newspaper office, whether it be news items, reports or other data.

There should also be an opportunity of analysing journalistic material from a linguistic point of view. This is of very great value, because it gives journalists an opportunity to acquire precise knowledge of the ways in which journalistic objectives are attained through the means of language. The science of semantics is especially useful for journalists when its methods are demonstrated on actual journalistic material or when the journalists are trained in analysing their own language.

The ethics of journalism is another subject of advanced training. Here too, demonstration of ethical problems in the practical work of the journalist is to be recommended.

EDUCATION AND PRACTICE

Editorial archives are necessary for this kind of study and practical work. Many newspapers of course have their own archives, consisting mostly of press cuttings from different papers. For training courses, the material may be supplemented with cuttings from news agency material. For work must always be based on the 'raw material' usually available to the journalist. Thus teaching is brought as near as possible to daily work at the editorial desk. A comparison of the news as it emanates from the different agencies may lead to interesting results. It may be of value, too, to compare the way in which the same news is treated by different journalists or in different newspapers. Such comparisons may include discussions on how — and for what reasons — certain news items are stressed in some newspapers and neglected in others. With the help of archives and handbooks, exercises may be made in checking news for its accuracy. A good reference library, especially suited for journalistic purpose, is therefore of immense importance in any establishment for the training of journalists.

A close study of news stories and current events is also of scientific interest, for they may be used as material for a study of contemporary history and of the problems concerning the

flow of news, both from a quantitative and a qualitative point of view.

Nevertheless, a clear distinction must be made between the journalistic approach and the scientific approach to news. Journalistic studies, even at an advanced level, have mainly a practical purpose, i.e., they are intended to help journalists acquire a better understanding of their work and to accustom them to carry it out with greater precision and a broader knowledge of the factors involved.

Training courses must, however, not be exclusively devoted to exercises of this kind. To cover a variety of topics in different fields, lectures and discussions on subjects of general culture and on different press problems should be arranged. Such lectures must be of an academic standard; they may cover more specific subjects than are generally discussed in elementary courses. Different aspects of history, international relations, political science, literature, etc., may be chosen. A thorough discussion of a well-defined, limited subject is preferable to a more general, superficial survey.

THE TEACHER'S QUALIFICATIONS

From the above-mentioned considerations it follows that the advanced training of journalists requires teachers with an academic education and scientific training. In order to conduct seminars and study groups satisfactorily on a higher level, the teachers and instructors themselves need to be trained in conducting independent studies in the fields covered in the courses for which they are responsible.

In any training scheme to which the preceding remarks apply, co-operation between special schools for journalists and the universities must be assumed. The universities have a first-rate role to fulfil with regard to two main requirements: (a) the education of teachers for schools of journalism, and (b) the organization of research work on information questions.

Teachers of journalism will usually acquire their education at ordinary university faculties. However, it might also be of importance to organize special courses for teachers on an international basis.

TRAINING AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

Scientific research concerning the press and the other information media is usually also carried out at university level, if only because the press is a social phenomenon of great and acknowledged importance. Press studies can be carried out from different aspects: sociological, historical, economic, linguistic, etc. At many universities, various studies of this kind are

already in progress, and many institutes have been established for this purpose. Very often, research results provide the basis for teaching at schools of journalism. Research subjects of this nature are for example: the structure of the press; the history of the press; the economics of newspapers; the political influence of the press; the shaping of public opinion.

EDUCATION FOR SPECIALIZED JOURNALISM

In the rather specialized fields of literary or artistic reviewing and criticism, journalists may derive advantage from university courses in art, music, drama and film. In the courses of general journalism, such specialized aspects can only be presented in a general way, supplemented by a few exercises. But there would seem to be a need for special university courses for journalists particularly interested in these subjects. There might also be courses on radio and television reviewing; many universities, however, will as yet hardly be able to offer any help in this respect, because these subjects are usually not yet considered on the same footing as scientific disciplines.

Comparative Analysis of Recent Curricula Trends of International Significance

by Norval Neil Luxon, Ph.D.,
Dean, School of Journalism,
The University of North Carolina,
Chapel Hill, U.S.A.

INTRODUCTION

Journalistic education is of very recent origin. Isolated courses in journalism were offered in both German and American universities in the nineteenth century, but the first formalized academic programme leading to a degree in journalism dates only from 1908, at the University of Missouri. This fact must be kept in mind, for while modern education for law, medicine, and theology has benefited from centuries of experience and experimenting in various methods, schools of journalism, in operation for less than half a century, do not have the advantage of this long tutelage and advisory supervision. As a matter of fact, there are still editors who hold to the outmoded belief that

a newspaper office is the best if not the only place to learn newspaper work.

Nevertheless, there is general agreement that the journalist of today and tomorrow must be better educated than the journalist of the past if the communication media are to fulfil their functions and meet their responsibilities. To ensure this end, schools of journalism undertake to provide three elements: (a) a basic liberal education; (b) an understanding of the responsibilities of a free press in a democratic society; (c) a fundamental knowledge of journalistic techniques. That these objectives are listed in the order of their importance is obvious. A knowledge of journalistic skills is of little benefit to society if he who acquires them does not comprehend his responsibilities to todays complex society; only a broadly educated man can conceive this essential understanding.

EARLY STUDY PROGRAMMES

In the first professional schools of journalism the original emphasis was on the practical aspects of newspaper work. The first comprehensive analysis of the curricula for journalism, based on 1926-27 offerings,[1] shows that the number of courses available was small, and, as there were few textbooks, the nature of the courses varied from school to school according to the newspaper experience and personalities of the professors, who were newspapermen utilizing empirical methods entirely. This early journalistic training, sketchy as it may have been in some instances, had the advantage of being offered on the campuses of great universities, where the students were required to enrol in background courses in the older disciplines of history, political science, English, economics, psychology, and sociology.

PRESENT TRENDS

The chief trend noted between the mid-twenties and mid-thirties was the addition of courses on journalism in relation to contemporary affairs, public opinion, the foreign press, and comparative journalism. Today, the goal is a well-rounded professional education, with a thorough grounding in the social and behavioural sciences and above all the development in the prospective journalist of a strong sense of social responsibility so that he may understand the role of the press in today's society. The specific curricular trends leading toward the goals in the teaching of journalism are indicated in the following sections.

1. See V. Nash, *What is Taught in Schools of Journalism* (the full citation for this and succeeding footnotes will be found in the bibliography at the end of the article.

More Courses of International Interest

No literate nation today can afford to be ignorant of the political, social, and economic developments in sister nations. It is this fact which has prompted newspapers and news services to expand their facilities greatly in the gathering and dissemination of international news. Concomitantly, the schools of journalism, as suppliers of manpower to the communications media, have expanded their curricula to include courses acquainting students with the problems encountered in such journalistic activities. It must be noted here that while this development is desirable, schools of journalism have a responsibility, when they offer such courses, to staff them with instructors who are well qualified in this specific, specialized work of mass communication. There has been a tendency to add these courses and then to entrust them to staff members with no actual international experience or, in extreme cases, to teachers who have not even pursued graduate study in the subjects concerned.

Courses on the Social Impact of Information

Curricula of professional schools of journalism now include an increased number of courses in which the social effects of mass communication are studied, such as 'Functions and Responsibilities of Contemporary Journalism', 'Journalism in a Democratic Society', 'Press in a Dynamic Society'. These broadly conceived courses are designed to awaken in the student's mind an awareness of the role of the mass communication media today. Dr. Ralph D. Casey, Director of the School of Journalism at the University of Minnesota, has pointed out that journalism teachers have the responsibility to make clear to their students the effects and consequences implicitly involved in the transmission of news to the public.[1] It is this awareness of consequences that develops a sense of responsibility in those who enter the profession of journalism. In turn, those who teach these courses must be properly prepared, with courage to criticize where criticism is due, the judgement to weight current practices, and the background essential to a well-balanced presentation of often highly controversial subject matter.

A Broader Background to Education

In the better schools of journalism the tendency now is to limit the number of courses a student may take while taking his Bachelor's degree, thus releasing more of his time for course work in the background subjects of the sciences, humanities,

1. See R. D. Casey, 'Teachers, Editors and the Communication Art', in *Journalism quarterly.*

and social sciences which are requisite to a broad general education. At the University of North Carolina, for example, not more than 20 per cent of the minimum 120 hours required for graduation may be taken in the School of Journalism (expect under special petition, and then the figure may not exceed 25 per cent).

The Development of Graduate Study

The fourth trend comes as a result of the third, namely toward more work on the graduate (M.A. and Ph.D.) level. Thirty years ago graduate training in journalism in the United States of America was almost non-existent. Only a few schools offered graduate courses. In 1956, 30 of the 38 institutions holding membership in the American Association of Schools and Departments of Journalism reported a graduate enrolment of 599 in the autumn semester, and 10 out of 57 other institutions listed 68 candidates for the M.A.

It may be pointed out here that these totals do not include 70 students at the Pulitzer Graduate School of Journalism at Columbia and 25 students enrolled in the Graduate Department of Journalism at the University of California at Los Angeles, because such students are classified as 'first professional degree' students rather than graduate students. Their Bachelor's degrees were earned in other disciplines.

This trend toward graduate work was inevitable. With the growing complexities in the mass communication field, with new media being developed, with increasing demands for professionally trained personnel, and with specialization and concentration inescapable concomitants of the ever-widening body of subject matter peculiar to the profession, the development of graduate programmes in journalism was necessary to guarantee adequately trained personnel.

The growth of graduate work is an indication that the value of investigation, analysis, and evaluation of the press in particular and the communication field in general has been recognized not only by teachers of journalism but also by university administrators, newspaper editors and publishers, broadcasting officials, advertising executives, marketing specialists, governmental agency heads, motion-picture and television producers, and politicians. Its continued development in co-operation with cognate disciplines is inevitable at a time when all media of communication, old and new, are being studied with a view toward increased usefulness in times of peace of war.[1]

As newspaper publishing problems multiply and as the newer media pay increased attention to the dissemination of news, additional professional training beyond the four-year Bachelor's degree programme becomes essential unless the graduate plans

1. See N. N. Luxon, 'Education for Journalism' in *Education for the Professions.*

to spend his entire career on a small newspaper or in a small radio station.

The undergraduate programme in journalism, except for the basic technical courses, of necessity becomes more generalized and less specialized. Individuals who need and wish to take further professional preparation for careers in the communication field now do so on the graduate level.

Most of the schools of journalism giving graduate work in the U.S.A. do not offer a major beyond the M.A. level. Exceptions are: the University of Missouri, which for years has had a Ph.D. programme in journalism; the University of Minnesota, which recently approved a Ph.D. programme in journalism, interdisciplinary in nature; and the Universities of Illinois and Wisconsin, the State University of Iowa, and Stanford University, all of which offer the Ph.D. degree in communications — an interdisciplinary field in which journalism, economics, history, political science, psychology, sociology, and in some instances other departments of instruction co-operate to a varying extent, depending upon the interests of the individual student.

Most of the teachers of journalism now holding the Ph.D. degree earned that degree in a field other than journalism, such as, for example, history, political science, and mass communication research. However, since World War II an ever-increasing number of teachers in institutions of higher learning have an M.A. in journalism, either as terminal preparation for teaching or as a step toward continuing graduate study in journalism, communications, or other related disciplines.

The Growth of Specialized Research

The fifth trend — the growth of research — in journalism and communications is concurrent and obviously interrelated with the fourth. This trend is of intramural significance in that it has heightened the respect which faculty members in the older disciplines have for journalistic staff members on their campuses. It has changed the attitudes of colleagues from condescension to acceptance and respect as more and more results of research activity have been published. It is of fundamental significance because it signals the coming of age of instruction in journalism not only on college campuses but in service to the newspaper profession — the communications industry. Instruction has been given greater breadth and depth by research.

'Journalism instruction', Dr. Casey pointed out recently, 'can no longer depend alone on the intuitive guesses of former journalism craftsmen who, upon entering teaching ranks, rely too heavily on past personal experience in the use of technical tools and skills. It is good sense to recognize that the instructor has an obligation to plow back into his teachings some synthesis of the important findings developed in the past decade

from systematic and disciplined communications investigations.'[1]

Thus, the best work of trained investigators from schools of journalism bears comparison with the output in communications research of those specializing in the behavioural sciences, notably sociology and psychology, and of specialists in economics, foreign affairs, and government.

Radio and television networks and many of the larger and more successful newspapers recognize the necessity for research. Their plans for the future are based on research results. The professional schools of journalism must keep pace with — and as a matter of policy should lead — various branches of the communications industry with respect to research.

The field is broad. The opportunities are limitless. By its very nature, research in journalism and communications reaches into many related disciplines: cultural anthropology, economics, history, political science, psychology, sociology, to mention only the most obvious. Recently, schools of journalism in several of the great universities in the U.S.A., while continuing to train undergraduates to enter newspaper, magazine, radio and television work, have turned part of their attention to communications research and have established continuing research programmes. In other parts of the world, too, research is assuming increasing importance.

Among the leaders in this field in the U.S.A. are the following: the School of Journalism, University of Minnesota, which has set up its own Research Division with a statistical staff; the Institute of Communications Research at the University of Illinois, allied with the School of Journalism and Communications; the Institute for Communications Research at Stanford University; the School of Journalism at the University of Wisconsin, where the Department of Agricultural Journalism pursues research in its own field; the School of Journalism at the State University of Iowa and the Graduate and Research Division of the School of Journalism at the University of North Carolina where there exist a close working relationship and interlocking staff appointments with the Institute for Research in Social Science.

Discussing the function of the research programme of a school of communication, Dr. Wilbur Schramm, formerly on the staffs at Iowa and Illinois, and now at the Institute for Communications Research, Stanford University, has written that 'The spirit of the school's research will be akin to the spirit of medical research — to bring the latest scientific findings to the profession, and through the profession to be of help to the public.'[2] He listed among the possible services such a research programme might eventually provide the following: (a) readership and readability studies for publications; (b)

1. See R. D. Casey, op. cit.
2. See W. Schramm, 'Education for Journalism: Vocational, General or Professional', in *Journalism quarterly*.

audience studies for radio and television stations; (c) demonstration clinics and short courses for practising journalists; and (d) experimental newspaper editions.

It is my personal belief that research has become an integral part of the programme of the professional school of journalism. Those schools which want to be of optimum use to the profession or industry must build teaching staffs with specialized professional and educational backgrounds which will equip them not only to teach but to carry on research programmes thus enriching their classroom service and at the same time contributing to advances in the ever-widening field of mass communications.

The employment of experienced research workers and teachers of broad general scholarship will add greatly to the cost of journalistic instruction. Such appointments will place heavy burdens on university budgets. This financial problem — the crux of many of our contemporary educational problems — may result in a reduction in the number of schools of journalism offering graduate work and the decision on the part of some university administrations to restrict their programmes to the undergraduate level. Professional education for journalism will benefit thereby. Unquestionably, some of the 52 institutions now offering graduate work in journalism in the U.S.A. do not have staff members qualified to give adequate instruction on that level nor are their administrations likely to allocate sufficient funds to them to obtain qualified teachers.

Training in all Information Media

In the past few years the word 'communications' has come to be substituted for or added to 'journalism' in many course titles and curricula and in the names of many schools, departments, and divisions. This seems to be a result of the greater attention being given to all media of information. Yet the criticism may be lodged that often this term does not truly reflect the content of the course or curriculum, or the scope of work offered by the academic unit. Use of the term communications implies that the entire range of communication media is included — it should therefore carry with it the promise that the staff is equipped by experience, education, and research training to instruct students in this much wider range than a school of 'journalism' contracts to cover. A few institutions have personnel so trained that they are entitled to use the term, but unfortunately in general practice its use has become somewhat indiscriminate.

Scrutiny of Entrants

The attempt is being made to restrict admission to schools of journalism to those who, because of intelligence, personality, and aptitude, can be predicted to achieve success in newspaper

work. Some psychological tests are now available, and faculty members of schools of journalism are working with psychologists to construct a standard aptitude test as valid as those used by medical and law school admission boards.

Fewer Courses in Techniques

Concurrently with the restriction of the total number of courses in journalism which a student may take, the present trend is to reduce the number of courses in techniques a student is permitted to take to about 10 per cent of his total undergraduate credits, so that he has more latitude for the broader disciplines.

The Aims of a Journalistic Education

Schools of journalism must not lose sight of their primary objective, the training of young people for work on newspapers. How best to do that is the problem. A prospective newspaperman could spend decades in a university preparing himself for a career, a practice obviously impossible. How much time should he spend? How many skills courses should he take? What proportion should he strike between academic background and professional training? The decision must be made on the basis of compromise: regions, states, and nations differ, and a school of journalism has a responsibility to its constituency. Its situation may dictate a high proportion of skills courses. An extra year of graduate work, however desirable, may not be economically justified in some areas, or in preparation for work on certain types of publications. Nevertheless, the profession is mobile and a young man may move successively from North Carolina to Washington to San Francisco, or shift from newspaper work into radio, television, or advertising. Because of his variety of opportunity, his education should be broad.

CONCLUSIONS

Today's newspapers are better than yesterday's and vastly superior to those of the mid-nineteenth century. Among competing media, newspapers are still the most significant in their impact on the public mind. Can schools of journalism take credit for this improvement of the press? Unfortunately their 49-year history is too short to afford a conclusive answer. Even thousands of graduates of journalism, among the total employed on newspapers, are too few to offer a basis for comparison. A recent study revealed that among 69 newspapers with total staffs of 1,786, 55 per cent were college graduates, 27 per cent of whom majored in journalism.[1]

1. See K. Rafferty and L. L. Jermain, 'College Backgrounds of Staffs of American Daily Newspapers', *Journalism quarterly.*

Finally, the future of the journalistic profession, and of professional education for journalism, depends inexorably upon graduate compensation. No one goes into journalism to become wealthy, or even to reach the higher salary brackets. He enters it because he has a desire to serve and because he feels that writing for or editing a newspaper fulfils an essential and useful purpose. Yet unless he sees a future salary scale which will justify the time and money expended on formal professional education, a prospective newspaperman may forgo that training entirely or enter another field.

The journalist's clients include all who read. It is the journalist who gathers and processes the facts, the ideas with which his readers form their opinions. Thus his calling is a high one, requiring a great sense of professional responsibility and careful preparation. How much time he can afford to spend acquiring this preparation can be answered only by the publishers and by the executives of radio and television who ultimately will employ him. How adequately schools of journalism and communication, practical training programmes, or technical institutes can supply the media's demand for well-trained, broadly educated personnel depends upon how adequately the media will compensate those who spend time, money, and effort in preparing themselves for careers in journalism.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Casey, Ralph D., 'What lies ahead in education for journalism?', *Journalism quarterly*, 21 : 1, March 1944, pp. 55-60.

——, 'Teachers, editors and the communication art', *Journalism quarterly*, 24 : 1, March 1947, pp. 19-28.

——, 'The challenge to journalism education', *Journalism quarterly*, 32 : 1, Winter 1955, pp. 39-45.

Desmond, Robert W., *Professional training of journalists*, Paris, Unesco, 1949.

'Education for journalism 1953', *Reports and papers on mass communication*, Paris, Unesco, Clearing House, Department of Mass Communication, January 1954, No. 8.

IPI report, Volumes 1-4. (Series on training programmes for journalism in various countries.)

Luxon, Norval Neil, 'Trends in curricula in A.A.S.D.J. schools', *Journalism quarterly*, 14 : 4, December 1937, pp. 353-60.

——, 'Views on professional education for journalism', *Journalism quarterly*, 25 : 4, December 1948, pp. 380-5.

——, *The accrediting programme of the American Council on Education for Journalism*, Chattanooga, Tenn., Southern Newspaper Publishers Association, 1952.

——, 'Education for journalism', in *Education for the professions*, Washington, D.C., U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1955.

——, 'Practical training: goal and reality', *Journalism quarterly*, 32 : 4, Fall 1955, pp. 464-7.

Nash, Vernon, *What is taught in schools of journalism: An analysis of the curricula of the members of the American Association of Schools and Departments of Journalism*, Columbia, Missouri, University of Missouri, 1 December 1928. (University of Missouri Bulletin, Vol. 29, No. 45; Journalism series, No. 54.)

Rafferty, Keen and Jermain, Leonard L., 'College backgrounds of staffs of American daily newspapers', *Journalism quarterly*, 31 : 4, Fall 1954, pp. 491-4.

Schramm, Wilbur, 'Education for journalism: vocational, general or professional?', *Journalism quarterly*, 24 : 1, March 1947, pp. 9-18.

Sutton, Albert A., *Education for journalism in the United States from its beginning to 1940*, Evanston, Illinois, Northwestern University, 1945. (Northwestern University studies in the humanities, No. 14.)

Mass Media Research and Training Information Personnel

by Fernand Terrou,
President, International Association
for Mass Communication Research

The development and improvement of training for journalism demand a corresponding development and improvement of studies and research bearing both on the methods used for that training and on the subjects covered by the theoretical or practical instruction of which it consists.

This statement may appear to be something of a truism. For it is obviously the strict application, to the special sector of journalism, of a principle which, in education generally, has acquired the force of a dogma. And, so far as concerns that general culture which every journalist worthy of the name must acquire and continually extend the statement is indeed a platitude. It goes without saying that the journalist's knowledge of such essential background matters as history, economics of the nature of public institutions is closely related to the state of, or current developments in, the historical, economic and legal sciences, though these subjects, even when they appear in the study programme of schools of journalism, are not really 'professional' subjects in the strict sense. However, the position changes when the teaching is explicitly adapted to professional

needs or to improving professional techniques. Such subjects then become items of what might be called specialized general culture; in that kind of culture there is another element of ever-increasing importance, i.e., knowledge of the general rules governing the constitution and operation of media of communication, coupled with knowledge of their effects. The amazing growth of these media and of their social influence, and the complexity and highly specialized nature of the elements they bring into play, offer a new and ever expanding field of study. That its investigation will yield results from which the professional training of journalists can benefit is obvious. We shall therefore find it particularly interesting to review the past history and present state of research and the projects planned or in prospect for its improvement. However, first an attempt will be made to determine the distinctive features of this kind of training and of research on mass communication, and the possible relationship between the two.

POINTS OF DIFFERENCE AND OF CONTACT BETWEEN TRAINING AND RESEARCH

Research and professional training differ with regard to both objects and methods. The sole object of research is constant mobilization of knowledge concerning the social phenomenon known as mass communication. It is essentially disinterested, in the sense that it can be neither determined nor guided by a concern to serve any practical interest, whether material or ideological. It is among the most highly esteemed of intellectual activities. Its usefulness and progress are measured exclusively in terms of the volume of knowledge which it makes available. In the sphere of the social sciences, objectivity in research cannot be conceived of in the same terms as in the natural sciences — whether or not we assume that the concepts of good and bad be excluded from the latter domain. A thorough knowledge of social phenomena, of the factors and mechanisms which determine human behaviour, implies a kind of understanding from within, to which feeling may contribute. However, it is essential, more especially in the domain of the sciences of communication, the object of which is so very largely dependent on group choices and needs, that everything possible be done to counter the influence of pressure groups, alike by improving the status of the research worker and by using the most reliable methods of investigation and analysis.

Professional training, by definition, aims at a practical result — training for and initiation into an occupation. It must therefore be approached and planned with that result in mind. Progress in training for journalism is measured by the qualities and professional capabilities of those who have had that training,

by the value of the services they can render in the undertakings that employ them and, at the same time, by the way in which they can improve the office of public information entrusted to them.

While these differences necessarily involve special arrangements for each of these two fundamental activities, they nevertheless leave room for close relations between the two, for mutual borrowing and for regular co-operation. In the domain of the social sciences at any rate, the research worker can disregard neither the practical aspect of his work, nor, more particularly, the actual conditions under which the profession is pursued. For these conditions are the essential elements in the social situation he is investigating. Experience gained in the exercise of the profession is not simply the principal source of guidance for research; in most sectors it is the proving ground itself; it replaces experiment proper. Can a jurist conduct a serious investigation of the juridical means designed to prevent the spreading of false news, without the assistance of experienced professionals who alone are able to tell him how, in practice, news is sought out, collected, written up and disseminated? What is true for the jurist is also true (due allowance being made for the particular nature of each branch) for the economist, the sociologist and the historian of communication; all of them, if not themselves closely involved in the activities of the profession, are in continual need, for the study of existing or past forms of mass media and their effects, of advice, practical information and data from experience which only the men in the profession can supply. And in very many cases it is due to the development of professional training that the research worker has the opportunity of drawing on the experience of the practitioner.

Even more marked is the dependence of professional training upon research. This is especially obvious with respect to the printed press, the radio and the cinema, on account, in particular, of the intellectual nature of the work and of the mutability of the techniques and the kinds of knowledge used. The extent of the dependence varies of course with the subject taught. It is more clearly seen in the case of general subjects; for instance, it would be unthinkable that anyone responsible for teaching prospective journalists the history, law, economics or sociology of communication should not be abreast of the results of the most recent scientific works in his field. However, dependence exists just as certainly in those branches of training of a more practical nature, relating to the actual exercise of the profession, the craft of journalism. If the professional journalist acting as a teacher is to avoid a 'routine' approach to his subject to which the limitations of his own experience might often confine him, he must be able to refer to technical works written from a scientific angle and based at once on a variety of experience and on the latest technical data. He will

further need to make use of any research results in pedagogics and methodology which can serve to make a 'good newspaper man' a good teacher or a director of practical studies. Ralph D. Casey[1] points out that journalism teaching can no longer be based exclusively on the intuitive guesswork of veterans of journalism who, as teachers, count too much on their own experience of procedures and techniques. It must be realized that teachers are under an obligation to incorporate in their teaching a summary of the more important conclusions emerging from the methodical research of the last ten years on mass communication.

The very complexity of the elements of differentiation and approximation brought out by the development of training and of research — as much as the novelty of the problems involved — explains past gropings and justifies the present policy pursued in these two activities.

The evolution and present state of professional training organizations, national or international, are of course the subject of several special studies in the present work. However, the common features in the origin or evolution of the two activities under review, their interrelation and, in some countries, their organization in common, will oblige us to trespass a little on the field of professional training in the present chapter on the history and present state of the organization or research at national and international levels.

ORGANIZATION OF RESEARCH: EVOLUTION AND TRENDS

At the National Level

There is no need to recall here that the science of the press can legitimately claim a long and honourable ancestry. As the writer himself has pointed out elsewhere, 'since the *Discursus de Novellarum* . . . of 1679, meritorious works have been produced on the circumstances in which what Hegel calls the pressing need to give and to have given one's opinion has been met'. The amazing development of the media of communication and the advance of the social sciences have automatically brought about an increase in this category of studies and their establishment on a systematic footing. There are two ways in which this has come about. In some countries, research and scientific studies in the field have had recognition from the beginning, with the resultant establishment of organizations exclusively or mainly devoted to them. A good example is provided by Germany, where there were twelve institutes of journalistic science in 1933, for the most part of university standing. In other countries research has been grafted on to already

1. R. D. Casey, 'The Challenge to Journalism Education', *Journalism Quarterly*, 32 : 1, Winter 1955, p. 39.

existing forms of professional training. A typical example here is afforded by the United States of America, where the earliest attempts at organizing professional training in journalism date from 1869. The extraordinary expansion of this branch of study led to the establishment and subsequent development, in that country, of research centres, the scope of which has been broadened to include the new information media. These centres generally form part of educational establishments or are closely linked with them. But a new tendency, now becoming increasingly apparent, is that of allowing the centres a measure of autonomy or, at any rate, of control over their own organization and funds. This trend is reflected, in the structure of higher education, by the establishment in universities of special schools of study leading up to the highest university degrees. This is shown very clearly by Mr. Burton W. Marvin in his report to the International Expert Meeting on Professional Training for Journalism, organized by Unesco:

'Because of the growing realization that the communications media are just as legitimate areas of research as are the various sciences and social sciences, graduate study in journalism and/or communications has gone beyond the Master's level in recent years. Some schools now offer the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. These include the Universities of Illinois, Minnesota, Missouri, Wisconsin, Stanford University, Syracuse University and Northwestern University.

'In general, the programmes are intended (a) for students who plan careers in professional journalism and desire to rise to leading positions by acquiring wide general knowledge as well as the various practical skills; (b) for those wishing to become experts in mass communications research; and (c) for teachers of journalism and others planning careers in college teaching.

'The majority of the schools offering the Ph.D. degree give special emphasis to mass communications research, and most of the student's time is given to a study of statistical methods, the evaluations of the various media and of public opinion, the investigation of other research techniques and, naturally, the application of these techniques to communication problems.

'These advanced programmes are devoted mainly to the study of *journalism* and related topics rather than to *professional training for journalism.*'

The same trend towards the development and suitable organization of study and research on communication is observable in most countries. It finds expression in a variety of forms, which are attributable either to the organization of the educational system (the extreme flexibility of American universities in structure and operation has helped research and professional training to develop within a single university framework) or to the origin and character — sometimes university, sometimes

professional — of the institutions in each category. Research and teaching centres are sometimes separated (particularly in the case of training centres founded and administered by professional organizations) and sometimes combined in one and the same organization, which may be either entirely university-controlled or mixed.

Another feature of the present trend is the increasingly frequent association of professional journalists with study and research centres, even when the latter are strictly university entities — quite apart from the relations which can and should exist between such university centres and the professional training centres. In France, for instance, the council of the Institut Français de Presse, which is a scientific research and teaching institute of the University of Paris, consists of representatives of the university and representatives of the press, in equal numbers. And this arrangement, exemplifying the co-operation, essential to both, which should be established between research workers and practising journalists, seems likely to become general, despite the scepticism still shown by some journalists who have not had the good fortune to be able to judge for themselves of the value of research.

That research is valuable is in any case sufficiently demonstrated by the growing numbers and steady improvement of research centres and projects. Indeed, the increase in numbers raises another problem — that of co-ordination. Much caution is needed in this connexion. The diversity of methods and conceptions, the very fact that there are clashes between opposing theories, are at once the mark and the necessary condition of all progress in the social sciences, and nothing should be done which might hamper that progress and thereby interfere with the full freedom of initiative and action which must be left to the research worker. It has nevertheless become clear that, in order to avoid excessive dispersion of efforts and duplication of work, to increase facilities for documentation and investigation, and to enable each category of research to give its highest yield, the organization of a regular system of exchanges and contacts is indispensable. The need arises first and foremost at the national level, and the system should operate not only between specialists in one particular discipline but also between specialists in all the disciplines which contribute to the different sectors of knowledge about communication. Happily, it has already proved possible in certain countries (France, Italy, Japan, Switzerland, for instance) to initiate or carry through the establishment of committees or councils covering the institutions concerned with the study of the various sectors of information. Professional training centres and professional organizations themselves can be associated with these committees, a fact which serves to strengthen that co-operation which is so necessary between research workers and practitioners.

At the International Level

It has become apparent that the organization of exchanges between specialists in research on communication is no less indispensable at the international level; and this is a task that Unesco, by its very nature, was particularly fitted to undertake. The first effort in this direction was largely inspired by the existence of close relations between research and professional training and also by the state of research in certain countries. In pursuance of a recommendation made by the first commission of experts on technical needs, the Secretariat, as early as 1947, was engaged on preparatory work for the foundation of an International Institute of the Press and Information, the purpose of which was to be the promotion, throughout the world, both of training for journalism and of study and research on communication. This was a great deal to ask of a single institution. The twofold nature of its mission, the diversity of the needs and inclinations of those for whom it was intended, and the lack — particularly at that time — or regular contacts between many of the countries involved, made the undertaking a hard one. Thus, despite some encouraging reactions, this attempt was abandoned in 1951, after the Executive Board of Unesco had expressed its satisfaction at the foundation of the International Press Institute and the Institut Français de Presse. Neither the first of these institutes, which has a purely professional background and purpose and is restricted to the printed press, nor the second, which is a national body, was the answer to the problem of the co-ordination at the international level of scientific studies and research in the various sectors of communication. It was therefore necessary to reconsider the question in the light of the experience thus gained — which meant abandoning the hope that research and training could be dealt with by a single international organization of clearing-house type. This was what the seventh session of the General Conference of Unesco (1952) intended when it requested the Director-General to promote exchanges of information between the institutions and individuals responsible for the scientific study of mass communication problems. Work was accordingly resumed and actively pursued from 1955 onwards. In February of that year, at a meeting of experts consulted by Unesco on the activities to be undertaken in that connexion, the idea gained ground of setting up an international co-ordination centre, in the form of an independent association. At an international meeting of experts on professional training for journalism, held in April 1956, special emphasis was laid on the assistance which research could give to training. Then, at its ninth session (New Delhi, November 1956), the General Conference of Unesco invited the Director-General to 'promote co-ordination of the activities of national research institutes in the field of mass communication, in par-

ticular by encouraging the creation of an international association of such institutes'.[1]

Owing to the extent and importance of the studies and consultations which were conducted prior to this resolution, it was possible to put it speedily into effect. In December 1956, an international meeting at Strasbourg, attended by specialists from some fifteen countries, recommended the formation, as soon as possible, of an interim committee to undertake, in conjunction with the Unesco Secretariat and the institutions and individual experts concerned, the preparations for the constituent assembly of the association and the drafting of an initial programme of co-ordination.

The committee is pushing actively ahead with the preparatory work. As a result of the consultations now proceeding, a large number of institutions and individual experts in several countries are prepared to join the Association and the major international professional organizations have adopted an extremely favourable attitude towards it. From the principles proposed by the committee and generally approved, the eventual object and compass of the Association can already be foreseen. Those principles are as follows:

1. The aims of the Association shall be exclusively scientific. Its principal tasks will be: (a) To facilitate exchanges between the institutions in different countries and personal contacts between specialists; (b) to promote the foundation and development of centres for study and research on mass communication in countries where none yet exist; (c) to secure the recognition of communication studies as a separate scientific discipline; (d) to provide a documentation and international research service for the use of members of the Association; (e) to circulate information on outstanding developments in communication teaching and research; (f) to undertake, in conjunction with appropriate national and international institutions, all work of a scientific nature calculated to facilitate understanding of the structure, techniques and operation of communication media; (g) to contribute, as required, by suitable research work, to the development and improvement of training for journalism.
2. The Association shall be entirely independent alike of intergovernmental organizations and of professional associations. It might comprise corporate members (national, international or regional institutions), individual members (research specialists) and associate members (bodies whose main activities do not come within the sphere of communication).
3. The Association's sphere of action shall include all areas of research work on communication (printed press, cinema, radio and television) and all branches of study within such

1. Resolution 5.22, *Records of the General Conference, Ninth Session*, Unesco, Paris, 1957.

areas (history, law, economics, psycho-sociology, technology, etc. It might be divided into separate sections corresponding to the aforesaid areas of research or to the branches of study into which they may be subdivided.

Even if the general situation with regard to research work in mass communication throughout the world is such that provisional arrangements must be envisaged pending the constitution of the Association on a permanent basis, there now seems little doubt that the project can be carried to a successful conclusion.[1] Parallel with the organization of international exchanges in the domain of training for journalism — the first step towards which is represented by the creation of the Strasbourg Centre — an international system of exchanges in the domain of research will be instituted. By the stimulus it will provide for professional training, this system will be able to contribute largely to the development and improvement of that training; for it is clear that, in conformity with the principles outlined above, organizational separation must leave room for that close co-operation, which, under the pressure of needs, will grow up of its own accord to serve the common interest.

Textbooks and Teaching Aids

by WALTER HAGEMANN,
Director of the Institut für Publizistik,
University of Münster, Germany.

INTRODUCTION

There are three different means of approach to journalism:

1. Entry into the profession without any specific academic training. Ability and a certain amount of general education are sufficient. Practical experience has to be gained through actual newspaper work; theoretical knowledge can be widened by special journalism classes or evening schools. This method has always been preferred by British journalism.
2. Attendance at journalism schools attached to universities or other institutes of higher learning. Practical as well as theoretical training is thus provided. This way of entering journalism is typical of the United States of America.
3. University study in journalism and related fields leading to an academic degree. Practical experience has to be obtained through a period of apprenticeship on the staff of a

1. The International Association for Mass Communication Research (IAMCR) held its constituent assembly on 18-19 December 1957 at Unesco House.

newspaper. This form of journalistic training is predominant in the countries of Western and Central Europe.

These three basic training methods presuppose the use of various types of teaching aids:

1. Technical equipment to acquaint the student with up-to-date processes in newspaper work. This may be put to practical use in producing internal publications.
2. Methodical and comprehensive textbooks which offer the student a basic knowledge of journalistic techniques and other subjects of interest to the profession.
3. Research papers and specific analyses, intended as a guide to the study of press problems and of methods of academic research.

Technical equipment may be left aside here. Textbooks are written because they are needed as aids for instruction and study. They differ in number and quality from country to country. Research results are published mainly in countries where the newspaper is acknowledged as a subject for academic research. Research papers of this kind will be taken into consideration only to the extent that they are useful for instruction and training purposes.

As regards the newer information media, namely radio, television and films, practical and theoretical instruction is still in its infancy. Here useful work has been done, more especially in the U.S.A. but also by European scholars and specialists.[1]

As a useful teaching aid, a brief multilingual anthology might be published containing the most important contributions to research now available. Work published in professional magazines may be used to stimulate students to make their own investigations as part of their study of public behaviour and opinion.

THE PRESS

Basic Textbooks and Manuals[2]

There are several basic textbooks and introductions to journalism. Most of them serve practical needs and are written with an eye to the particular problems of the authors' own countries. Since newspapers of the Western world have a certain basic resemblance, it might be possible to develop out of the above-mentioned and other manuals a model textbook which could be adapted for use in various countries.

Journalistic Techniques[3]

Techniques of news gathering and news writing broadly con-

1. See bibliography, section I, at the end of the article.
2. See bibliography, section II.
3. See bibliography, section III.

form to certain international standards established by the big news agencies with networks and link-ups covering most countries, and the subject has now been taught in schools of journalism in the U.S.A. for some time. A textbook might be written on the structure and working methods of modern news agencies, with reference to existing international and leading national agencies.[1]

The approach to news reporting ('reportage') varies considerably with regard to both form and content. General rules cannot be laid down for international agreement on reporting techniques; different conceptions can be seen even in the works of American[2] and English[3] authors. In Europe, textbooks on the art and technique of reporting are not very much in vogue because it is rather held that perfection can here only be attained through practice.

The preceding considerations lead to the suggestion that it might be useful to collect examples of outstanding reporting from newspapers all over the world in special anthologies. These could be used for instruction, not only for journalists but also for psychologists and others interested in studying the effects of information on the public.

Advertising and Public Relations[4]

There are many good books on advertising, which is fundamental to the very existence of the press in many countries. But it is also a complex technique, and in several countries there are even special advertising schools. Certain journalism schools also offer classes in advertising, since both the journalist and the advertising man deal with the same media and the same public. There are standard works and many other publications on advertising in most of the larger European countries. Taste and habits in advertising vary from country to country but the underlying psychological principles have a certain general validity. Any modern approach to advertising is strongly influenced by American and British experience and practice.

This is also true for public relations. A great deal has been written on the subject especially in the U.S.A. and much of this may be useful elsewhere. Translations of and excerpts from good books on public relations are useful, as has been proved in recent years in Germany by the work of Carl Hundhausen.

Legislation concerning the Press

Relations between government and press vary considerably

1. *News Agencies, their Structure and Operation*, Paris, Unesco, 1953.
2. Victor J. Danilov, *Public Affairs Reporting*, New York, 1955.
3. Bush, Chilton, Rowlette, *Newspaper Reporting of Public Affairs*, London, 1940.
4. See bibliography, section IV.

from one country to another, since each country has its particular laws. The influence exerted on the press by the government, by political parties, and by pressure groups also differs. Freedom of the press and the right to criticize depend on tradition, history, society and national temperament.

There is a large volume of literature concerning these problems, written by journalists, politicians, lawyers, even in countries where textbooks for journalists are rare. There are no outstanding works which might be accepted as models of their kind, but for journalists everywhere it is important to know how these problems are understood and tackled in other countries. Such knowledge may serve either as a warning or as an example. A universal guide to press laws throughout the world — which could easily be compiled — might be useful.[1] A published collection of all national copyright legislation in so far as it is not yet part of the International Copyright Convention would be of practical as well as theoretical interest. Such a publication should also contain details on how national copyright laws are actually applied in practice.

The International Press Institute (IPI) and Unesco have already been working in this field, but considerable specific research still has to be done as it is hard to obtain all the necessary documents. No student of journalism should enter the profession without a knowledge of press legislation in his country, and such knowledge would be usefully supplemented by a study of conditions in other countries.

History of the Press[2]

The history of the press is only of indirect interest to practical journalism but a study of it should, nevertheless, form part of any training programme. A knowledge of the national and international development of the press is part of the journalist's basic education equipment.

However, if the history of the press is to become an important part in educational programmes for journalists, an analytical description of the relationship between history in general and the development of the press is necessary. This should be envisaged on an international basis.

In each country, the history of the press raises special technical, economic, and typographical problems. In France, Eugène Hatin wrote an early history of the press and another complete description was given by Henry Avenel (1900). Francesco Fattorello devoted several books to the study of the most important phases of the history of the Italian press. The press of Great Britain has been thoroughly studied by Max Gruenbeck. Separate aspects of the history of the German press have

1. See Fernand Terrou and Lucien Solal, *Legislation for Press, Film and Radio*, Paris, Unesco, 1951.
2. See bibliography, section V.

been dealt with in numerous works, but so far the only comprehensive study is the short summary by Ludwig Salomon. There are many American works on press history.

A complete comparative presentation of significant international press developments during the last three centuries still remains to be written. Such a study would be of value both to students of journalism and also to a much wider public. Students of journalism wishing to gain an insight into the journalistic workshops of the past have numerous memoirs and monographs to choose from. Among these, the *History of 'The Times'* is outstanding in importance and content.

Professional Periodicals and Reference Works[1]

Professional periodicals are a further teaching aid of great importance. Through them the student may gain a direct knowledge of the growth and activities of publishing houses and participate in the discussion of a wide range of journalistic problems. Specialized publications, produced by professional associations, are to be found in many countries. Most of them deal with questions of interest to the profession such as salaries and legal questions. Some of these publications also include international documentation on press matters and directories.

There are, moreover, some scientific periodicals which should not be neglected by schools concerned with the training of journalists. In the first place mention should be made of *Journalism Quarterly* in which leading American experts, educators and research workers publicly discuss the nature and effects of the mass media. This quarterly also keeps up to date a general bibliography in the communication field. A valuable French contribution is *Etudes de Presse*, a periodical concerned primarily with problems of the press but also with the international development of the scientific study of the mass media. Since 1955, the Instituut voor Perswetenschap (Institute for the Science of the Press) in Amsterdam has published a trilingual *Gazette*. The latest periodical of this kind is the German bi-monthly *Publizistik*, published in Münster. It covers all the mass media — press, radio and television, film, rhetoric, advertising and public opinion research. Its columns are open to foreign scholars.

In most countries there are handbooks and directories listing relevant periodicals. Most of these are annual publications and thus provide good up-to-date guidance for professional journalists. They are necessary aids in schools of journalism for theoretical instruction and for practical training. Such handbooks also often include sections devoted to the foreign press. This material, supplemented where necessary, might be

1. See bibliography, section VI.

compiled for a regular annual publication of international interest.

Since there is a real demand for a world press directory, its publication might even prove a financial success and usefully supplement yearbooks and other directories put out by various publishing firms and press organizations. There are a number of handbooks in English and French for general reference purposes. But there is a great demand for an encyclopaedia covering the whole field of journalism. Such a comprehensive reference work might be written in English by a team of scholars and journalists from various countries.

It is interesting to note that instruction in journalism is now also given with the help of special educational films, particularly in the U.S.A. Good films of this kind could be adapted for use in other countries. The *Directory of Journalistic Films* published by the Association for Education in Journalism in 1954, contains a list of suitable titles.

RADIO AND TELEVISION

Specialized teaching and research programmes comparable to those used for the press have not yet been instituted for radio and television. Consequently most training for radio is still done at general schools. Many journalists with such training behind them find jobs in broadcasting since news departments and current affairs sections in radio organizations call for qualifications common to both the radio and the newspaper journalist.

Research in the field of radio generally follows the pattern of research adopted by the press. Textbooks on social psychology can be used for both media, although the special technical characteristics of radio demand a separate treatment of management and programme production. Radio is a new medium and specialized literature in the field is still incomplete. The U.S.A. leads the field, not least because of the many wireless stations and networks which create a heavy demand for young recruits to broadcasting and for more and better programmes. In the U.S.A. are also to be found the greatest number of special radio and television schools. In most other countries trainees learn their craft at the radio stations or by adapting previous experience gained in the press, on the stage, or in films.

There is a need for more institutes for specialized training and research in radio and for special radio departments in existing schools of journalism. Marked progress has been made in this respect over the last few years. Placed on the same level as research in journalism, radio research would undoubtedly improve the quality of programmes and stimulate radio trainees and experienced broadcasters to investigate new possibilities.

Basic Guides, Professional Periodicals and Reference Works[1]

Introductions to broadcasting are given in a number of books which are now internationally known and appreciated. There are the works of the radio pioneer David Sarnoff, the memoirs of the founder of the British Broadcasting Corporation, Lord Reith, and those of the founder of German broadcasting, Hans Bredow.

Well-known periodicals of considerable professional interest from the point of view of instruction and expert discussion are published in several countries.

FILMS

The schooling of young recruits to the film industry is even more complex and varied than training for radio work. There are only a few film academies offering methodical training in film-making, from management to cutting. Film journalism includes not only the making of documentary films and newsreels, but also the presentation of film reviews in newspapers and on the radio.

General Guides[2]

There are many general guide books, both old and new. They fundamentals of the cinema are treated by Ernst Iros in *Wesen und Dramaturgie des Films* (Zürich 1938), a monumental but not very comprehensive book, the second edition of which has just been published (Zürich, 1957). The studies by the Russian directors Pudovkin and Eisenstein are still important and instructive. The Hungarian director Béla Balàzs has written several volumes on film and film-making, and important works by Luigi Chiarini and René Barjavel have been published in Italy and France. Some German authors have considered the cinema as the 'seventh art' — the present author went one step further, and described the film as the universal medium for information, education and art.

From the outset, films have been regarded as a predominantly journalistic medium. Hans Traub (Berlin) has analysed the relationship between film, radio and press in several publications, and Ilse Boettcher has made a study of the resemblances between films and newspapers.

Documentaries[3]

Old documentary classics can always be used as audio-visual

1. See bibliography, sections VII and VIII.
2. See bibliography, section IX.
3. See bibliography, section X.

teaching material. In this respect British practice has led the way for a long time, and British authors have made substantial contributions to the theory of documentary films. Some of these books might be translated into other languages for use as instruction material in countries where such specialized literature is not available.

Professional Periodicals and Reference Works[1]

Handbooks and yearbooks as published in most countries are useful aids for instruction and practical work. With these may be grouped film manuals such as those by Charles Reinert and Francesco Pasinetti. The publication of an international film handbook might also be undertaken.[2] Many of the specialized film periodicals will be found useful as teaching aids.[3]

Films have not yet been included as a subject in the syllabuses of schools of journalism except in those where all the mass media are studied, as in the German Institut für Publizistik. The Centro Sperimentale, in Rome, the Ecole Technique de la Photographie et du Cinéma, in Paris, the British Film Institute, in London and the Film Academy in Hollywood might serve as models for new film academies and study centres.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

I

Allport, Gordon W. and Cantril, Hadley, *The psychology of radio*, New York, Harper Bros., 1935.

—— and Postmann, Leo, *The psychology of rumor*, New York, Henry Holt, 1947.

Barnow, Erik, *Mass communications: television, radio, film, press*, New York-Toronto, Rinehart, 1956.

Baschwitz, Kurt, *Der Massenwahn, seine Wirkung und seine Beherrschung*, 3rd ed., München, C. H. Beck, 1932.

——, *Du und die Masse*, 2nd ed., Leiden, E. J. Brill, 1951.

Bauer, Wilhelm, *Die öffentliche Meinung in der Weltgeschichte*, Potsdam, Akademische Verlagsgesellschaft Athenaion, 1929.

Berelson, Bernard, *Content analysis in communication research*, Glencoe, Ill., The Free Press, 1952.

—— and Janowitz, Morris (eds.), *Reader in public opinion and communication*, Glencoe, Ill., The Free Press, 1953.

Bird, George, and Merwin, F. E., *The press and society, a book of readings*, New York, Prentice-Hall, 1951.

Cantril, Hadley, *Gauging public opinion*, London, Oxford University Press, 1947.

1. See bibliography, section X.
2. See bibliography, section XI.
3. See bibliography, section XII.

Commission on Freedom of the Press, *A free and responsible press,* Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1947.
Domenach, J.-M., *La propagande politique,* Paris, Presses Universitaires de France, 1950.
Gallup, George, *A guide to public opinion polls,* 2nd ed., New York, Princeton, Princeton University Press, 1948.
—— and Rae, S. F., *The pulse of democracy,* New York, Simon and Schuster, 1940.
Geiger, Theodor, *Die Masse und ihre Aktion,* Stuttgart, Ferdinand Enke, 1926.
Hagemann, Walter, *Vom Mythos der Masse, ein Beitrag zur Psychologie der Öffentlichkeit,* Heidelberg, Vowinckel, 1951.
Hofstätter, Peter R., *Die Psychologie der öffentlichen Meinung,* Wien, Wilhelm Braunmülle, 1949.
Katz, Elihu and Lazarsfeld, Paul, *Personal influence: the part played by people in the flow of mass communications,* Glencoe, Ill., The Free Press, 1955.
Lazarsfeld, Paul and Kendall, Patricia, *Radio listening in America,* New York, Prentice-Hall, 1948.
—— and Stanton, Frank (eds.), *Communication research, 1948-1949,* New York, Harper Bros., 1949.
Lenz, Friedrich, *Werden und Wesen der öffentlichen Meinung,* München, Pohl and Co., 1956.
Mannheim, Ernst, *Die Träger der öffentlichen Meinung,* Prague, Leipzig, Wien, Rudolf M. Rohrer, 1953.
Newspaper, The: *its making and its meaning,* New York, Scribner's, 1945. (By the members of the staff of the *New York Times.*)
Reiwald, Paul, *Vom Geist der Massen, ein Handbuch der Massenpsychologie,* Zürich, Pan-Verlag, 1948.
Schramm, Wilbur (ed.), *Communications in modern society,* Urbana, Ill., University of Illinois Press, 1949.
—— (ed.), *The process and effects of mass communication,* Urbana, Ill., University of Illinois Press, 1954.
Stoetzel, J., *Théorie des opinions,* Paris, Presses Universitaires de France, 1943.
Terrou, Fernand, *Economie et le droit de la presse,* Paris, Institut d'Etudes Politiques, 1946-47.
Tönnies, Ferdinand, *Kritik der öffentlichen Meinung,* Berlin, Julius Springer, 1922.
Weill, Georges, *Le journal: origine, évolution et rôle de la presse périodique,* Paris, La Renaissance du Livre, 1934.
Wolseley, Roland E. and Campbell, Lawrence P., *Exploring journalism, with special emphasis on its social and vocational aspects,* New York, Prentice-Hall, 1949.

II

Bond, F. Fraser, *An introduction to journalism,* New York, Macmillan, 1954.

Dovifat, Emil, *Zeitungslehre,* 3rd ed., 2 vols., Berlin, de Gruyter, 1955.
Gonzáles Ruiz, Nicolás y al., *El Periodismo: Teoria y Práctica,* Barcelona, Ed. Noguer, 1955.
Hagemann, Walter, *Grundzüge der Publizistik,* Münster, Regensberg, 1947.
——, *Die Zeitung als Organismus,* Heidelberg, Vowinckel, 1950.
Kemsley, Lord, *Manual of journalism,* London, Cassell, 1954.
Lee, Alfred McClung, *The daily newspaper in America,* New York, Macmillan, 1957.
März, Josef, *Die moderne Zeitung,* München, Kunstverlag Agathon, 1951.
Mott, Frank Luther and Casey, Ralph D., *Interpretations of journalism: a book of readings,* New York, F. S. Crofts, 1937.
Münster, Hans A., *Die moderne Presse, das Zeitungs- und Zeitschriftenwesen im In- und Ausland,* 2 vols., Bad Kreuznach, Ferd. Harrach, 1955.
Pitt Robbins, *Newspapers today,* London, Oxford University Press, 1956.
Rothenberg, Ignaz, *The newspaper,* London, Staples Press, 1946.

III

Bastian, George C., Case, Leland D. and Baskette, Floyd K., *Editing the day's news,* 4th ed., New York, Macmillan, 1956.
Garst, R. E., and Bernstein, Th. M., *Headlines and deadlines, a manual for copy editors,* New York, Columbia University Press, 1947.
Hyde, Grant M., *Newspaper reporting,* New York, Prentice-Hall, 1952.
MacDougall, Curtis D., *Interpretive reporting,* 3rd ed., New York, Macmillan, 1957.
Neal, Robert Miller, *News gathering and news writing,* 2nd ed., New York, Prentice-Hall, 1949.

IV

Borden, Neil H., *The economic effects of advertising,* Chicago, Richard D. Irwin, 1947.
Hepner, Harry Walker, *Effective advertising,* 2nd ed., New York, Toronto, London, McGraw-Hill, 1949.
——, *Modern advertising: practices and principles,* New York, Toronto, London, McGraw-Hill, 1956.
Hundhausen, Carl, *Werbung und öffentliches Vertrauen,* Essen, Girardet, 1951.
——, *Wesen und Formen der Werbung,* Essen, Girardet, 1954.
Kropff, H. F. J., *Neue Psychologie in der neuen Werbung,* Stuttgart, C. E. Poeschel, 1951.
——, *Die Werbemittel und ihre psychologische, künstlerische und technische Gestaltung,* Essen, Girardet, 1953.

McClure, Leslie E., *Newspaper advertising and promotion*, New York, Macmillan, 1950.
Mataja, Viktor, *Die Reklame*, München, Leipzig, Dunker und Humblot, 1926.
Seyffert, Rudolf, *Allgemeine Werbelehre*, Stuttgart, C. E. Poeschel, 1929.
Starch, Daniel, *Principles of advertising*, Chicago, New York, A. W. Shaw, 1925.

V

Avenel, Henri, *Histoire de la presse française depuis 1789 jusqu'à nos jours*, Paris, Ernest Flammarion, 1900.
Brigham, Clarence S., *Journals and journeymen: a contribution to the history of early American newspapers*. Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania Press, 1950.
Fattorello, Francesco, *Il Giornalismo, Rassegna Trimestrale di Studi sulla Stampa Periodica Italiana*, Nr. 2/3, April-Sept. 1939.
Gruenbeck, Max, *Die Presse Grossbritanniens. Ihr geistiger und wirtschaftlicher Aufbau*, Leipzig, Robert Noske, 1936.
Hatin, Eugène, *Histoire politique et littéraire de la presse en France avec une introduction historique sur les origines du journal et la bibliographie générale des journaux depuis leur origine*, 8 vols., Paris, Poulet-Malassis et de Broise, 1859-61.
Herd, H., *The march of journalism: the story of the British press from 1622 to the present day*, London, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., 1952.
Manévy, Raymond, *Histoire de la presse (1914-1930)*, Paris, Corréa, 1945.
Mott, Frank Luther, *History of the American magazine*, Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1938.
——, *American journalism. A history of newspapers in the United States through 260 years: 1690 to 1950*, New York, Macmillan, 1950.
Peterson, Theodore, *Magazines in the twentieth century*, Urbana Ill., University of Illinois Press, 1956.
Salomon, Ludwig, *Geschichte des Deutschen Zeitungswesens*, 3 vols., Oldenburg, Leipzig, R. Schwartz, 1900-06.
Times, History of The, 5 vols., London, The Times Publishing Co., 1935-52.

VI

L'echo de la presse et de la publicité (Paris).
Editor and Publisher (New York).
Gazeta de la Prensa Española (Madrid).
Japanese Journalism Review (Tokyo).
Journal, The (London).
Journalist, Der (Bonn).
Kwartalnik Prasoznawzcy (Warsaw).

Neue Deutsche Presse (East Berlin).
Printer's Ink (New York).
World Press News and Advertisers' Review (London).
Zeitungs-Verlag und Zeitschriften-Verlag (Bad Godesberg).

VII

Arnheim, Rudolf, *Radio*, London, Faber & Faber, 1936.
Bogart, Leo, *The age of television*, New York, Frederick Ungar Publishing Co., 1956.
Bredow, Hans, *Aus meinem Archiv*, Heidelberg, Vowinckel, 1950.
——, *Im Banne der Ätherwellen*, 2 *vols.*, Stuttgart, Mundus-Verlag, 1954-56.
Coase, George Arthur, *British broadcasting: a study in monopoly*, London, Longmans, Green and Co., 1951.
Cordier, Stéphane, *La radio, reflet de notre temps*, Paris, Les Editions Internationales, 1950.
Eckert, Gerhard, *Die Kunst des Fernsehens*, Emsdetten, Lechte, 1953.
Hagemann, Walter, *Fernhören und Fernsehen*, Heidelberg, Vowinckel, 1954.
Huth, Arno, *La radiodiffusion, puissance mondiale*, Paris, Gallimard-NRF, 1937.
——, *Radio heute und morgen*, Zürich and New York, Europa-Verlag, 1944.
Lenz, Friedrich, *Einführung in die Soziologie des Rundfunks*, Emsdetten, Lechte, 1952.
Pohle, Heinz, *Der Rundfunk als Instrument der Politik*, Hamburg, Hans Bredow-Institut, 1955.
Reith, J. C., *Into the wind*, London, Hodder and Stoughton, 1950.
Rotha, Paul, *Television in the making*, London, New York, The Focal Press, 1956.
Sarnoff, David, *The American system of broadcasting*, New York, RCA Institutes Technical Press, 1938.
——, *Principles and practices of network radio*, New York, RCA Institutes Technical Press, 1939.
Siepmann, Charles, *Radio, television and society*, New York, Oxford University, Press, 1950.
Thévenot, Jean, *L'âge de la télévision et l'avenir de la radio*, Paris, Les Editions Ouvrières, 1946.
Veillé, Roger, *La radio et les hommes*, Paris, Les Editions de Minuit, 1952.

VIII

Audio Visual Communication Review (Washington D.C.).
Broadcasting-Telecasting (Washington D.C.).
Cahiers d'études de radio-télévision (Paris).
Radiogramma (Rome).
Rundfunk und Fernsehen (Hamburg).

IX

Balàzs, Béla, *Der sichtbare Mensch oder die Kultur des Films*, Wien, Deutsch-Oesterreich Verlag, 1924.
——, *Der Geist des Films*, Halle, Knapp, 1930.
Barjavel, René, *Cinéma total*, Paris, Les Editions Denoël, 1944.
Boettcher, Ilse, *Film und Tageszeitung*, Leipzig (Diss.), Robert Noske, 1937.
Chiarini, Luigi, *Cinque Capitoli sul Film*, Rome, Edizioni Italiani, 1941.
Eisenstein, Sergeij M., *The film sense* (ed. by Jay Leyda), New York, Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1942-47.
——, *Film form, essays in film theory* (ed. by Jay Leyda), New York, Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1949.
Hagemann, Walter, *Der Film, Wesen und Gestalt*, Heidelberg, Vowinckel, 1952.
Iros, Ernst, *Wesen und Dramaturgie des Films* (2nd ed.), Zürich, Max Niehans, 1957.
Pudovkin, Vsevolod I., *Film technique*, London, George Newnes, Ltd., 1933.
Traub, Hans, *Zeitung, Film, Rundfunk*, Berlin, Weidmannsche Buchhandlung, 1933.
Vandromme, P., *Le cinéma et l'enfance*, Paris, Ed. du Cerf, 1955.

X

Hardy, Forsyth, *Grierson und der Dokumentarfilm*, Gutesloh, Bartelsmann, 1947.
Manvell, Roger, *The film and the public*, London, Hunt, Barnard and Co., 1955.
Robson, E. W., *The film answers back*, London, Lane, 1939.
Rotha, Paul, *Documentary film*, London, Faber & Faber, 1936.

XI

Pasinetti, Francesco (Ed.), *Filmlexikon, Piccolo Enciclopedia Cinematografica*, Milano, Filmeuropa, 1948.
Reinert, Charles (Ed.), *Kleines Filmlexikon, Kunst, Technik, Geschichte, Biographie, Schrifttum*, Einsiedeln-Zürich, Benziger und Co., 1946.

XI

Bianco e Nero (Roma).
Cahiers du cinéma (Paris).
Centro Informative Cinematográfico Espanol (CICE) (Madrid).
Deutsche Filmkunst (East Berlin).
Film a doba (Prague).
Film Culture (New York).
Filmforum (Emsdetten).

Filmkunst (Vienna).
International Film Review (Brussels).
Kwartalnik Filmowy (Warsaw).
Motion Picture Herald (New York).
Revue internationale de filmologie (Paris).
Science and Film (London).
Spettacolo, Lo (Rome).
Sight and Sound (London).
Variety (New York).

The Role of the International Press Institute

by ARMAND GASPARD,
Research Officer at the
International Press Institute, Zürich

INFORMATION ON PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED AND METHODS USED

Articles on the various systems of training for journalism have been published in the monthly IPI reports (issued in English, French, German and Japanese). The five annual volumes published to date (the sixth beginning in May 1957) have contained reports on thirteen European and four non-European countries.

Special attention is paid to original experiments (e.g., that carried out at the Werner Friedmann Institute, Munich) and to methods being tried out in the underdeveloped countries (e.g., those in use at Nagpur and Osmania in India, and at Bangkok in Thailand).

The institute is co-operating with the International Centre for Advanced Training in Journalism, in Strasbourg. In the autumn of 1956 it declared its willingness to support the efforts of the new centre. It reaffirmed its support at the General Assembly in Amsterdam, in May 1957.

SEMINARS

News Coverage in a Democracy

A seminar on the subject of press and government in a democracy was held in Zürich in the last week of November 1954, and was attended by nineteen journalists from the Federal Republic of Germany and four from Austria. All members of the seminar were young journalists who had seldom had an opportunity of leaving their country and who, in their youth, had

suffered the effects of totalitarian education. Talks given by magistrates, civil servants, university professors of public law and Swiss colleagues were the starting-point for fruitful discussions. Members also had an opportunity of attending meetings of the Zürich Cantonal Council and of a municipal council, and were then asked to write an article on the subject for group discussion. Press treatment of national military problems was one of the questions found most absorbing by members of the seminar, who were given the opportunity to discuss the subject with a Swiss Army Divisional Commander, the Chief Information Officer of the Federal War Ministry, and several military correspondents of Swiss newspapers (IPI reports III/8 and 9).

Reporting on the United Nations

Two other IPI seminars were held at the United Nations Headquarters, New York, in November 1955 and in January 1957. Each lasted a week and was attended by some twenty journalists, each representing a different country and holding the post of foreign editor or in some cases editor-in-chief of a newspaper. The aim was to give them a better understanding of the United Nations by affording an opportunity for group study of the Organization in an international setting. Members of the seminar heard statements by senior United Nations officials and by several journalists from the United States of America and other countries, accredited to the United Nations. They were thus able to acquaint themselves with the problems and the complicated machinery of the United Nations, and to gain a clearer understanding of the Organization's operation by attending meetings of the General Assembly and its committees, which were in session during the period chosen for the seminar.

Before the close of the seminar, its members had an opportunity of making professional contacts not only in New York but also in Washington, where they attended a State Department press conference.

The IPI did pioneering work in organizing these seminars, for which it received financial assistance from the Ford and Rockefeller Foundations. The United Nations General Assembly decided to organize a similar seminar itself in 1956. The IPI was consulted in this connexion by the competent services of the United Nations; the seminar in question took place at Geneva in the summer of 1956.

EXCHVNGES OF JOURNALISTS

An initial exchange of journalists, under the auspices of the IPI, was arranged in 1954 between Switzerland and West Berlin.

Two young journalists were able to spend three months working with a newspaper in German-speaking Switzerland and Berlin respectively (IPI report III/3).

In 1956, arrangements were made for a journalist from an English daily newspaper, the *Northampton Chronicle and Echo*, to work for six months with the telegraphic service of the *Louisville Times* (Kentucky) and for one month in the editorial department of the *Milwaukee Journal* (Wisconsin) (IPI report IV/12).

In 1957, the IPI launched a triennial programme for the exchange of journalists between the U.S.A., the U.K. and other countries of the British Commonwealth. Each year, twenty-two journalists from these countries will be able to take advantage of this programme, the launching of which was made possible thanks to a gift of $66,000 from the Ford Foundation. It is one of the most important 'exchange of journalists' programmes drawn up since the war on a non-governmental basis. The fellowships are granted for a period of three months. For the implementation of that part of the programme concerning exchanges between the U.K. and the U.S.A., the IPI is co-operating with the English-speaking Union.

Under this programme, a journalist from the Commonwealth, for instance, will work two months with an American newspaper and will spend the third month travelling in the U.S.A. He will not work as an ordinary journalist, but will so far as possible take part, with different reporters, in special missions; he will also attend editorial meetings.

The programme is drawn up on a reciprocity basis, i.e. every newspaper of the U.K., or of any other country belonging to the British Commonwealth, which sends a member of its staff to work in the U.S.A. must receive a journalist from that country, and vice versa.

The fundamental object of these exchanges is to enable the visiting journalists to gain an idea of life in the country visited and to familiarize themselves with the techniques and problems of that country's newspapers.

However, community of language is not the sole basis of the IPI's exchange policy. The Institute is endeavouring, for instance, to promote exchanges between French and German journalists. Thus, in the summer of 1955, a journalist of the Strasbourg paper *Dernières nouvelles d'Alsace* spent five weeks working with the *Darmstadter Echo*. As a result of the last Franco-German meeting of journalists organized under the auspices of the IPI, some six newspapers in each of the two countries offered to receive journalists from the other country for varying periods. However, it has been found difficult to follow up these offers in practice, as many newspapers are unwilling to release one of their journalists for any length of time.

ACTION FOR THE UNDERDEVELOPED COUNTRIES

The IPI has been working on the problem of teaching journalism in the underdeveloped countries. In the field with which we are concerned, it is here that the Institute has probably made its greatest efforts, although no practical results have yet been achieved, mainly owing to lack of funds.

The Institute's first move was to gather information. It assembled a large body of documentary material on the needs of the press in several territories of Equatorial Africa, Burma and Indonesia, with special reference to present facilities for the training of press staff in these territories and the possibilities of extending them. After this preliminary work, the IPI was obliged, for lack of funds, to drop the idea of providing aid for several countries, and its Executive Board decided to concentrate its efforts on a single country, Indonesia, with a view to a pilot project there.

The first plan was to send to Indonesia a United States or European specialist on information problems, who would be both an experienced journalist and to some extent a teacher, and to put him in charge of theoretical and practical courses in journalism. But the choice of the specialist gave rise to difficulties, mainly connected with the question of language and nationality.

It was then thought wiser to send an Indonesian abroad, instead of bringing a foreigner to Indonesia. According to the new plan, a very gifted young Indonesian journalist would be sent for three years' training in one of the leading schools of journalism in the U.S.A. or Europe; on his return he would be placed in charge of professional training courses attached to the University of Jakarta. The only condition stipulated by the IPI is that a faculty of journalism should be opened at this university. The matter has not yet been finally settled.

Meanwhile, the Institute's work for the underdeveloped countries is proceeding on more modest lines. It is sending several free copies of its publications to the Indonesian Press Institute and to the new School of Journalism set up in Burma in April 1956. The Secretariat in Zürich supplies advice whenever it is sought. In this matter, the Institute has worked in close co-operation with Unesco.

The IPI's projects for 1957-58 include a survey on the needs of the native press in Equatorial Africa.

PART THREE

Training facilities in different countries

Egypt[1]

by Ahmed Kassem Gouda,
Editor, *Al Gomhouria*, Cairo, Egypt

In 1935 or thereabouts, both the Egyptian and the American Universities in Cairo, realizing the need for qualified newspapermen began to give serious consideration to the idea of including courses in journalism in their syllabuses.

THE AMERICAN UNIVERSITY (AUC)

The first to put this idea into practice was the American University in Cairo. In 1937, it offered the first journalism course in the whole of the Middle East. Modest as it then was, this course attracted a number of students equal to any in the faculties of arts or sciences.

When the department was first established in 1937 it was more or less divided into an English section and an Arabic section, the courses offered being all on the editorial side. A comparative study of the curriculum since the initiation of the department shows that continuous, though unsystematic, efforts have been made to change the nature of the course and to introduce a journalism curriculum based on a co-ordination of the technical skills and the liberal arts, and with a stronger emphasis on Arabic.

The English section, which at one time had more students than the Arabic, has been abandoned completely because the university believed that its mission to train men for service on newspapers in the Middle East could best be achieved through concentration on the studies in Arabic.

The courses now given include — in addition to history, language, economics, philosophy and political science — news writing, reporting, interpretative writing, the press and public opinion, law of the press (in Arabic), newspaper and magazine editing (in Arabic), Arabic journalistic style, advertising, radio journalism, feature writing (in Arabic), translation, photography and news-photo presentation.

The journalism students at the American University were fortunate enough to have had, from the outset, a laboratory for practical work — the college newspaper *The Campus Caravan*.

1. Based on a report submitted to the Experts Meeting on Training for Journalism, Paris, 9-13 April 1956.

This was actually started as a student activity long before the department was established and then turned into a practical laboratory for news writing, copyreading, editorial writing, make-up and newspaper administration.

Nevertheless, though published weekly, this journal could never be an adequate laboratory for the department's practical work. Hence, Cairo editors have been approached with a view to arranging with them a system of student part-time apprenticeships on local papers. Under this system, editors would be asked for confidential reports on each student's work, and a three-month period of successful work on a local paper would become a requirement for graduation.

THE EGYPTIAN UNIVERSITY

The Egyptian University at Cairo established its own Institute of Journalism in 1940 with a staff of Egyptian-trained instructors. The officially stated purpose was to teach students writing, translating and journalism over a period of two years.

The institute was more or less considered as being at post-graduate level. To be admitted, a student had to have a university degree, and to pass a written and oral entrance examination in writing, translation and general knowledge.

In 1947 responsible members of the institute began to think seriously of prolonging the study period to three years and of adding technichal and professional courses to the curriculum. In 1948, it was decided that students taking a degree at the institute with distinction should be allowed to pursue their studies for a Doctor's degree in journalism.

A few years later, however, the institute was closed down. It was replaced in 1954 by an undergraduate journalism section offering a four-year course of study.

The courses offered to students in this new department are the same as those of the former institute except for some ameliorations and greater stress on technical and practical subjects. The curriculum now comprises Arabic, English, French, translation, Egyptian history, elementary psychology, social and political sciences, political geography, public opinion, news editing, broadcasting, press legislation, advertising and photography.

CONCLUSIONS

The following suggestions might be made with regard to the improvement and promotion of journalistic education in Egypt and the Middle East in general:

1. Existing departments of journalism in Cairo should periodically engage professors from various countries in which

journalism has reached a high standard to lecture to the students.

2. The students of journalism might be sent abroad on short educational tours during the summer holidays, so as to gain a first-hand knowledge of the work of large newspapers and international news agencies.
3. Scholarships for specialization should be made available to outstanding graduate students in editing, make-up, or newspaper administration for study at American and European universities.
4. Annual seminars might be held in the capitals of the Arab countries, with the participation of well-known journalists and professors of journalism from European, American and Middle East universities. From such study gatherings, reports in Arabic might be published and distributed to journalists and other interested parties in the Middle East.
5. An annual professional publication might be envisaged for the publication of research results, studies and other matters of interest to journalists. This might be issued under the joint supervision of the American and the Egyptian universities in Cairo.
6. Institutes of journalism in the Middle East should be supplied with textbooks on editing, printing, photography and other subjects of interest to students of journalism.
7. A printing plant might be set up where students of both universities could receive practical training.
8. Professors of journalism in the Middle East should be given opportunities of undertaking educational travel outside their area.
9. An institute for Middle East studies might be opened to facilitate the work of press correspondents in the Middle East and to supply them with background knowledge and reference material.
10. Competitions might be instituted for the writing of textbooks in Arabic and English suitable as teaching aids in Middle East schools and institutes of journalism.

Canada

by WILFRID EGGLESTON,
Director of the Department of Journalism,
Carleton University, Ottawa, Canada;
President of the Canada Foundation

Formal full-time training in journalism, leading to a college degree, began in the autumn of 1945. The contrast with the situation in the United States of America and the United Kingdom — Canada's two closest and most influential neighbours — is interesting. By 1945, such training was already well established in the U.S.A. and some of the products of its schools and departments were active in the newspaper and magazine world of Canada. In the U.K. training 'on the job' was given preference over college degrees and little experimentation had taken place in less ambitious diploma courses.

DEGREE AND DIPLOMA COURSES

Two institutions of higher learning now offer a college degree in journalism: Carleton University (Ottawa), and the University of Western Ontario (London, Ontario). Carleton University, founded in 1942, is a non-denominational liberal arts, science, commerce and engineering college with university powers, with a full-time day enrolment of 500 and evening part-time degree classes with a further enrolment of 700. Teaching of journalism at this pioneer journalism school in Canada started in September 1945. The first degrees were granted a year later. The University of Western Ontario organized its journalism courses in 1945-46 and awarded its first degrees in 1948. The present full-time enrolment of the two institutions of journalism, covering four years of enrolment, is about 100 students. Their combined output since 1945 has been 25-30 graduates per year.

Teaching of journalism is also offered in other schools and colleges; but not up to degree level. The Ryerson Institute of Technology (Toronto), with much the largest enrolment in such subjects in Canada, offers a very wide range of vocational and technical training in the communication arts and skills. It is the most elaborately equipped institution for teaching typography, printing, engraving, radio and television broadcasting. In addition to teaching arts and skills, it offers in its diploma course considerable background education in the liberal arts.

King's College (Halifax, Nova Scotia) has a three-year diploma course of which about 80 per cent is college education in the

liberal arts and the remaining 20 per cent practical training and lectures by working newspaper people. The University of Montreal offers evening courses in journalism by practising journalists and writers. The University of Toronto has evening extension courses. Two or three other institutions offer a course labelled 'journalism' as a credit toward an arts degree. There is some high school teaching in the fundamentals of journalism, usually evening courses which are open to the general public.

The two 'degree' courses in Canada came into being not from the initiative of the colleges but at the demand of returning war veterans, who were entitled to college education as part of their veterans' benefits, and many of whom wished to train for journalism. There was no course of this kind in Canada colleges, and the Canadian Government declined to provide an opportunity for them to attend institutions in the U.S.A. for this purpose. The President of Carleton College responded by inviting a group of working journalists from the Parliamentary Press Gallery and the Ottawa press to consider with him the creation of a department or school of journalism at Carleton College. The reaction was favourable and the course in journalism was worked out in the spring and summer of 1945.

STUDY PROGRAMMES

The curriculum in journalism at Carleton College was at first modelled closely on those of similar establishments in the U.S.A. The Director of the Department of Journalism at Carleton College then made some changes to model the curriculum more particularly on that followed at the Graduate School of Journalism at Columbia University. The pattern adopted at the University of Western Ontario was also based on United States experience, and the first director toured schools and departments in the U.S.A. before beginning instruction at London, Ontario. The directors of both institutes were experienced working journalists.

Both courses combined a thorough schooling in the humanities and social sciences with some history of journalism, the law of the press, the social responsibilities of journalists, and with some practical training in the basic skills of journalism. Some attention was paid to related fields, such as news photography, typography and layout, radio broadcasting and public relations. The University of Western Ontario offered a greater range of options. The course was extended to five years from junior matriculation, the degree offered being the Bachelor of Arts with Honours in Journalism. The Carleton course was more like that of Columbia Graduate School in that it concentrated on a basic pattern compulsory for all candidates. Here, the alternative was a four-year pass course, Bachelor of Journalism, or a one-year postgraduate course for Arts graduates from Carleton College or elsewhere.

The 'background' college courses recommended — and to some extent required — that all students of journalism at Carleton University take English, two years of another language, Latin or mathematics (compulsory), philosophy (compulsory), Canadian history (compulsory) and a selection in economics, political science, sociology, psychology, geography, public law. At least one course in a natural science is a requisite. Additional courses in history and English are recommended. The 'theoretical' branches of the journalism course include the history of journalism, the press and society, the law of the press, the ethics of journalism, the philosophy of reporting. The practical work includes realistic exercises in reporting and editing, three weeks' work as cub reporter on an Ottawa newspaper, some actual broadcasting over an Ottawa radio station, and in the final year a major project of investigating and reporting on some live Canadian issue. The University of Western Ontario requires a student to complete 28 courses of which 18½ are in the liberal arts and sciences taught in departments other than the department of journalism; many of these courses are at the honours level.

RECRUITMENT AND AN EVALUATION TO DATE

Students following the two Canadian degree courses are recruited from a very wide area; they come from the ten provinces of the Dominion, and occasionally from England, Ethiopia, Greece, Holland, Turkey, and the West Indies. In 1956-57 two Indonesian students were studying at Carleton College under Colombo Plan arrangements. Other students are expected from Burma. The 1956 graduate class included arts graduates from five Canadian universities and in earlier classes almost every Canadian university was represented.

College courses in journalism in Canada have had to overcome the same kind of doubt and scepticism from the newspaper industry as in the U.S.A. It had to be demonstrated that graduates of schools and departments of journalism were at least as good as graduates in arts, science or commerce. This situation has greatly improved since 1945. Experience has proved to employers of newspaper staffs that a graduate of a good department or school of journalism is on the whole a better risk. He or she is the end-product of a screening process, which, during the college period, eliminates about 50 per cent of those who originally enrol in courses of journalism. The graduate has a good liberal arts education and sufficient skill in reporting, interviewing, research and editing to be able to fit into the average news-room much more quickly than an untrained recruit. Such a junior has a more lively sense of newspaper opportunity and responsibility, and more awareness of the history of the press and its signi-

ficant role in mass education and the workings of a democratic society. Such, at least, is the belief held in Canada.

An analysis of the present occupations of the 165 persons graduated since 1946 from Carleton University showed that about 80 per cent are still actively engaged in journalistic work; most of the rest are married women or members of the armed forces. Many responsible journalistic posts across Canada are now filled by graduates of Canada's two departments of journalism. During the past two or three years it has been impossible to meet the demand for university-trained journalists.

Journalism education is still in the pioneer stages in Canada. There are many ways in which the present situation could be improved. Following are some of the suggestions put forward:

1. More scholarship aid to maintain a flow of interested, capable and talented students.
2. Instruction within a liberal arts college of high standard; acceptance by the college authorities of the journalism course as worthy of full endorsement. To secure this acceptance, the course must be on a high level, concentrating on principles rather than on techniques and 'tricks of the trade'.
3. Teachers of journalism should be persons who have won national recognition in the newspaper world, and who have enough academic standing to move freely in college circles.
4. The newspaper and radio industry must co-operate with the journalistic departments of the colleges and recognize the graduates as desirable potential staff members.

United States of America: Journalism

by Burton W. Marvin,
Dean, William Allen White School of Journalism,
University of Kansas, U.S.A.

In 1953 the American Council on Education for Journalism (ACEJ), a nation-wide organization representing both professional and academic interests, found, after a survey of 1,621 institutions of higher education, that 672 of them offer one or more courses in journalism, 161 an undergraduate major in journalism, and 35 a graduate degree programme in journalism.

The educational objective in offering journalism was said by 352 institutions to be 'to contribute to the general education of students majoring in some subject other than journalism'; 174 said they offered courses in journalism 'to provide special training in journalism for students preparing for another field that

requires some knowledge of journalism techniques'; 120 said their aim was 'to prepare students for professional training in journalism at another institution'; 41 declared their objective was 'to provide a two-year terminal programme in journalism for junior college students who plan to enter journalism upon completion of junior college (equivalent of freshman and sophomore years)'; 131 said they offered a major 'providing full professional training for journalism'; and 18 said they offered 'a major for students interested in journalism, with the major regarded by the institution as not having professional training as its goal'.

The 131 institutions which offer a major 'providing full professional training for journalism' constitute the group of institutions of immediate concern in this paper.

THE PRESENT PICTURE

Up to 1957, the American Council on Education for Journalism had accredited 102 sequences[1] of journalistic study (for example, news-editorial or advertising majors) in 45 American universities and colleges.[2] By and large, education for journalism has reached its fullest development in these institutions — in terms of number of students, financial support and facilities. It is of interest to point out that 37 of these 45 institutions are state universities or colleges. This means that professional education for journalism has found its place more in the public than in the private institution.

A further pertinent fact is that 19 of the 45 accredited schools and departments are in the Middle West, with only 5 in the East. The largest schools —all in the Middle West — are Missouri, with 276 upperclassmen (juniors, seniors and graduate students); Northwestern, with 278; Illinois, with 255; and Minnesota, with 213. All but Northwestern University are state universities (all the figures given are for autumn, 1956).

Some schools of journalism, such as Missouri, Northwestern, Illinois, Kansas, Columbia and Oregon, are autonomous divisions within universities, but most of the schools and departments are units within the colleges of liberal arts and sciences of their respective institutions. Such large journalistic units as Minnesota and Texas are under the jurisdiction of the general colleges and are known as schools. The typical autonomous school has a dean at its head; the typical school within the college of liberal arts and sciences is headed by a director. The numerous departments of journalism throughout the country are, for the most part, headed by men carrying the title of chaiman or

1. A sequence is defined by the ACEJ as a group of related courses intended to prepare a student for specialization in a particular branch of study.
2. A list of the accredited institutions is given at the end of this article.

head and are in most cases within the colleges of liberal arts and sciences.

The Scope of Communications Study

Twenty-five years ago the typical school of journalism was concerned solely with newspaper journalism; and journalism denoted newspaper work in the minds of most laymen and educators. Today instruction at a large school will encompass, in addition to all aspects of newspaper work, radio, television, magazines of all types, photography, public relations and advertising.

Partly because of this, and also because of a search for a broader word than journalism, several institutions have adopted the word 'communications' in their names. For example, what was formerly the University of Illinois School of Journalism became in 1957 the University of Illinois College of Journalism and Communications. Subject matter covered includes the newspaper, radio and television, and advertising.

In 1955, the University of Southern California established a Division of Communication within the College of Letters, Arts and Sciences under a director. The division has separate departments of cinema, drama and telecommunications and a school of journalism. This step is particularly noteworthy because it shows recognition on the part of university administrators of the fact that the emergence of such media as radio and television has brought with it a blending — in actual professional practice — of journalism and the dramatic arts. Journalistic techniques and dramatic and speech techniques naturally fall under the heading of communications.

Also in 1955, Michigan State University created a College of Communications Arts, placed a dean in charge and placed the departments of speech and journalism within the College. The University said that a study would be made to consider the transfer of other related curricula to the new College.

Graduate Study and Research

Of the 35 journalism schools and departments offering graduate degree programmes, one, the Graduate School of Journalism at Columbia University, New York City, offers only graduate work. Each year it enrols about 65 students with a sound liberal arts background and a Bachelor's degree from colleges and universities through the U.S.A. — and from other countries. These students receive the Master of Science degree after one year of intensive professional study.

No other school or department of journalism offers instruction solely at graduate level, but many have full Master's degree programmes. The Medill School of Journalism at Northwestern University, Evanston and Chicago, Illinois instituted a

five-year plan in 1938. Under this plan, the student entering as a freshman is registered in the pre-professional division, where he spends three years taking courses in English, economics, history, political science, sociology and other liberal arts subjects important to the citizen and the journalist. He also takes some introductory courses in journalism, but the bulk of his journalism courses comes in the forth and fifth years, after he has entered the professional division. Approximately 80 per cent of a student's work in the first four years is devoted to general education, with only 20 per cent of his time devoted to journalistic studies. During this period he must complete a minor of 24 to 28 hours in a specialized branch of study, for example, in one of the social sciences.

In the fifth year at Medill, a student concentrates on professional courses in journalism, principally non-technical, since most of the technical courses (basic reporting, editing and typography) have been taken in the third and fourth years. Coming under the non-technical heading, for example, are contemporary affairs, news-room problems and policies (where problems of ethics and responsibility are given thorough study), editorial administration, newspaper and advertising management and seminars.

Because of the growing realization that the communications media are just as legitimate areas of research as are the various sciences and social sciences, graduate study in journalism or communications, or both, has gone beyond the Master's level in recent years. Some schools now offer the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. These include the Universities of Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, Missouri, Wisconsin, Stanford University, Syracuse University and Northwestern University.

In general, the programmes are intended (a) for students who plan careers in professional journalism and desire to rise to leading positions by acquiring a wide general knowledge as well as the various practical skills; (b) for those wishing to become experts in mass communications research; and (c) for teachers of journalism and others planning careers in college teaching.

The majority of the schools offering the Ph.D. degree give special emphasis to mass communications research, and most of the student's time is given to a study of statistical methods, the evaluation of the various media and of public opinion, the investigation of other research techniques and, of course, the application of these techniques to communication problems.

These advanced programmes are devoted mainly to the study of journalism and related topics rather than to professional training for journalism. They are, of course, important, but in this context the summary description above will suffice.

TYPICAL TRAINING FACILITIES AND METHODS

The following generalizations would seem justified in the light of experience:

1. The typical school or department of journalism in the U.S.A. sees to it that at least 75 per cent of the student's time is devoted to the liberal arts and sciences — English, languages and the natural and social sciences. Not more than 25 per cent, therefore, is given to journalism courses.
2. The typical school or department insists that each student be trained in basic reporting and editing techniques regardless of the medium studied — newspaper or radio or advertising, for example.
3. Well-equipped laboratories for editing, reporting, typography, photography, radio and television are provided, with two aims in mind: (a) to give the student technical training under conditions similar to those under which he will work in the field, and (b) to give this training as speedily and efficiently as possible so that most of the student's time may be devoted to liberal and non-technical courses. Improved laboratory facilities have become available with the construction of new journalism buildings or the renovation of existing buildings at many universities and colleges since the war. Fine new buildings have been opened since 1950 at such institutions as the Universities of Iowa, Indiana, Kentucky, Oregon and Texas, while the schools of journalism at the University of Kansas and Northwestern University, among others, have moved into beautifully remodelled structures.
4. The typical curriculum includes a number of study sequences. For example, a school may have a news-editorial sequence, which a student wishing to prepare for a career as a reporter and editor must complete in order to qualify for graduation. The sequence consists of a group of courses designed to give the student a well-rounded background in the area of activity in which he will be working on a newspaper. Virtually all schools have a news-editorial sequence.
5. The typical school or department regards service to the profession as part of its total function. Short courses for editors, circulation managers, radio news editors, public relations officers and advertising men are offered at many institutions, and close relations are maintained with organizations within these professions.
6. The typical school or department has its own placement bureau, serving as a liaison agency between graduating students and prospective employers.

A Typical Course of Studies

A case history of Student A at the University of Kansas[1]

1. The author's university.

will give a good illustration of how training for journalism proceeds in a typical accredited school of journalism at a United States university.

Student A probably has gained a little journalistic experience by working on his high school paper. Very likely it was this that prompted him to take up a career in journalism. He enters the university as a freshman, and during his first two semesters devotes all his academic time to such compulsory courses as English, biology, a foreign language, a basic speech course and Western civilization.

In his second (sophomore) year Student A, who we shall assume plans to make the news-editorial sequence his principal branch of study, will devote 24 hours of his normal 30-hour programme to continued general studies. At the same time he will also take 'Communications in Society', a course that surveys the entire field of journalism including newspapers, radio, television, magazines, public relations and advertising. He can also take 'Reporting I', the elementary course in reporting, with four hours of supervised practical work for every hour of lectures. He learns how to write news stories, starting with one-paragraph items, and gathers news for the *Daily Kansan*, the campus daily and laboratory newspaper for the University's William Allen White School of Journalism and Public Information. He finds that the reporter is not an automaton, but a human being who must be well acquainted with and well informed about the community around him if he is to do his work successfully.

At the end of the second year, if he has met the entrance requirements of the School of Journalism, Student A is permitted to transfer to it from the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences. By this time he has accumulated 54 hours of general credits and 6 hours of credits in journalism. In other words, he has been required to concentrate upon general education for two years.

In his junior and senior years he will have to take 64 additional hours of work in order to satisfy the 124-hour graduation requirement. He must take advanced reporting, working at least 8 hours each week as a reporter for the *Daily Kansan* and at least 2 hours a week in the reporting laboratory. He will visit meetings of the City Commission and court sessions to learn at first-hand how government and courts of justice work and how the reporter covers them.

Student A must take two semesters of editing. In the first semester he will undergo rigorous training in checking, correcting, reorganizing and headlining news and feature stories. This work is done in the editing laboratory, which includes two copy desks, a well-stocked reference shelf, and plenty of bulletin board space for posting examples illustrating points the instructor is hammering home in lectures or during laboratory sessions.

In advanced editing, the student works at least 5 hours a week on the 'rim' of the *Daily Kansan* copy desk, actually doing for newspaper publication what he has been taught to do in the elementary course. He will continue to attend lectures and practical sessions in the editing laboratory, during which he will receive instruction in handling press service stories from overseas, throughout the U.S.A. and throughout his own state. He will learn, perhaps by being caught short, that he must keep up on world, domestic and state news in order to be a competent newspaperman. He will learn that journalism is simply 'applied liberal arts' in the sense that what he learns, for instance in political science courses, is highly useful to the newspaperman and in turn to the public that the newspaperman must inform. In this course he also will learn about makeup and news evaluation.

By this time, Student A has worked two semesters under a man who is an experienced newspaperman with a higher university degree. This faculty member is on hand advising the students — and prodding them if necessary — as they put together newspapers after graduation.

Student A will by now be interested to the point where he finds the course in editorial writing, news interpretation and news and feature researching an absorbing experience. If he is a good student, he will eagerly pursue the facts behind the news. Probably he will write editorials for his university daily and become editor in his senior year. On this job he may at some time or other express an opinion without getting all of the facts, and he will learn the hard way that reporting is of basic importance to the editorial as well as to the news columns. This course in editorial writing and news interpretation will teach him to use the numerous source books so necessary in his career as a journalist, and he will learn that it is just as important to know where to look for something as it is to know something. In other words, he will establish essential habits of newspaper practice.

Student A will assume executive positions on the *Daily Kansan*, perhaps as city editor, in which capacity he must keep a 'future book' of events and activities coming up in his community and assign reporters to beats and see to it that they bring in the news. At this stage, he develops qualities of imagination, perception and leadership.

As he is going through these practical courses he continues his general work in the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences and non-technical studies in the School of Journalism. For example, he must take 'History of American Journalism', so as to develop an understanding of the interrelationships between the press and national development and of the growth of the modern press.

The course in 'Editorial Problems and Policies' stimulates discussion on actual problem cases pertaining to ethics and

responsibility in journalism. Student A will work on such analyses and specialized documents as the Report of the Commission on Freedom of the Press, and he will personally analyse the performance of his home town daily or weekly newspaper with regard to standards of ethics and responsibility.

Student A will also take an obligatory course in 'Law of the Press', studying the laws of libel, questions of the right of privacy, copyright, privilege and other legal aspects of newspaper production. He is required to look up cases in the Law School library and to brief them, thus becoming acquainted with legal processes as well as with specific features of libel litigation.

In another course, 'Newspaper Administration', he learns about the material aspect of newspaper production such as circulation management and cost accounting. Here again he is given problems and is told to solve them by going to basic sources for information.

Finally, Student A takes 'Reporting of Public Affairs'. The major portion of class-room time is devoted to study of local, county and state governmental bodies and procedures and to courts at all levels. Student A is now also required to work half a day a week on a daily newspaper in the area, and the city editor of that daily periodically submits detailed reports on his work as a reporter and a writer. Here he encounters some tests of his abilities on a professional level. If he does well he is likely to have a job offered to him.

The chances are that Student A will work in a course in news photography, for he will learn that the typical daily newspaper in the U.S.A. — that in the small city — tends more and more to expect the reporter to be a photographer and vice versa.

In the final semester of his senior year Student A is called to a meeting where all seniors are briefed on how to go about getting a job. They are given information on jobs already referred to the school, and cards on jobs are posted as they come in. Student A finds that he has a wide choice of jobs and that newspaper editors are becoming more methodical in their recruiting methods than in the past.

During his two professional years — as a junior and senior — Student A probably has become a member of a professional fraternity or club for journalists, and he may have become acquainted with practising newspapermen in nearby cities.

Although journalism has no such characteristics of the legal and medical professions as licensing, entrance examinations and other formal criteria, Student A may be expected, by this time, to have recognized and given prior loyalty to the standards of his profession. He has had his baptism of fire, so to speak, and if he has responded to the challenge on his university newspaper he will probably be equal to the situation when he enters a commercial newspaper.

Points of Variation

The story of this anonymous student will vary in detail according to the institution at which he studies — for facilities and curricula do show variations — but in essence the story will remain typical.

At many schools the campus daily or weekly is not officially a laboratory newspaper, but almost invariably it is run by journalism students and therefore serves as a laboratory in a practical although informal sense. Virtually all schools and departments have worked out arrangements that provide students with the opportunity of getting their writing in print and instructors with the opportunity to check the actual printed production of their students.

In a number of institutions, such as the Universities of Kansas, Missouri, Kentucky, Oregon and Texas, complete composing and printing plants are housed in the schools and the newspaper production process is completed within the same building. The student therefore goes to school and at the same time works as an apprentice newspaperman in a complete newspaper plant.

Specialized Radio, Television, Advertising Sequences

Students majoring in such sequences as advertising or radio and television have four years of college experience comparable to that gained by Student A in the news editorial sequence. The advertising student, for example, becomes thoroughly versed in the preparation of copy and layout, in selling advertising for the newspaper, in marketing, and in planning an advertising campaign for an actual product in co-operation with an actual advertising agency and an actual industry producing the product. The radio student, as likely as not, in conjunction with the appropriate courses, performs routine and executive duties in the operation of a campus radio station and utilizes the resources of his college community for programming, just as he will utilize resources of his community for programming on any station for which he goes to work after graduation.

Training Equipment

A factual account of the facilities and methods of education for journalism must include some information on the equipment utilized in schools of journalism, in their laboratories and courses. Student A worked with the following:

1. In the reporting laboratory: one of 16 typewriters available at all times for student practice both during and outside formal laboratory sessions; a dictionary and, in the reading room, additional reference material such as encyclopedias.
2. In the editing laboratory: a place on the rim of a large copy desk, patterned after such desks on commercial

newspapers; such reference material as dictionaries, an atlas, a postal guide of place names, maps and a style-book.
3. In the *Daily Kansan* quarters: any one of 16 typewriters; a copy desk; a scan-a-graver (on which plastic picture cuts are made); a library of clippings (the morgue); a file of pictures and cuts; a teletype machine for state, domestic and foreign news; numerous reference books.
4. In the photographic laboratory: any one of five Omega enlargers, contact printers, driers, washers, a variety of cameras, lighting equipment and any one of four darkrooms.

Of course he attended classes in rooms equipped for standard lectures and also equipped with blackout curtains and facilities for showing slides, film strips or films. A typical institution may, like Kansas University, have a Bureau of Visual Instruction with a film library containing material related to virtually all subjects covered in the university, including journalism.

Field Trips

Field trips take the student into newspaper plants, advertising agencies, radio and television stations and other communications establishments within the area. Such trips can only be organized with the full co-operation of the men who run the establishments. A growing boon to journalism education in the U.S.A. is the generosity of most operators in this respect.

However, full co-operation in such matters does not necessarily denote absolute professional approval of journalistic education as it stands today.

BRIEF HISTORY AND APPRAISAL

Departments and schools of journalism have their critics within the field of journalism just as law and medical schools have their critics. But since journalistic education is youthful compared with education in these other two fields, it may be said that journalistic education is challenged and examined more thoroughly than are the schools in these other professional fields.

The situation is a healthy one, if only because critical analysis denotes interest. In considering criticisms and diverse opinions as to what constitutes proper methodology and content in professional training for journalism, it is important to remember that professional education for journalism is only half a century old.

As is often true of innovations, professional education for journalism came on the scene in turbulent times. In 1869, General Robert E. Lee, who only four years earlier had been the leader of the defeated Confederate Army and who then was President of Washington College in Virginia (later Washington

and Lee), sent to the college's board of trustees 'the proposition recommending the institution of 50 scholarships for young men proposing to make printing or journalism their profession'. The trustees adopted the recommendation and requested that arrangements be made with a printing establishment to afford 'practical instruction'. General Lee's idea was that such journalistic education could be useful in rehabilitating the South.

Actually, the Lee plan went very little beyond the plan stage, and the entire programme was abandoned in 1878. However, the very fact that the programme was initiated was symptomatic of a stirring of thought as to the desirability of bringing educated persons into journalism.

Early Journalism Courses

In 1873, Kansas State College launched a course in practical printing. In 1876 and 1877 a course of lectures on journalism was delivered at Cornell University, and considerable publicity was given to the inauguration of a course in journalism at Cornell in 1888, although the experiment was a failure and was dropped.

Joseph Pulitzer's signing of an agreement with Columbia University in 1903 to establish a School of Journalism at that university was the first giant stride in the field. 'There are now special schools for instruction for lawyers, physicians, clergymen, military and naval officers, engineers, architects and artists, but none for instruction of journalists', he said. 'That all other professions and not journalism should have the advantage of special training seems to me contrary to reason. I have felt that I could contribute in no more effectual way to the benefit of my profession and to the public good than by providing for, founding and maintaining adequate schools of journalism.' The Columbia School of Journalism was financed by funds from Mr. Pulitzer totalling $2,500,000; it was opened in 1912, and since 1934 it has been known as the Graduate School of Journalism.

The University of Missouri School of Journalism came into being in 1908, the first independent school to be established in this profession.

Expansion in the Thirties

In the next two decades the number of courses, departments and schools increased year by year until, in the mid-1930s, courses were offered in 455 colleges and universities.

The rapid increase in the number of courses offered represented recognition of journalism as a legitimate academic subject, but newspapermen and journalism educators found cause for concern in the lack of properly trained teaching personnel in many institutions which were producing graduates who were not equipped to enter newspaper work.

APPRAISALS OF OBJECTIVES AND METHODS; ACCREDITING

In the U.S.A., as pointed out earlier, the profession of journalism has no control over those who enter the field by such means as licensing or entrance examinations. It cannot enforce standards in the way that law and medicine can. Most educators and practising journalists agree that the application of any such controls would infringe on the right of freedom of expression and freedom of the press, set out in the First Amendment to the Constitution.

Establishing Standards (American Council on Education for Journalism)

Efforts to establish standards have evolved through formal co-operation between practising journalists and teachers of journalism. In 1930, the Joint Committee of Schools of Journalism and Newspaper Groups was formed. Primarily because of the impact of the depression, this organization faded out, but in 1938, the National Council on Professional Education for Journalism was established. In 1945, this organization became the American Council on Education for Journalism (ACEJ), with its membership made up of both teaching and professional representatives.

ACEJ set up an accrediting programme that involved detailed analyses of schools and departments by mail questionnaire and visiting teams. Facilities, the quality of faculties, teaching methods, libraries, the standard of general education and many other features of schools and departments seeking accredited status were examined with care, and between 1940 and 1950 ACEJ accredited 40 schools and departments.

The object was to ascertain which schools and departments clearly maintained high standards and thus to present to prospective students and to their potential employers a list of institutions demonstrably capable of educating young people for careers in journalism.

Certain jealousies among educators confused the picture and other difficulties forced ACEJ to suspend its accrediting programme. In 1953 the quarrelling factions made up their differences and ACEJ resumed its accrediting programme.

The original members of the council were the American Association of Schools and Departments of Journalism and the following organizations of the industry: American Newspaper Publishers Association, American Society of Newspaper Editors, Inland Daily Press Association, National Editorial Association and the Southern Newspaper Publishers Association.

The National Association of Radio and Television Broadcasters became a member of the council in 1952, the Association for Education in Journalism and the American Society of Jour-

nalism School Administrators joined in 1953, and in 1957 the Magazine Publishers Association, Inc., became a member.

The council is financed by contributions from its constituent members. The objectives of the council as set forth in its constitution are:

1. To enhance the professional status of journalism by stimulating and encouraging sound programmes of education for journalism.
2. To aid in the co-ordination of education for journalism and the needs of the profession.
3. To further the study and the investigation of problems in the field of education for journalism as these may be referred to the council by a constituent member or by an individual member on the council.
4. To define and, in so far as possible, to gain acceptance for minimum standards for professional education for journalism.
5. To act as a voluntary accrediting agency for educational programmes in journalism.

The activities of the council have included a programme of refresher training for teachers of news reporting, a project to present adequate and accurate guidance material to high school students interested in professional journalism, and the collection of information on educational programmes in journalism.

The first accrediting programme of the council was undertaken in 1946 and was financed by a grant of $15,000 from the Carnegie Corporation. A statement of policy was adopted which provided for the accrediting of educational programmes in journalism by sequences. A sequence is defined as a group of related courses intended to prepare a student for specialization in a particular branch of study.

Accrediting policies. ACEJ engages in the following evaluation activities: (a) Accrediting of one or more sequences in journalism through an inspection requested by the head of the institution, notice being given to the appropriate regional accrediting agency; (b) accrediting of one or more sequences in journalism as part of a general inspection of an institution conducted by a regional accrediting agency with ACEJ participation; (c) the evaluation of one or more sequences in journalism as part of a general inspection of an institution by a regional accrediting agency but without formal accrediting by ACEJ.

The following was adopted as a statement of the purpose of ACEJ accrediting of professional programmes in journalism:

1. To stimulate the constant improvement of education for journalism through continuing review of objectives, programme and results.
2. To describe the characteristics of schools and departments of journalism worthy of public recognition as professional schools.
3. To guide prospective students in journalism and allied fields

in choosing a school or department of journalism which will adequately meet their educational needs.
4. To serve as a guide to employers in all mass communication fields as to which schools and departments of journalism are recognized as presenting professional programmes worthy of approval.
5. To promote a closer relationship among the mass communications media, communications research organizations, and the schools and departments of journalism, with the idea of meeting the educational and professional needs of the areas which the schools serve.

Professional programmes. As ACEJ sees it, professional schools and departments of journalism are distinguished by the following characteristics:
1. They maintain a professional programme with one or more specialized sequences, leading to a Bachelor's degree and/or an advanced degree or degrees in journalism.
2. They carry on the general professional training of journalists, at the same time giving due consideration to services to the profession and to research.
3. They strive to serve not only media of national scope but also the media of their own states or sections where regional knowledge and experience are expected in staff workers.
4. They are committed to a liberal philosophy of professional training which places strong emphasis on liberal art studies as well as on journalistic techniques.
5. They provide close relationships between student and teacher.
6. They provide each student with rigorous training in techniques and procedures, with maximum laboratory training and individual attention.
7. They have been developed in response to public and professional needs and have many successful graduates.

LIST OF ACCREDITED INSTITUTIONS
(Years of most recent inspection shown in parenthesis)

1. University of Alabama, University, Ala., Department of Journalism: news-editorial (1957).
2. Boston University, Boston, Mass., Division of Journalism: news-editorial (1956).
3. University of Colorado, Boulder, Colo., College of Journalism: advertising, news-editorial (1955).
4. Columbia University, New York, N.Y., Graduate School of Journalism: news-editorial (1957).
5. Florida State University, Tallahassee, Fla., School of Journalism: advertising (1955).
6. University of Florida, Gainesville, Fla., School of Journalism and Communications-Advertising: news-editorial (1955).

7. University of Georgia, Athens, Ga., Henry W. Grady School of Journalism: news-editorial (1948); advertising, business public relations (1957).
8. University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill., College of Journalism and Communications Advertising: news-editorial, radio-television (1956).
9. Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind., Department of Journalism: business advertising, news-editorial, pictorial journalism, magazine journalism, radio and television news (1956).
10. Iowa State College of Agricultural and Mechanic Arts, Ames, Ia., Department of Technical Journalism: agricultural journalism, home economics journalism, science journalism (1955).
11. State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Ia., School of Journalism: advertising, community journalism, editorial journalism, magazine journalism, pictorial journalism, radio journalism (1955).
12. Kansas State College of Agriculture and Applied Science, Manhattan, Kan., Department of Technical Journalism: agricultural journalism, home economics and journalism, news-editorial (1955).
13. University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kan., William Allen White School of Journalism and Public Information: business advertising, news-editorial, radio (1955).
14. University of Kentucky, Lexington, Ky., School of Journalism: news-editorial, publishing, radio (1956).
15. Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College, Baton Rouge, La., School of Journalism: news-editorial (1957).
16. Marquette University, Milwaukee, Wis., College of Journalism: news-editorial, advertising (1957).
17. Michigan State University of Agriculture and Applied Science, East Lansing, Mich., School of Journalism: advertising, news-editorial (1957).
18. University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich., Department of Journalism: news-editorial (1956).
19. University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn., School of Journalism: advertising management, news-editorial (1956).
20. University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo., School of Journalism: agricultural journalism, news-editorial, weekly and small daily, advertising and production, photo journalism, radio-television (1956).
21. Montana State University, Missoula, Mont., School of Journalism, advertising, news-editorial, radio (1957).
22. University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Neb., School of Journalism: news-editorial professional certificate programme (1955).
23. University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, N.M., Department of Journalism: news-editorial (1955).
24. Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill., Medill School of

Journalism: news-editorial, radio-television news, advertising management, magazine (1956).

25. Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, School of Journalism: management, news-editorial (1956).
26. Ohio University, Athens, Ohio, School of Journalism: advertising management, news writing and editing, radio-television journalism (1957).
27. Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Stillwater, Okla., Department of Technical Journalism: agricultural journalism, community journalism, home economics journalism, industrial editing (1957).
28. University of Oklahoma, Norman, Okla., School of Journalism: business advertising, general editorial, professional writing, public relations (1957).
29. University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore., School of Journalism: advertising management, news-editorial (1955).
30. Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pa., School of Journalism: advertising, editorial (1956).
31. Rutgers University, New Brunswick, N.J., School of Journalism: news-editorial, business advertising (1956).
32. San José State College, San José, Calif., Department of Journalism and Advertising: reporting and editing (1955).
33. University of South Carolina, Columbia, S.C., School of Journalism: news-editorial (1954).
34. South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Brooking, S.D., Department of Printing and Journalism: community journalism (1956).
35. Stanford University, Palo Alto, Calif., Department of Communication and Journalism: news-editorial (1957).
36. Syracuse University, Syracuse, N.Y., School of Journalism: advertising, magazine, newspaper (1957).
37. University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn., Department of Journalism: news-editorial (1955).
38. Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College, College Station, Texas, Department of Journalism: agricultural journalism, community journalism (1956).
39. University of Texas, Austin, Tex., School of Journalism: advertising, community journalism, magazine editing, news-editorial (1955).
40. Texas State College for Women, Denton, Tex., Department of Journalism: news-editorial (1957).
41. Tulane University of Louisiana, New Orleans, La., Department of Journalism: news-editorial (1957).
42. University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah, Department of Journalism: news-editorial (1957).
43. University of Washington, Seattle, Wash., School of Communications: editorial, advertising and management, radio-television (1957).
44. Washington and Lee University, Lexington, Va., Department of Journalism: news-editorial (1957).

45. University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis., School of Journalism and Department of Agricultural Journalism: agricultural journalism, home economics journalism, news-editorial, advertising management (1957).

United States of America: Radio and Television Journalism

by HARRY HEATH,
Department of Technical Journalism,
Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa, U.S.A.

A TRANSITIONAL PERIOD

Recent studies indicated that a proportion of about eight out of ten of the 107 schools and departments of journalism listed in the 1956 *Editor and Publisher Yearbook* offer courses in broadcast journalism. However, it must be added that only about one out of every eight of these schools satisfied the strict requirements of the American Council on Education for Journalism: of the 45 schools accredited by the council, seven are accredited in radio and four are accredited[1] in joint radio-television sequences.

To describe the present status of professional training in radio and television news in America, let us draw some generalizations from data which the writer collected in his recent study.[2] It appears that training for broadcast journalism is at present in a transitional period. The early pattern of radio training was extremely varied, but by 1948 a fairly consistent approach among the leading schools of journalism was being developed. With the advent of television, a transitional period set in. This period of curricular experimentation will probably be with us for some time, as a result of changing techniques, new technical developments, and other factors.

Among the universities which the writer knows best, it appears that two approaches are evolving. The first is to combine radio and television news courses. This approach is almost a necessity in schools of journalism with small teaching staffs. The other approach, which seems to lend itself to larger schools with more adequate personnel, is to have separate radio and television courses. While this latter approach generally is found

1. According to the latest information on accredited institutions (see pp. 114-117), six radio-television and four radio sequences are at present accredited by the ACEJ.
2. H. Heath, *Summary of Teaching Aids Survey of the Council on Radio-Television Journalism.* Mimeographed report dated 23 August 1956.

only in major schools of journalism, it is not found in all such schools. Some of the large schools believe that a more realistic approach is to combine the content of radio and television courses. Course titles such as these are rather common: 'Radio and Television in Society', 'Radio-Television Speech and Writing', 'Radio and Television News', 'Radio and Television Continuity Writing', 'Radio and Television Advertising', etc.

The transitional period has brought with it real problems with respect to teaching materials. While there were adequate books on radio news, no thorough treatment of television news has appeared in book form. Thus, teachers tend to make assignments from many sources — magazine articles, general books on radio and television, talks given by professional newsmen, etc. Most teachers of radio and television journalism also require their students to read various specialized news publications in this field. For most teachers a crucial problem is that of obtaining timely materials for television news production. A single news wire service is adequate for radio news training, but the television news teacher needs a source of timely pictures from around the world; he should have access to motion picture footage of major news events, etc. These materials are very costly, and are not readily available to some teachers.

Less than half of the institutions most active in radio and television news training have organized probationary periods when students take part in actual station work. Such opportunities should be made more widely available. Before graduating, the student should have had an opportunity to spend some time in a real newsroom situation, under the watchful eye of a practising professional. Some probationary arrangements involve a few hours work a week throughout the school year, while others are highly concentrated summer periods of practical experience.

There are other aspects of the transitional period in radio and television news training. Teaching facilities, especially for television news, are improving much more slowly than most teachers feel they should. However, access to closed-circuit television equipment, which is part of the minimum essential facilities for television news training, is becoming more and more common. For example, 20 out of the 30 schools supplying information on this point in the recent study reported having access to such equipment in their television news courses. Arrangements for the use of equipment are usually on an interdepartmental basis.

It might be well here to observe that the transitional period is bringing with it more inter-disciplinary co-operation than in the past. Professors of speech and drama and professors of journalism have begun to realize that the cost of training facilities for television may be too great for each to have his own studios. Thus, more and more the approach has been

on an inter-departmental basis, with a sharing of equipment by the disciplines concerned.

There has been a steady growth in instruction in motion picture news photography. This, of course, is because of the importance of film in television. About one out of every three of the leading schools teaching 'electronic journalism' offers motion picture training as one aspect of the total education of students working towards broadcasting careers. Some schools have as many as seven 16-mm cameras available for student use. The average among schools engaged in this work is two cameras and two complete sets of editing equipment.

Co-operation with the industry continues to be good during the transitional period. Stations are offering opportunities for live broadcasts by students, are providing certain teaching materials and are encouraging student-employee arrangements in many cases.

THE NATURE OF RADIO-TELEVISION TRAINING

How much training in radio and television journalism does a student receive? One state-owned university which is regarded as one of the most effective in the field of electronic journalism lists 14 broadcasting courses. The student who intends to enter the field professionally is required to take at least five of these courses. In some cases he may take more.

How much journalism is the student required to take in all? Generally about 25 per cent of the student's total course work will be in journalism. About half of this will be in professional broadcasting courses. If the student plans to enter radio and television news work, his training must be built upon a sound foundation of basic journalistic techniques. For this reason, courses in basic reporting and editing and in the legal aspects of communications, etc., are included in the student's programme.

Most teachers of journalism and professional news broadcasters seem to agree that to become a radio or television newsman, one must be a newsman first. Training for this work must be basically journalistic training. Courses in radio and television news should be open only to those students who are thoroughly grounded in news judgement and values, news gathering and writing, news editing—the foundation courses in a professional school of journalism.[1]

A Columbia Broadcasting System newsman has emphasized this point of view with these words:[2]

'Teaching television news techniques is not enough. Learning

1. The Council on Radio Journalism, 'Developments in Teaching Radio Journalism 1945-50', *Journalism quarterly*, Vol. 28, No. 1, 1951, p. 86.
2. Chester F. X. Burger, 'Preparing the Student for a TV News Job', *Journalism quarterly*, Vol. 30, No. 1. 1953, p. 63.

the "mechanics' must be preceded by an understanding of two important factors. The first is the ability to be a good newsman in any medium; that is, to know what makes a good news story and to have a good sense of news values. This understanding can only be acquired in a thorough course of journalistic training and is certainly not peculiar to television. The second characteristic is an understanding of the unique and peculiar characteristics of television.'

The characteristics of television require that the student should have adequate technical knowledge to enable him to translate events into visual terms. He must know the essentials of graphic art. And he must be trained to write with reference to the picture, rather than to describe the event in mere visual terms or 'word pictures'.

From time to time teachers in the U.S.A. discuss the need for special courses in news-collecting techniques for students of broadcasting. The consensus of opinion following such discussion generally is that basic reporting techniques are very much alike for all media. It is unnecessary to introduce new radio and television courses giving a slightly new twist to techniques already adequately taught in other courses.

The pattern of education in this field is quite varied. In most schools of journalism, the training is primarily at the undergraduate level. In a few, radio and television journalism is largely a fifth-year programme. At some institutions where the school of journalism concept has given way to the broader concept of the school of communications, there is close co-operation between the different departments concerned with broadcasting. In such a school of communications, the speech and drama department and the journalism department are of equal status, and support one another in their inter-disciplinary approach to training the broadcasting journalist. Where the work is less closely integrated, the units of speech and journalism are often at odds over questions of jurisdiction and methods of training.

Such friction was more widespread a few years ago, when the problem was relatively simple. Since the advent of television and the complexities it has brought, greater co-operation has been absolutely necessary on many campuses, again primarily for economic reasons. This has helped bring about a more truly inter-disciplinary approach than anything which has happened up to now.

EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS IN BROADCAST JOURNALISM[1]

What standards have we set for ourselves in radio and tele-

1. This section is based upon the revised educational standards prepared by the Council on Radio and Television Journalism in 1956. The revision of the original 1945 standards was directed by Professor Mitchell V. Charnley of the University of Minnesota.

vision journalism? We have standards, but they are rather broad and general. The Council on Radio and Television Journalism does not feel that it should lay down detailed requirements for individual courses, nor for departmental jurisdiction. These are matters for each school and its administrative and academic departments to decide.

The council believes that the basis of training for radio and television journalism is a sound general education. Such an education will provide a foundation for an understanding of the modern world in which broadcasting is a vitally important means of communication. This broad education should be part of a four-year curriculum leading to the Bachelor's degree.

At the completion of such a curriculum, the student should have gained a comprehensive background in the social studies: government and political science, economics, history, geography and sociology; a grounding in natural science and psychology; and a broad knowledge of English and American literature and composition. This broad, general education should constitute the major portion of the student's work.

During his four years of college, the student should be given an opportunity to appreciate the importance of broadcasting as a social instrument and of its relationship to government, industry and the public. He should be thoroughly educated in the broad field of mass communications, with special emphasis upon radio, television and the press. This general background should include the history of communications, government regulations and the relationship between broadcasters and the government, both in the U.S.A. and abroad, the social and legal responsibilities of radio and television and their influence in the formation of public opinion, their position as advertising media, the standards of practice of the broadcasting industry, public attitudes toward broadcasting, and some knowledge of audience measurement and other survey methods.

The student should be offered training of professional quality in the skills and techniques of radio and television journalism, together with an appreciation of other aspects of broadcasting. He should understand the social-psychological nature of news. He should know the basic sources of news, and how to use them. News gathering, writing and editing techniques are essential. An understanding of the various news services and their methods of operation should be included in training for radio and television news.

SUMMARY

In American teaching of journalism, only one-fourth of the student's course work is in journalistic subjects, with the remainder in other disciplines, largely the social sciences. The typical student planning a professional career in broadcasting uses a

little less than half of his total journalistic credits in speech, radio and television courses. Training for radio and television news work appears to be in a transitional period in America, giving rise to a great deal of curricular experimentation.

There is a growing emphasis upon television news and film courses in American universities; co-operation on the part of the news side of the broadcasting industry remains good; teaching standards, developed in co-operation with the industry, have been established; and, finally, although some equipment problems remain, these problems no longer seem insurmountable.

Latin America

by JUAN S. VALMAGGIA,
Assistant Editor, *La Nación*,
Buenos Aires, Argentina

The provision of training for journalists in Latin America is the fruit of private initiative supported by action on the part of the local universities, the former consistently affording the impetus and looking to the latter to supplement or complete its efforts.

While the desire to organize such training has been manifest since the beginning of the present century (the idea originating among the journalists themselves), the fact remains that journalistic training, even in its earliest forms, dates back scarcely more than two decades. With a pre-eminently political press, indeed, it was more or less natural when choosing newspaper staff for the sole criterion to be the candidate's political views and adherence to certain ideas. In addition, such staff, for obvious reasons connected with the social position of potential recruits, was normally drawn from among young people who already had their baccalaureate certificate and had even begun, if not completed, their university studies. The result is that the editorial staffs of Latin American newspapers include a number of journalists who abandoned their higher studies after taking some courses but managed meanwhile to acquire a certain store of knowledge together with habits of methodical work and ordered reading.

At the same time, however, many of the recruits were persons with a life-long vocation for writing; and the significant point is that the Latin American press encouraged that vocation by giving these young people the chance of expressing themselves in its columns and in many cases providing them with financial support at a time when the newspaper industry was still in its infancy. Such staff lacked technical training, of course, and

had to obtain it in daily practice — a fact which should cause no surprise when it is considered that in a fair number of the countries neither regular studies nor diplomas were required even for secondary school teaching. Eventually, the founding of largely informative types of newspapers and the increasing trend towards specialization in journalistic work, coupled with the example set by the United States of America, showed the expediency of going further than mere theorizing on the subject and, in short, of establishing schools of journalism. Meanwhile, parallel moves were being made to train Catholic journalists, and in this way several schools came into existence, each with its own specific purpose — religious or political — although an attempt was generally made to give them the necessary objectivity for the purely professional task in view. When Professor Edward Barret, Dean of the School of Journalism of Columbia University, New York, made a survey in March 1957 of the countries south of the Rio Grande, he was able to report on the great expansion of journalistic training in Latin America and the wide variety of conceptions it reflects. The same subject was also dealt with by Professor Juan Beneyto, Co-Director of the School of Journalism in Madrid, in a study prepared for the meeting of experts held at Unesco House, Paris, in April 1956. In the present note it is proposed to develop these points in more concrete form, by describing the various systems used in the training of journalists.

CENTRAL AMERICA

As the outcome of the First Central American Congress of Universities, held in 1948, and in response to a long-felt wish, the institution known as the Central American School of Journalism, forming part of the Faculty of Arts of the University of San Carlos, Guatemala, was founded on 20 August 1952. Although the school serves all the Central American Republics, the University of San Carlos is alone responsible for its administration and financing. Originally, the study programme covered three years but it has since been extended to four, and three courses have already been completed under the new arrangements. The general culture studies for the course (limited, incidentally, to certain key subjects) are conducted by professors of the Faculties of Arts and Law, while the technical and professional instruction is given on the school's own premises. The qualifications for admission to the school are the same as for any other university faculty — completion of studies at a teacher-training school, baccalaureate or any other qualification which the university authorities deem equivalent. The school issues a monthly periodical, *El Periodista,* in which the students try their hand at practical journalism. Students are received from the various Central American countries, and are

awarded the diploma of 'Professional Journalist' once they have completed their studies and had their theses accepted. In addition, when it was established in 1952, the school awarded certificates to all Central Americans who could prove that they had been uninterruptedly engaged in journalism for ten years or more (these numbered about 50 and were mostly Guatemalans and Salvadorians). The school further decided to offer similar awards to Central Americans with less than 10 years' but more than 5 years' service in journalism who had taken a special 'qualifying course' lasting three semesters.

Three years ago, notwithstanding the fact of the school's Central American regional character, the University of San Salvador, in the Republic of El Salvador, set up its own Department of Journalism attached to the Faculty of Arts, which operates on similar lines, but with a shorter course (two years) plus a compulsory period of practical journalism.

ARGENTINA

As long ago as 1901 the establishment in Argentina of a Free University and School of Journalism was decided on by the First National Press Congress, on the proposal of two outstanding public figures, Estanislao S. Zeballos and Manuel Carlés, and the editors of the two leading Buenos Aires newspapers *La Prensa* and *La Nación*. But no effect was given to this decision, and more than thirty years elapsed before further projects of this kind were launched. Then, almost at the same time, two schools came into being, one in La Plata, the capital of the province of Buenos Aires, and the other in Buenos Aires, the capital of the Republic. The latter, a private school, known as the Instituto Grafotécnico (Institute of Graphic Techniques), was set up at the instigation of Dr. Zacarías de Vizcarra and a group of leading Catholics; it began to operate on 25 May 1934, under the auspices of the San Pablo Foundation. The name adopted by the institute indicates the nature of the tasks assumed at the outset; these were mainly the training of illustrators, translators and proof-readers. It has now become the Higher School of Journalism, including a journalistic section proper with sections for translators, proof-readers and illustrators, several other schools more or less closely connected with the objects of the establishment (training of writers, cinema workers, décor artists, etc.). The enrolment conditions lend a certain diversity to the student body, which consists of men and women from high schools, teacher-training schools and commercial colleges, who are required to take a written entrance examination to show their 'aptitude for journalism'. Persons who have not qualified for the baccalaureate certificate or attended a teacher-training school or a commercial college are allowed to sit for an examination entitling them to take a one-year preparatory

course. The certificates of 'proficiency in journalism' awarded by the school on completion of the study course have been recognized by the government, and the Ministry of Education bears the cost of the examinations. However, this national recognition of the certificate is without practical significance, as no diploma at all is required for the exercise of the profession of journalist. The study programme covers three years for students who have completed their secondary education and three years plus the above-mentioned one-year preparatory course for persons who have not received their baccalaureate or attended teacher-training schools or commercial colleges. In addition to instruction in journalistic techniques, the programmes include general background subjects such as sociology, political economy, philosophy, history, politics and legislative practice.

The school at La Plata[1] — known as the Argentine School of Journalism — was founded by the Journalists' Association in that city, and from the beginning it had the backing of the local university, which finally incorporated it among its own institutions. The decision to establish it was taken in September 1933, and it began its work on 27 April of the following year, with a series of 'preparatory and advanced courses and lectures for journalists', to which the university gave its moral support a year later. The school's programmes have since been revised several times, the present curriculum being that mentioned in the Unesco study on 'Education for Journalism' *(Reports and Papers on Mass Communication,* No. 8).

As the sole condition for admission is completion of primary school studies, the student body is somewhat mixed. The course lasts three years, and the subjects are grouped into three categories: specific (those relating to journalism), cultural (history, sociology, law, human, geography, etc.) and practical (English, training in all forms of editorial work, typography and pictorial news). At one time the school ran a periodical produced in its own printing shop housed in the Journalists' Club. Publication of this paper was discontinued some time ago, but consideration is now being given to the question of producing it again to provide practice for the students, who are graduating at the rate of 40 a year.

In addition, there are two private schools in Buenos Aires, set up on the initiative of the Argentine Newspaper Workers' Union — a body covering all persons employed by newspapers from manual workers (other than printers) to reporters and editors. About 1950, the union set up a School of Journalism, and a year later this school was split up into two separate institutions both of which are still functioning. One is located in the union's premises, and works under its direction. It has 88 students and 14 teachers and runs a three-year programme, including a preparatory first year, covering technical and

1. La Plata is about 34 miles from Buenos Aires.

general cultural subjects, although on a somewhat restricted scale. The other school is more comprehensive and is directed by a board consisting of journalists and teachers of cultural subjects, with the student body represented. It aims at running on co-operative lines. At present (1957) it has about 800 students and 50 teachers. Its study programme provides for a two-year preparatory course for trainees who have had primary education only and who must pass an entrance examination, and a three-year advanced course to be taken on completion of the preparatory course or by students who have had three years' secondary education (at high schools, teacher-training schools, commercial colleges or industrial schools). Each course covers an average of ten technical or cultural subjects, plus two foreign languages, which may be French, Italian, English or German. The students produce their own periodical, *El Reportero*. It was on the initiative of these same students that the Federation of Students of Schools of Journalism was founded.

In addition to the schools mentioned, several other were set up in the provinces. One of these, established by the University of Tucumán in 1947 (see Professor Beneyto's study), which provided instruction in technical and cultural subjects at the Faculties of Philosophy and Letters and Law and Social Sciences, ceased to exist some years ago; another venture, the course on journalism organized in Mendoza in 1954 by the Students' Association of the University of Cuyo, did not survive the year. However, these failures were offset by the founding in San Juan, on 2 May 1956, on the initiative of a group of leading journalists and university men, of the Domingo F. Sarmiento School of Journalism, which offers a (somewhat cursory) technical and cultural programme to persons who have received their baccalaureate or attended teacher-training schools or commercial colleges. The Sarmiento School is now seeking official recognition from the University of Cuyo (the faculties of which are distributed between San Juan, Mendoza and San Luis, the three provinces making up the San Juan region).

Another new school has just been established at Mar del Plata, the seaside resort 250 miles south of Buenos Aires. It was founded by the local Journalists' Association, with the same study programmes and enrolment conditions as at the La Plata school.

For the training of radio announcers and writers (the only activities for which a proficiency certificate is required), the Ministry of Communications has instituted schools which give theoretical and practical instruction and award the certificates in question.

Journalists hold a special 'card', issued by the Ministry of Labour. However, the only condition laid down for obtaining it is to work for a periodical, and for this no qualification is required, the director or editor having full freedom of choice.

BRAZIL

A few months ago, Mrs. Nair Fortes Abu Merhy published a 'Survey of Journalistic Training in Brazil'[1] giving a detailed account of the development of journalistic training in that country from the time when its initiator, the then University of the Federal District of Rio de Janeiro (created in 1935 under the auspices of the municipal authorities and abolished in 1939), inspired by the training systems applied in North America, started a course of training for journalism. This course, unlike others, was not taken over by the University of Brazil following the abolition of its predecessor. In 1938, however, a Legislative Decree had been enacted, granting the Brazilian Press Association certain facilities and requiring it, among other things, to establish and maintain a school of journalism. The negotiations between the association and the government culminated in Legislative Decree No. 5480 of 13 May 1943, according to the terms of which a course on journalism was instituted, under the Faculty of Philosophy of the University of Brazil (Rio de Janeiro), with the following three sections: training, advanced training and cultural development.

The system was modified by subsequent decrees until it assumed its present form, which was adopted at the Rio de Janeiro School in 1950 and has since been extended to journalistic studies throughout Brazil.

The studies were then divided into two parts: Part I (general), taken by all students; and Part II, consisting of the following three options — specialization in economics and general administration, literary journalism, and specialization in social studies including education. There is also a choice, for the entire range of studies, between newspaper technique and radio journalism, although the basic cultural course is the same throughout.

In addition, the first private school of journalism, the Casper Libero School, was established as a result of individual initiative. It received government recognition in 1947 and in the same year began its activities, which have since continued without interruption. The school operates under the authority of the Faculty of Philosophy, Science and Letters of the Catholic University of São Paulo.

In view of the higher educational or university nature of journalistic studies, the same entrance conditions are required as for university entrance: completion of the full secondary course plus a higher education qualifying examination. However, persons who have taken a course of technical studies at a commercial college for a minimum period of three years are also admitted to the entrance examination. Provisionally, and as an exception, working journalists are exempted from having to

1. *Boletim da Associaçao Brasileira de Imprensa*, No. 49, May 1956.

submit the school-leaving certificates in question (for secondary or commercial studies). Meanwhile, the law requires that in order to exercise their profession journalists must be entered in the register kept by the Ministry of Labour, Industry and Trade, for which purpose they have to submit documents proving their Brazilian nationality (by birth or naturalization) and their aptitude for journalism.

The survey lists the following courses on journalism in Brazil, in their chronological order of institution: Course on journalism provided by the Faculty of Philosophy of the University of Brazil (Rio de Janeiro); courses at the Casper Libero School attached to the Faculty of Philosophy of the Catholic University of São Paulo; courses provided by the Faculties of Philosophy of the Bahia State University, the Catholic University of Rio de Janeiro, the Catholic University of Rio Grande do Sul and the State University of Rio Grande do Sul. The Faculty of Philosophy, Science and Letters of Santos University and the Catholic Faculty of Philosophy of Curityba University also have courses. There are thus eight educational establishments in Brazil which provide training for the journalistic profession. Taken together, they had some 350 students in 1956 (about half of them in Rio de Janeiro), while about 250 journalists have already received the degree of 'Bachelor of Journalism' qualifying them to engage in the profession, their diplomas having been registered with the Directorate of Higher Education.

There is, moreover, a tendency to place the courses of instruction at State or Federal universities on an independent footing as separate Faculties of Journalism, which would mean that there would be no exemptions in the future from the obligation to have completed secondary education and passed an entrance examination comparable to the French *baccalauréat*. Steps in favour of action on those lines are being taken at the Federal Congress, and journalistic circles have made their recommendations.

CUBA

The professional training of journalists and their integration into the social environment in which they work are problems which are now being studied in Cuba with a view to initiating an organic system covering all aspects of the subject, from the training of pressmen to the conditions governing the organization and execution of their work. The idea of providing proper training, cultural and technical, originally arose in the profession itself. The establishment of the first school of journalism was, in fact, the direct result of the First National Congress of Journalists, held at Havana from 3 to 6 December 1941. The school was set up in the following year, by a Presidential Decree of 21 April 1942, and was named after a celebrated

journalist, the late Manuel Márquez Stirling. Its direction was placed in qualified hands: the teaching staff consists of journalists and the Board of Governors includes representatives of the National Council of Education and Culture as well as of journalists' associations and publishers of periodicals with over ten years' regular publication to their credit. The effect of the 1942 foundation was to introduce the legal principle of requiring a diploma awarded by a school of journalism as a condition for entry into the profession. The Márquez Stirling School was accordingly authorized to award proficiency certificates to all persons who had been engaged in journalism for a specified number of years at the time of its establishment, with the provision that the diploma would thenceforward be required (except for editors) and would be awarded after four years' study. At the same time, a National College of Journalists, with provincial branch colleges, was set up, all persons seeking to engage in journalism being required to register with it through one of its branches. To qualify for admission to the college, applicants must hold a diploma awarded by a Cuban school of journalism. The college, whose board is elected by its own journalist members, is the only body authorized to accredit journalists; it also exercises disciplinary and punitive powers in regard to them.

As was stated above, the programme of the Márquez Stirling School, which awards the diplomas of 'Professional Journalist', 'Technician in the Graphic Arts' and 'Technician in Journalistic Drawing', is a four-year one. In the first year, there are courses on reporting, newspaper writing, typography and lay-out — technical subjects, in other words, which are pursued and gone into more deeply during the following years. In all courses, however, there is simultaneous instruction in general background subjects — literature, history, sociology, history of art, political economy, law, psychology, English and French. Each year, the National College of Journalists determines the number of students to be enrolled, up to a maximum of 50. As was pointed out by Mr. Valdés Rodríguez (a teacher at the school) in a report presented at the Unesco meeting of experts in April 1956, that number is largely exceeded, sometimes by as many again — such is the interest felt in these studies — although not a few students fall behind or give up during the four-year period. The 'quotas' allotted for each course are as follows: 30 per cent of applicants who have a certificate of higher (university) studies; another 30 per cent of applicants who have completed their secondary education; and 40 per cent of applicants who have only completed their primary education. All have to answer a questionnaire on why they wish to study journalism. Those in the third group must also pass a special examination in geography, the history of Cuba, arithmetic and Spanish grammar so as to gain admission in the order in which they qualify, whereas for the first two groups the order of

admission depends on the degree of proficiency reached in their higher or secondary studies. The result of all this, as Mr. Valdés Rodríguez stated, is that the level of education of the students is very uneven, and this affects the nature of the instruction given.

The Havana School and its programmes were copied by later institutions such as the Mariano Corona School, in Santiago de Cuba, and the Severo García Pérez School, in Santa Clara, which in turn were followed by schools in Camagüey, Matanzas and Pinar del Río. Thus Cuba now has six schools of journalism — one in each province — whose diplomas carry equal weight for admission to the profession. Their programmes are all modelled on those of the Márquez Stirling School, and they are supervised in each case by journalists associated with the respective provincial college. These schools — the number is considered to be excessive — together produce about 200 journalists a year, which is undoubtedly more than Cuban newspapers can absorb.

This educational edifice has at its summit a very interesting establishment which seems to be quite exceptional in this field: the Higher Institute of Journalism, founded by the University of Havana in 1955 and attached to its Faculty of Social Sciences and Public Law. The institute does not itself train journalists but seeks to give graduates of schools of journalism specialized training in social and historical studies. It has a three-year programme, and entrants must already have the diploma of 'Professional Journalist'. Those completing the course are awarded the diploma of 'University Journalist'. An enumeration of some of the subjects gives an idea of the type of instruction the institute aims to give. The subjects for the first year are: Cuban sociology, psychology, social philosophy and anthropology, political philosophy, contemporary social problems and contemporary political problems. This constitutes the basic training stage. The second year is devoted to historical interpretation and covers the history of the following: Cuban institutions, Western civilization, political, social and economic theory, economy, art and Cuban journalism. The third and last year, the technical specialization stage, includes courses on the sociology of journalism, radio, television, the cinema and advertising, together with other courses on evaluation of public opinion, analysis of newspaper content and political science as applied to journalism. The instructors in charge of this extremely useful programme are leading intellectuals who combine the calling of journalist with that of university professor.

CHILE

Since 1947, when Lisardo Arriagada, a journalist who had studied at the School of Journalism of Columbia University, was

appointed Professor of Journalism at the University of Chile, great strides have been made in that country in organizing journalistic training, and today it is no longer handled by a single Chair of Journalism but by a complete training system. This is supplemented, on much the same lines as in Cuba, by the organization of the profession, the sole purpose of the latter, however, being to ensure its practical efficiency, since the basic status of the profession itself, as will be seen, is established by special legislation.

Chile now has three schools of journalism, although the only one run on full university lines is the Santiago School; this was originally set up by the local Journalists' Association but was later taken over by the university. The other two schools are at the University of Concepción and the Catholic University.

The Santiago School not only has a full study programme but has fine premises of its own, thanks to the generosity of a Venezuelan lady. Entrants must be in possession of the baccalaureate certificate awarded by the university to students who have completed their secondary education and passed an examination similar to that for the French *baccalauréat.* The study programme covers four years, with class instruction for 30 hours a week in about 11 professional and cultural subjects each year. There are four courses in English and a fourth-year course on newspaper illustration and another on the cinema, radio and television.

The profession is organizationally centred round the idea of a 'College of Journalists' (inaugurated under Law No. 12.045), to which all pressmen must belong. It maintains a Register of Journalists and keeps watch over the professional ethics of its members, on whom it is empowered to impose various penalties. Holders of a Diploma of Journalism awarded by a school coming under the University of Chile or any other school recognized by the State automatically become members of the college. The situation differs from that in Cuba, however, in that the diploma is not required for obtaining work on a newspaper, newspaper managements being free to employ what editorial staff they like. The only condition is that, in order to be registered with the college, a journalist must have been engaged in the profession for two years; and before a journalist can be recruited by a newspaper he must obtain from the college (which has the right of refusal) a permit 'for a maximum of two years' (i.e., the period of service required before registration with the college—such registration taking place at the end of the period in question); he must also 'be over 16 years of age, have had adequate intellectual training and not be under a charge or sentenced for a crime or misdemeanour'.

The college (with its national and regional councils) is still in process of organization and the system is due to become fully operative in November 1957.

PERU

There are a number of training establishments in Peru. The School of Journalism, which has been, since its foundation ten years ago, part of the Faculty of Letters of the National University of San Marcos, in Lima, makes use of the opportunity thus offered to provide its students with basic cultural training. The study programme, which covers four years in all, is therefore divided into two sections. The courses for the first two years cover the same field as the faculty's course on general culture, which is also taken by students of law, letters and pedagogy, and includes philosophical, historical and literary subjects, up to a total of seven subjects per year, plus a modern language of the student's choice. The courses for the second two years are solely designed for students working for the diploma of journalism and include technical studies and a certain amount of advanced work in the Spanish language and in literature. The school, meanwhile, has thrown open its courses on journalism proper (for the third and fourth years, mentioned above) to people who have been following other careers and have not taken the statutory two years of general culture; such persons, however, are only admitted as unattached students. The present Director (the Spanish journalist and author Corpus Barga) has proposed that the right to attend the two specialized courses should be extended to any student who has completed two courses at any university, or even any centre of higher education other than a university. No decision has yet been reached in this matter, however, owing to the fact that the University of San Marcos is at present in process of reorganization, following Peru's return to the democratic way of life.

Shortly before the establishment of the San Marcos school another school was founded by Matilde Pérez Palacio under the auspices of the Catholic University of Peru, also in Lima. This school has a three-year programme, details of which were given by its director in a report to the Unesco meeting of experts in 1956. Applicants who have had no more than a secondary education have to pass an entrance examination, but those with university degrees are exempt; the latter need only take the specialized journalistic courses proper. The full programme comprises courses on general background subjects (history, philosophy, literature, economics, public law and sociology) and on technical subjects connected with the profession. The diploma of journalism is awarded at the end of the studies but only after the student has completed a period of practical work and has had his thesis accepted. The practical work — by kind consent of the four principal Lima newspapers — is done at one of their offices or at *La Cronica's* broadcasting station (for training in radio journalism), as well as through the medium of a wall-newspaper and other publications run by the students themselves.

Apart from the two Lima schools, mention should be made of the holiday courses organized by the University of Arequipa (giving a summary outline of journalistic work, mainly for information purposes), and of the University of Cuzco's efforts in the same direction.

VENEZUELA

Training in journalism began in Venezuela about 1947, on the advice of Dr. Carl Ackerman, then Dean of the School of Journalism of Columbia University. The school operated for several years under the direct sponsorship of the Central University of Caracas and was reorganized in September 1954, becoming a Department of the Faculty of Arts and Education. The dean of the faculty, Dr. Horacio Cárdenas, pointed out in this connexion that account had been taken of Unesco's recommendation concerning the advisability of developing technical training in journalism, with emphasis on the university training of pressmen so as to provide a cultural background. Since then, the programme has been a four-year one, with the theoretical and practical instruction supplement by the publication of an experimental periodical, issued under the authority of the Chair of Newspaper Technique. This paper, which is the university's own *Boletin Informativo,* was originally issued fortnightly; it is now published monthly and 20 numbers, excellently presented from the journalistic and typographical standpoints, have so far appeared. Entrants to the Department of Journalism are required to be in possession of the baccalaureate certificate. After four years' work, students who have passed all their examinations are awarded the degree of Bachelor of Arts, with Specialization in Journalism. Bachelors can obtain the Doctor's degree by attending a special seminar, preparing an original thesis and defending it before a jury. However, the programme was to undergo a further change with the new course beginning in October 1957. It was then to comprise two cycles. The first, lasting three years, is to be open to persons who are already engaged in journalism but are not in possession of the baccalaureate certificate; at the end of it they will be awarded a technical diploma, signifying recognition, as it were, of the experience they have acquired. Persons who have their baccalaureate can do a further three years' study to obtain the Bachelor's degree, with the possibility of obtaining a Doctor's degree, as at present, once they have passed the examinations mentioned above.

Other universities, like that of del Zulia, in Maracaibo, are also planning to start courses in journalism. So far, however, the only courses offered in Venezuela are the admirable ones provided by the University of Caracas, described above, with their wide and thorough coverage of both professional and cultural subjects. Optional subjects at Caracas include radio and

television journalism and newspaper illustration, and there are also three courses in modern languages, selected by the student — French, English, German or Italian.

OTHER COUNTRIES

The present survey could have been extended to cover the other Latin American countries in similar detail, were it not for the fact that the schools there have obvious likenesses to the various types so far analysed. It will therefore suffice to record their existence and note their differences.

Mexico. One of the oldest schools of journalism in Latin America is to be found in Mexico. It forms part of the Women's University of Mexico City and has been giving instruction on the subject since 1936. The result of its work has been to open up the journalistic profession to numbers of trained women graduates. Latterly, a Catholic School of Journalism was established in Potosi, and three-year courses have also been organized by the Faculty of Political Sciences of the National University of Mexico. As in most Latin American schools, the training is concerned with newspaper journalism only.

Colombia. The Javeriana University of Bogotá, a renowned Catholic institution of higher education, has a School of Journalism offering a three-year training course; to qualify for admission, applicants must be in possession of the baccalaureate certificate.

Dominican Republic. The School of Journalism is attached to the Faculty of Philosophy and Letters of the university in Ciudad Trujillo, the capital. The baccalaureate certificate is required for admission to the school; in the training given there special emphasis is placed on editorial work and graphic techniques.

Ecuador. Here also the baccalaureate certificate is required for admission to the courses in journalism, given at the Faculties of Philosophy and Letters of the Universities of Quito (the capital) and Guayaquil, both of which cities have a highly developed press.

Uruguay. Until recently, Uruguay had no school of journalism. On 30 August 1957, however, courses were started at a school set up by private initiative under the auspices of one of the political parties. This gives it a significance which, though somewhat extraordinary, is understandable in a small country where civic consciousness is highly developed and where the press — perhaps more than in other countries of a similarly democratic nature — still has a decided leaning towards politics.

The initiative, in this case, came from the most important of the party groups which gained a majority at the last elections and which runs the Montevideo newspaper (a paper with a large circulation despite its fairly recently establishment) and several other publications in the interior. This group, the so-called 'Batllista' Party or one of its fractions, is not to be confused with a second group, also of considerable importance, which runs another Montevideo paper, *El Dia*, an older-established periodical carrying greater weight in economic circles. The school, which is located in the group's premises, was officially opened by the General Secretary, Dr. Alberto E. Abdala, former Minister of the Interior, at a ceremony attended by prominent members of the group, which has a majority in the National Council of State (executive power in Uruguay is vested in the council as a body, as in Switzerland) and in the Senate and Lower House. These eminent persons included the leader of the group, Mr. Luis Batlle Berres, ex-President of the Republic (when that office existed) and at present member of the National Council of State and Minister of Public Instruction.

CONCLUSIONS

My object, in this survey, has been to give as complete a picture as possible of the organization of journalistic training in Latin America. Its nature, I think, is such that there is no reason for this section of the New World, despite the fact that the main developments noted here are of comparatively recent date, to complain of the level it has reached in this respect.

Private initiative and government action are jointly responsible for producing this result. The impetus, in the former case, has often come from Catholic universities or other bodies, some of which have been the pioneers in this field (in Buenos Aires, São Paulo, Lima), with others joining in the work once it was under way (in Colombia, Rio de Janeiro, Rio Grande do Sul). But there has been no lack of co-operation — rather the contrary — on the part of the journalists' own organizations, which in some instances themselves have set up the original nucleus of a school (in La Plata, Buenos Aires) or instigated the action taken by the State or by State-supported universities (e.g. Santiago Journalists' Club, Cuban journalists' organizations, Brazilian Press Association). The noteworthy fact is that it was primarily the universities in Latin America, following in most instances the example of their North American counterparts, which showed the greatest determination in organizing courses or establishing schools; there is even a tendency in one country (Brazil) to place such courses or schools on an independent footing as regular faculties.

Initiated in this way at State or Free Universities or finally becoming attached to them, it was only natural that schools

giving journalistic training should aspire to university rank and generally require the baccalaureate certificate as a condition for admission. This standard has not yet become universal however. Cuba, as has been seen, admits students who have only had primary education (40 per cent of the entrants), while certain other countries (Brazil, El Salvador and to some extent Venezuela) exempt working journalists from the secondary education qualification. Nevertheless, as we observed earlier, a Cuban specialist has seen fit to raise a protest against the heterogeneous nature of the instruction due to the differences in origin of the students, and in Brazil there is a demand for the abolition of all exemptions. There is thus a decided trend towards the affirmation of the strictly university nature of journalistic training.

If this trend is to reach fulfilment, it will obviously be necessary to achieve a certain degree of homogeneity in the programmes, which today range from two-year courses (El Salvador) to courses covering four years, such as appear to be in force in the majority of schools (Cuba, San Marcos University in Lima) or five, as under the new Venezuelan programme, besides the three-year courses run by the Catholic universities in Lima, Bogotá and elsewhere. Agreement will also have to be reached concerning the general orientation of the studies and the emphasis they place on the cultural or technical and professional aspects, which must be regarded as inseparable. As Professor Beneyto so rightly observes in his 1956 study, agreement on this point will not be difficult in a continent united by so many spiritual values and bonds of common origin. It is also bound to be of practical value, I would add, in a region where communication is easy and people travel a great deal, and where the large capitals and their well-developed press attract journalists from other cities, aided by the widespread use of a common language. In some essential respects, the studies are already, to a certain extent, being directed along broadly similar lines, as can be seen from the programmes which I have briefly outlined above. It would be desirable, therefore, to intensify exchanges between the various schools of journalism in Latin America, so as to pave the way for joint action which might serve as a guide for future development.

One thing that is quite certain, in my view, is that journalism schools should give their graduates a thorough professional grounding, not only as regards intellectual training — i.e., mental equipment — but also in subjects that help them to develop their powers of judgement and the ability to apply modern journalistic techniques, and in the art of newspaper presentation from the standpoint of general appearance, typography, photographic reproduction, layout, illustration and so on. The present study indicates how far the schools or systems analysed have pursued that objective. Meanwhile, the existence of school newspapers providing suitable opportunities for practical work,

and arrangements for practical work on newspapers offering such facilities, are undoubtedly useful additions to theoretical training.

It is usual, in schools attached to faculties (philosophy or letters, as in Brazil, Guatemala, the Dominican Republic and Ecuador; political sciences, as in Mexico; social sciences and public law, as in Havana), for the courses on general culture to be conducted by the faculty professors of those subjects, or for students to have to pass examinations in them as part of the curricular requirements of the school. Elsewhere, the courses are conducted by *ad hoc* instructors and often by journalists possessing a certain amount of specialized knowledge and even teaching experience as a result of their extra-professional activities (as in Cuba). As matters stand at present, one cannot always be sure of finding teachers who combine teaching qualifications with a sound knowledge of the subject or the job in which they are required to give instruction. In some of the Latin American countries it is even impossible to find teachers for secondary schools and universities. This state of affairs is however more or less to be expected in young countries. Nevertheless, there are journalists employed as teachers of cultural or technical subjects, assistant teachers and technical instructors who are capable of giving useful instruction based on their own and others' experience.

As to the diplomas awarded, the observations made reveal a certain variation in practice from one school to another. The diplomas include those of Professional Journalist (leading, in Cuba, to that of University Journalist following a course at the Higher Institute of Journalism), Bachelor of Journalism (in Brazil) or Bachelor of Arts, with Specialization in Journalism (in Venezuela, where it is possible, however, to obtain a Doctor's degree as the culmination of a journalistic career).

Before concluding these notes, I should like to refer once more to the interesting Cuban innovation mentioned earlier — the Higher Institute of Journalism attached to the Faculties of Social Sciences and Public Law of Havana University. Here entrants must already be in possession of a diploma from a school of journalism, the aim of the institute being to add to the purely professional training of the students a useful grounding in philosophy, sociology and psychology.

What, finally, is the practical value of the diplomas awarded by the Latin American schools of journalism? There is no denying that, to begin with, the attitude of the working journalists was generally one of mistrust towards the 'college graduates'. However, their views have already changed considerably, quite apart from the fact, noted above, that in many cases it was the journalists' organizations themselves which suggested or set up schools in the first place or urged or supported their establishment at their congresses (as did the Argentine Journalists' Federation at its First National Congress in 1938). In

this way, the profession came to be 'organized' (e.g., in Chile and Cuba) through the agency of 'colleges' similar to those advocated or established in Europe with the same object, and comparable to the corporate organizations of other professions in other countries, such as the legal profession in France. One thing that must be recognized, however, is that the requirement of a degree or diploma for admission to the journalistic profession may constitute a form of restriction on the freedom of the press. Another restriction of this kind might result from the system sometimes advocated, of requiring all newspapers seeking staff to apply to a labour exchange run by the trade union concerned, which then offers them the services of journalists in the order of their registration. It is therefore vital, as was pointed out at the Unesco meetings of experts, to reconcile suitable training for journalism with full freedom for the press. Meanwhile, the value attaching to diplomas awarded by schools of journalism, especially in young countries, will depend on the passage of time and proof of the qualifications they represent. The Cuban system already exempts directors of publications and certain contributors (i.e., contributors of literary, scientific, political and other articles) from the obligation to register with the College of Journalists. But must the journalistic profession be so mechanical that, apart from these functions, there is no room for the journalist, whatever his rank may be, to express or suggest ideas which may differ from those of the newspaper for which he is working?

An analysis of the actual organization of the profession falls outside the scope of the present study. It may nevertheless be stated, in conclusion, that the most varied forms have been adopted, from the commonest (mutual benefit societies which provide their members with medical and pharmaceutical services, grants and pensions) to the most recent (the trade union type of organization, often of a militant kind). Both kinds manage to exist, side by side, in several of the Latin American countries, such as Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Cuba and Uruguay. In Chile (where the profession already has an excellent official organization as far as benefits are concerned and where the aim is for the College of Journalists now being set up to assume full responsibility for representing the members of the profession and defending their economic interests in their dealings with the publishing houses), the existing Journalists' Club in Santiago, which played such a decisive part in establishing the School of Journalism and the College of Journalists, is to be converted, once the College is fully constituted, into a social club lavishly equipped and housed in a building comparable to the magnificent premises of the Brazilian Press Association in Rio de Janeiro.

China, Japan, Korea, the Philippines and Thailand

by Yujiro Chiba,
Director of the Institute of Journalism,
Tokyo University, Japan

In Japan and China, education for journalism dates back some twenty-five years, but since World War II there has been a great increase in the number of institutions which offer professional training courses in journalism.

In Japan the need for the training of journalists was felt by far-sighted leaders in public affairs and by certain publishers. But the newspaper industry itself was at first not particularly enthusiastic. There are still many newspaper publishers and journalists who insist that 'journalists are born, not made'. Graduates from universities who seek employment in a newspaper office have to pass a special examination, irrespective of any professional training they may have had. Graduates from schools of journalism may have better chances of employment, but there is no recognized priority. The industry does not expect entrants to be trained journalists but rather to possess a better educational background. Some newspaper offices prefer to train recruits in their own way, rather than have them trained at universities.

This situation must be taken into consideration. If the technicalities of journalism are overstressed in academic training programmes, the training may not correspond to what the profession and industry want. Knowledge which can only be obtained through a university education should therefore never be sacrificed to vocational training readily obtainable in a newspaper office.

CHINA

Between the two world wars, ten universities in China offered courses in journalism. These included Pu Tan University in Shanghai, Yen Ching University in Peking, and the Central College of Politics in Nanking.

In Taipeh, Republic of China, an Institute for Studies in Journalism was recently established at the National Political College. Its purpose seems to be the reorientation of younger journalists at graduate level. College or university graduates who have a few years' journalistic experience are admitted to the institute.

In the Chinese People's Republic, the following universities are known to offer courses on journalism:

Peking University. The School of Journalism belongs to the Department of Languages, and offers a five-year course; 25 per cent of the curriculum is devoted to practical journalism, 30 per cent to language and literature, the remainder to history and social science classes. Number of students: approximately 300.

People's University, Peking. There are two courses in journalism in this university — a three-year course for the reorientation of working journalists, and a four-year course for those who want to shift to journalism from other occupations.

Pu Tan University, Shanghai. A course in journalism similar to that of Peking University.

JAPAN

University Training

The following ten universities offer courses of professional training in journalism:

Doshisha University, Kyoto. Course in journalism in the Faculty of Literature; four-year programme leading to the degree of Bungakushi (Bachelor of Arts).

Kansai University, Suita City. Course in journalism in the department of literature; four-year programme leading to the degree of Bungakushi.

Keio Gijiku University, Tokyo. Institute of Journalism; two-year programme leading to the Certificate in Journalism (Shimbun Kenkyusho). Number of students: approximately 100.

Meiji University, Tokyo. Higher Institute of Journalism and School of Journalism. The institute and the school respectively offer a one-year and a two-year programme leading to the Certificate in Journalism.

Nihon University, Tokyo. Course in journalism; four-year programme leading to the degree of Hogakushi (Bachelor of Laws).

Sophia University, Tokyo. Department of Journalism; four-year programme leading to the degree of Bungakushi. Number of students: approximately 90.

St. Paul University, Tokyo. Course in journalism in the Department of Sociology and the College of Literature; four-year programme leading to Bungakushi. Number of students: approximately 140.

Tokyo University, Tokyo. Institute of Journalism; two-year programme of 17 lecture hours a week (15 on journalism; 2 on other mass media) leading to the Certificate of Journalism. Number of students: approximately 90.

Waseda University, Tokyo. School of Journalism; four-year programme leading to the degree of Gakushi (Bachelor) in politics or economics. Number of students: approximately 70.

Tohoku University, Sendai. Courses in journalism are included in the curricula of the Departments of Law, Economics, and Literature. Undergraduates who have gone through required courses in journalism obtain a certificate in journalism together with the Bachelor's degree of the Department concerned. Number of students: 10-12.

In nine other universities — Aoyama-Gakuin, Chuo, Hiroshima, Hosei, Kobe, Kyoiku, Kyoto, Nagoya and Tohoku-Gakuin — lectures on journalism are offered. The purpose of these lectures is to provide basic knowledge about journalism rather than to train students for journalism.

Study Programmes and Accrediting

A standard curriculum for a journalistic education was formulated by the Japanese University Association in 1953 and revised in 1954. The revised curriculum was as follows (each unit represents fifteen lecture hours):

Special studies. (a) Basic subjects (compulsory, twelve or more units): Principles of journalism; history of journalism; comparative study of journalism; newspaper ethics and laws. (b) Specific subjects (options, five subjects or more, eighteen units or more): broadcasting; newspaper editing, newspaper reporting; news writing; public opinion and propaganda; research methods and analysis; press agencies; newspaper management; advertising and public relations; printing processes; magazines; films and dramas; news interpretation; foreign languages;

Correlated studies (options, six subjects or more, twenty-four units or more). (a) Subjects in law: administrative law; civil law; criminal law; commercial law; international law. (b) Subjects in political science: political science; government administration; history of political thought; political history; political parties; international politics. (c) Subjects in economics: economic theories; history of economic thought; economic history; finance; international economics; social policy. (d) Subjects in the field of business: business management; accounting. (e) Subjects in the humanities: fundamentals of literature; philosophy; psychology; pedagogy; cultural history; literary thought and trends; sociology.

Free electives (fourteen units or more).

At the Universities of Tokyo and Keio, students who have completed their second university year may be admitted to the Institute of Journalism. Professional training programmes at these institutes are linked with other established academic studies in other departments of the university. Those who complete their professional training are awarded a Certificate of Journalism,

together with the Bachelor's degree in the particular field of study. Students who fail to obtain the Bachelor's degree in their academic studies are also refused the Certificate of the Institute on the principle that professional training requires a wide intellectual background as well as specialized knowledge.

In other universities, professional training programmes consist of a wider range of studies, and lead to a Bachelor's degree. There are great differences in the journalistic curricula. In the courses in journalism offered by a college of literature or humanities, the emphasis may be on literary aspects of the profession, while in those offered by faculties of law the emphasis may be on public and legal problems.

These conditions in Japan explain why there are so many related subjects in the curriculum prepared by the Accrediting Association. This curriculum is not intended as a standard necessary for accrediting, nor is it intended to standardize programmes of study at the schools of journalism. It is rather an enumeration of subjects offered in the courses in journalism in Japan's universities. Needless to say, that part of the curriculum which deals specifically with journalism gives appropriate emphasis to subjects concerning skills and techniques. It should be noted that in courses on journalism which lead to a Bachelor's degree, vocational or technical subjects comprise about one-third or slightly less than half of the curriculum: 30 to 40 units out of a total of 80 to 90 units are required in a two-year programme. Even in universities where a four-year programme is offered, the first two years are allocated to the study of general subjects in the social sciences and humanities.

In some universities, graduate courses are offered in journalism or in the 'science of mass communication'. Graduate students concentrate on research in the field of mass communication; they prepare to be research workers or teachers in this field rather than journalists. At Tokyo University, two years' graduate study at the Institute of Journalism leads to a Master's degree and a further three years or more of advanced study to the Doctor's degree in sociology.

KOREA

In the Republic of Korea (Southern Korea), several institutions offer courses in journalism. At Honh Ik University (Seoul), a two-year programme is offered. Two other universities, Sung Kyun Kwan University and Tong Guk University in Seoul, also offer courses in journalism.

In addition, the Seoul Institute of Journalism and the Tong Bang Institute of Journalism (Taegu) offer a one-year programme in techniques of journalism.

No information is available for Northern Korea.

PHILIPPINES

The University of Santo Tomas and the University of the Philippines, both in Manila, offer courses in journalism. At the University of Santo Tomas, the journalistic section is part of the Faculty of Philosophy and Letters. After completing all the requirements in a four-year programme, students obtain the degree of Bachelor of Literature in journalism. Most graduates enter one of the six important dailies in Manila for a period of practical training in a metropolitan newspaper. However, Manila newspapers, which before the war employed large numbers of cub reporters, have had to revise this practice as a result of post-war legislation guaranteeing a 120 pesos minimum wage to all employees, including beginners.

THAILAND

The University has a Department of Journalism which offers a two-year programme leading to a Certificate in Journalism. The curriculum includes lectures in history, geography, political science, economics and psychology, as well as more practical courses on journalistic techniques and advertising.

PROBLEMS IN THE FAR EAST

The growing recognition of the social responsibility of the journalist obliges the latter to observe a strict code of professional ethics. This is of first importance in contemporary society, as was recognized in a resolution passed by the United Nations Conference on Freedom of Information in 1948, recommending that the curricula of schools of journalism should include the 'inculcation in future journalists of a keen sense of the moral and social responsibility of their profession, stressing the undesirability of commercialism, sensationalism and racial and religious intolerance'. This applies to all countries and instructors, and professors of journalism have much to contribute in this respect.

One might wonder to what extent the formal training of journalists is useful when they have to be trained again at newspaper offices, as is often the case in Japan for example. Individual newspaper offices often want to train their recruits to suit their own needs. To take an extreme case, the sensational type of newspaper may want to train its journalists to write sensational articles. What is needed in our society and the world over, however, is not to make sensational newspapers more sensational, but to make them more sober and honest. Educators should give prospective journalists higher professional and moral standards and help impart to journalism in general

a prestige worthy of its public function. To cultivate these moral qualities and attitudes remains a primary task of professional training at institutions of higher learning.

Of course, care must be taken not to adopt an attitude that is unrealistically critical of existing conditions. But there is an element of fundamental professional morality in what teachers of journalism have to offer to young people training for the profession. Whatever the conditions under which journalists work, the aim is everywhere the same—to produce an honest and responsible press. Lack of moral and professional conscience in journalism and excessive government control are basic factors which lower the standards of the press and hinder mutual understanding between nations.

India

by M. Chalapathi Rau,
Editor, *National Herald*, Lucknow, India

THE BACKGROUND

The need for journalism education has come to be recognized in India only in recent years. This recognition has been helped by two factors, first the introduction of journalism courses in some of the universities to meet the needs of a growing number of young men who seek to take up journalism, and second, the comprehensive survey made of the profession and industry by the Press Commission, followed by government legislation embodying some of its recommendations, particularly those concerning better wages and improved working conditions.

In the years between the two wars, newspapers in India began to extend their activities and the range of their news services. This called for more qualified and better equipped journalists. Internal as well as international developments since 1939 have brought about a profound change in the condition of the Indian press, with circulation figures rising steeply to heights never touched before and most newspapers achieving hitherto unknown levels of prosperity. The newspaper boom of the war years created an increasing demand for qualified journalists and helped to improve service conditions, and also led to a demand for education and training for the profession.

Today it is felt that to meet the general as well as the technical needs, there should be training at least for recruits. The view that the newspaper office alone offers suitable training is believed to have lost much of its validity. This trend is seen also in broadcasting, the expansion of which has enlarged the possibilities of radio employment.

The Press Commission felt that a reorientation of higher education was as essential in journalism as in other professions. It may be too early yet to insist that the new entrants to journalism should hold a degree or a diploma in journalism. The commission felt that the training offered at some universities was not satisfactory in all respects and that it would not be desirable to insist on a degree or diploma qualification. But it recommended that, other things being equal, persons having journalistic qualifications should have a preferential claim for employment.

The commission found that systematic and institutional education in journalism was generally considered necessary and that this education should be of a comprehensive character. With regard to existing courses in journalism the commission said that, while the list of subjects laid down for study was generally satisfactory, the time allotted for the study of the subjects was quite insufficient. It recommended that the degree or diploma course should preferably be a postgraduate course of two years' duration. If the modern tendency of specialization after reaching the intermediate standard was followed, the course in journalism should extend over three years, the first year to be devoted to the study of general subjects and the next two years to specific instruction in journalism.

The commission laid emphasis on the practical side of training. The staff of a newspaper would have little or no time to train an apprentice, even if it were willing to co-operate in this way. It would thus be desirable for the university to start a campus paper as has been done in universities in the United States of America. As the future lay with Indian language journalism, arrangements would have to be made for practical training in regional languages.

The commission further recommended that organizations of newspapermen should advise the Press Council, which it was suggested should be set up, on the possibility of establishing an institute of journalism to examine on a continuous basis training methods in the universities and also to conduct refresher courses. The institute would carry out research into press problems and if necessary run its own training establishments.

The commission saw reasonable and varied employment prospects for those trained in journalism as information officers in government service, publicity officers in industry and commerce, in the News Division of All-India Radio, on trade journals, specialized periodicals, house organs, etc. Allowing for normal wastage in the number of newspapers published, for reasonable expansion of the industry following the spread of literacy and for employment possibilities in other walks of life, the commission's estimate was that the output of trained graduates in journalism should not normally exceed about 300 a year over the next ten years, if the risk of unemployment and consequent hardship was to be avoided.

Two of the universities where journalism is being taught also run laboratory newspapers. At Hyderabad, students work on the *Osmania Courier* and Hislop College, Nagpur University, publishes the *Hislop Herald*. At Nagpur, in the first term of the year, one-half of the students work on the *Herald* and the other half on Nagpur newspapers under a supervised student-trainee programme. In the second term, the students switch positions. All work, including the printing, is done by the students.

An important development was the founding of The Indian Association of Education in Journalism in Calcutta in January 1956. The office-bearers are: Professor P. P. Singh, head of the Department of Journalism, Punjab University, Delhi, president; Professor Averton Conger of Hislop College, Nagpur University, vice-president; Dr. D. N. Sen, Calcutta University, general secretary; Dr. De Forest O'Dell, Osmania University, secretary.

The aim of the association is to develop co-operation between journalism departments and the profession and to maintain high standards in journalistic training. The association is to have an accrediting committee consisting of members of its standing committee and advisory members who will be delegates from the All-India Newspaper Editors' Conference, the Indian Federation of Working Journalists, the Indian and Eastern Newspaper Society, the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting and the Inter-University Board. The accrediting committee is to ensure that journalism departments offer the type of training which the profession desires and that no departments not up to the required standard are founded. The association hopes to establish a placement bureau for journalists, on which newspaper publishers and other potential employers may rely.

The main features of journalism education in India may be summarized thus:

1. Where an attempt has been made to establish adequate courses in journalism — as has been done at three centres — American techniques and textbooks have been found to be not quite suitable. A considerable amount of adaptation has to be made, and longer courses are necessary.
2. Professional apathy towards education for journalism is disappearing gradually, but still too slowly.
3. There is still a lack of adequate arrangements for practical training.
4. Demand and supply still remain unrelated. There is a need for proper recruitment procedures, and the training of journalists should be related to employment opportunities.

UNIVERSITY COURSES

The following is a brief account of the courses and training in journalism offered at present by six Indian universities.

Calcutta University. A two-year postgraduate diploma course was started in 1950, embracing practical instruction and the study of general subjects such as constitutional law, political, economic and social developments, literature and art, as well as lectures and seminars on the law of the press, the principles and history of journalism, the editing of periodicals and the business aspects of journalism. The practical part of the course also covers commercial journalism, monthly journalism and advertising layout.

The course is managed by the Standing Committee for Journalism, appointed by the Syndicate of the University. Admission is limited to university graduates and students are required to undergo practical training with a recognized newspaper, periodical or news agency, before being allowed to take the examination. Lecturers are senior journalists of Calcutta. Student enrolment totals about 50 a year.

Madras University. A one-year postgraduate diploma course was instituted in 1947. At present the course consists of lectures on general subjects and on subjects particularly related to journalism. The general subjects include lectures on social and economic structure, modern history, political science, modern constitutions, everyday science, shorthand and typing. There are also special lectures on radio news editing, broadcasting, editorial methods and techniques, advertising, press laws and journalistic ethics.

Leading English-language dailies in Madras co-operate in the scheme by accepting student apprentices and by permitting senior staff members to serve as part-time lecturers. Twelve to fifteen students are admitted each year. Six months' newspaper experience is a necessary qualification for the diploma.

Mysore University. A two-year course of journalistic studies as part of the Bachelor of Arts (Economics and Political Science) course was started in 1951. The course is not strictly intended to turn out trained journalists but rather to prepare students for a career in journalism. The three examination subjects are journalistic practice, newspaper administration and history of the press.

The course includes studies of Indian press problems and students undertake annual study tours of important city newspapers and news agencies. There are regular seminars. Practical training is not stressed, as the aim of the course is development of knowledge rather than of skill. About ten students complete the course each year.

Nagpur University. The Department of Journalism was opened in 1953 at Hislop College, under a scheme approved by the university. This presents an interesting example of Indo-American co-operation. American teachers holding Fulbright Scholarships

head the Department of Journalism. There is a one-year diploma programme for graduates and a special certificate course for experienced journalists.

The course covers the standard subjects but also includes, *inter alia*, the preparation of materials for social education programmes. It is planned to expand the present facilities into a full school of journalism offering study programmes at graduate and undergraduate levels.

Practical training is given through the publication by the teachers and students of the *Hislop Herald*, and in local newspaper offices.

Punjab University, Delhi. This is the oldest university course in India and was started in 1941. It is a postgraduate one-year diploma course.

Recently, newspapers and news agencies in Delhi have begun to co-operate in running the course which comprises editorial writing, sub-editing, make-up and typography, press laws, feature writing and advertising. Senior newspapermen in Delhi serve as part-time lecturers.

Osmania University, Hyderabad. The Diploma of Proficiency in Journalism is granted to those who have attended the one-year course provided by the university in the subject, pursued a 'regular course of study', satisfied the head of the department that they have attained a speed of not less than 25 words per minute in typewriting and passed the prescribed examination. The course, which consists of the standard subjects, is open to graduates of Osmania or any other recognized university. A probationary period in journalism comprising a regular course of training of not less than a full academic term in a newspaper office or in any other recognized news centre is compulsory.

The Certificate of Proficiency in Journalism is granted to those who have attended the one-year course, pursued a 'regular course of study' and satisfied the head of the department that they have attained a speed of not less than 25 words per minute in typewriting and passed the prescribed examination. The examination for the Certificate is not limited to university graduates, but is also open to candidates who have passed the high school examination or an examination recognized as equivalent thereto and have had at least one year's experience in a newspaper office or other news centre.

Bombay University is planning to institute a course in journalism on the basis of a study programme recently drawn up. Courses are also planned at the Universities of Gauhati and Gujarat.

OTHER TRAINING FACILITIES

A number of institutions, including the Horniman College of Journalism (Bombay), and foreign institutions offer correspondence courses in journalism. Certain newspapers of standing also organize training for apprentices on a stipend basis. *The Hindu* of Madras, for example, has instituted one annual scholarship giving the candidate a year's all-round training in editorial and reporting work on the newspaper.

Indonesia

by S. MARBANGUN,
Director, Lembaga Pers dan Pendapat Umum
(Indonesian Press Institute),
Jakarta, Indonesia

The first courses in journalism in Indonesia were offered in 1950 by a private school in Jakarta, founded by the well-known journalist Parada Harahap. It closed its doors after only three years. Another private school, set up shortly afterwards, is known as Perguruan Tinggi Djurnalistik (School of Journalism).

In 1953, both the State University in Jakarta (Universitas Indonesia) and that in Jogja (Universitas Gadjah Mada) founded Chairs of Press Science. The Chair at the Universitas Gadjah Mada was first held by Dr. Schneider from the University of Leyden. In September 1956 the present author was appointed lecturer in press science at the Universitas Gadjah Mada in Jogja. The Chair established by the State University in Jakarta has however remained vacant.

Two more institutions must be mentioned. One is the Perguruan Tinggi Ilmu Kewartawanan dan Politik (School of Journalism and Political Science) in Jakarta, which was founded in 1956 by an Islamic group. The other is the Perguruan Tinggi Pers dan Djurnalistik (School of Press and Journalism), which was set up at Makassar early in 1957.

The Universitas Gadjah Mada and also the other institutions referred to offer a three-year programme leading to a Bachelor's degree and a five-year programme leading to a Master's degree. The programme of study at the Faculty of Social and Political Sciences is similar to the study of *Publizistik* at German universities, and the other institutes are more like American schools of journalism. It could perhaps be argued that at Jogja University one learns *about* journalism, while at the other schools one studies *for* journalism. At the university, journalism is regarded as an academic field of study; at the other schools,

perhaps one-fifth of the curriculum is devoted to practical training.

Apart from these formal training centres and the several correspondence courses in journalism that exist in the country, on-the-job training naturally continues. In fact, most journalists probably still receive their training in the editorial offices. In Indonesia, too, the day may come when journalists with formal training may have to compete with those trained on the job. But this problem will not be as big here as it appeared, for example, in the United States of America a generation ago because today formal journalism training has already become accepted throughout the world. Moreover, it is encouraging to know that the Indonesian press has always given its full support to those qualified training centres that now exist in the country.

Following is a list of the major schools referred to in this paper with their addresses and the approximate number of students:

Perguruan Tinggi Djurnalistik (School of Journalism), Djalan Tandjung 2, Jakarta; founded in 1953; number of students, 125.

Chair of Press Science, Faculty of Social and Political Sciences, Gadjah Mada University, Pagelaran, Jogjakarta; instituted in 1953; number of students, 35.

Perguruan Tinggi Ilmu Kewartawanan dan Politik (School of Journalistic Studies and Political Science), Djalan Palem 16, Jakarta; founded in 1956; number of students, 45.

Perguruan Tinggi Pers dan Djurnalistik (School of Press and Journalism), Balai Wartawan, Makassar; founded in 1957; number of students, 40.

Pakistan

by Abdus Salam Khurshid,
Head, Department of Journalism,
University of the Punjab, Lahore, Pakistan

DIPLOMA COURSES

The three following universities offer formal training in journalism.

Punjab University, Lahore. A one-year diploma course in journalism was instituted in 1941. Until 1953, the subjects were: theory of journalism; practical journalism (English) and practical journalism (Urdu) or English composition. There were

two evening lectures a day. In 1954, the syllabus was expanded to include: current affairs and press history; English composition (optional) was replaced by specialized journalism, which included classes on radio journalism, commercial journalism, sports journalism, pictorial journalism, and book, radio and film reviewing. With effect from 1954, lectures were increased to three a day.

Special series of lectures (by part-time lecturers) are arranged on press legislation, public relations, pictorial journalism, and new techniques of Urdu journalism. The head of the department teaches: theory of journalism, current affairs, and press history. All the part-time lecturers are working journalists at Lahore.

Karachi University, Karachi. A diploma course in journalism was introduced in 1955, with the following subjects: English (grammar and composition); theory and practice of journalism; current affairs, with special reference to Pakistan; shorthand and typing.

The course is of 12 months' duration of which three months should be spent in a newspaper office for practical training. It is as yet not possible to say how far the newspapers will cooperate. Experience at Lahore has not been encouraging in this respect.

Sind University, Hyderabad. A Department of Journalism was set up at the Sind University, Hyderabad, in 1955. There are two courses: a two-year course leading to an M.A. degree in journalism, and a diploma course of one year's duration.

The two-year course includes lectures on the theory and practice of journalism, international relations, modern government, social sciences, international law, economics, and public speaking. The diploma course comprises five subjects, namely: theory of journalism; practical journalism (English); practical journalism (Urdu or Sindhi); current affairs and modern constitution; public speaking.

The number of candidates seeking admission is very low. The department is also handicapped by the fact that Hyderabad is not a major newspaper centre.

TEACHING METHODS

The following subjects are taught in class-room lectures and seminars: theory of journalism, current affairs and press history. The rest of the curriculum consists of practical work in various fields of journalism. Students are given cyclostyled exercises in sub-editing and proof-reading and the work is corrected by the teacher. They are also sent on reporting missions and the stories are discussed in the class-room. Both feature and topical

articles are written and some of these are sent to the newspapers: about 25 per cent of the students thus see their own work in print. Students edit a full-sized dummy fortnightly newspaper. For some of the students arrangements are made to work in newspaper offices for about a fortnight. The possibility is now being explored of printing a fully-fledged fortnightly paper edited and produced in its entirety by the students; this experiment may begin in 1957-58.

Clippings from national and foreign newspapers are placed on special notice boards as a further aid in acquainting students with newspaper work and press problems. A reading room and a library are also available.

EVALUATION OF RESULTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Quite a number of diploma holders in journalism from the University of the Punjab are employed by Government Information Departments and are doing fairly good work. There is a preference for these jobs because of the greater security they offer.

Measures for the improvement of teaching methods and the expansion of facilities now being considered in Pakistan may be summarized as follows: (a) Provision of books and films on newspaper production for the departments of journalism; (b) provision of laboratory equipment; (c) regular supply of representative newspapers from the United Kingdom, the United States of America and other countries; (d) organization of special short courses on press legislation, ethics of journalism, press history, and current affairs, for working journalists without university training; (e) the establishment of a time limit, of perhaps five years or more, within which all junior journalists should be expected to obtain a diploma in journalism from auniversity — this is essential since junior working journalists are frequently found to be ignorant of other branches of the profession outside of those in which they are actually employed; (f) organization of short summer courses on the principles of journalism (open to the public), with the object of acquainting as many people as possible with the ways in which newspapers collect and present news; (g) travel grants and scholarships to enable the best students to pursue advanced study abroad; (h) travel grants, fellowships, visiting lectureships, temporary work on foreign newspapers and seminars, for journalism teachers.

DEVELOPMENTS AFTER THE UNESCO CONFERENCE (APRIL 1956)

The West Pakistan Provincial Government, realizing the usefulness of the training courses in journalism, has established

ten scholarships for promising young men seeking education in journalism. Nine of these will be for training in Pakistan universities, and one for advanced study abroad.

The Punjab University has decided to give preference to working journalists for admission to journalism classes.

For the promotion of research, a Research and Reference Section has been set up within the Department of Journalism at Punjab University.

With the assistance of the Asia Foundation, the department's library has been enriched, and a number of American books on journalism are being introduced as textbooks.

Turkey

by WILMONT HAACKE,
Lecturer in Journalism, Hochschule für Sozialwissenschaften, Wilhelmshaven, Federal Republic of Germany

The Institute of Journalism at the University of Istanbul, opened in 1950, trains young journalists for work with Turkish newspapers or radio stations. A number of German professors of sociology and economics (Friedrich Neumark, Gerhard Kessler and Alexander Rüstow) participated in the preparatory consultations and exerted a certain influence on the programme of the institute, which emphasizes the sociological and political rather than the purely literary or historical aspects of the subject.

The institute, known as Gacetecilik Enstütüsü, is part of the Department of Economics; the present dean of this department, Professor Dr. Sükrü Baban, was one of the institute's co-founders. The institute's work is supervised by an executive committee composed of five professors. Professor Dr. Orhan Tuna, who succeeded Professor Dr. Sabri Uelgener, is the institute's director.

Lectures and seminars are organized for a two-year course (four semesters). After two years, students have to pass a final examination to obtain the diploma offered by the institute. Classes are held on five afternoons a week from 2 p.m. to 6 p.m.; no classes are held in the morning hours so as to make it easier for working journalists to attend.

Theoretical courses during the first semester include introductory lectures on sociology, economics, law, finance and political geography. On the practical side, press, radio and publishing techniques are taught by experienced part-time lecturers. Courses in photography, shorthand and typing are obligatory. The programme of the first semester is continued during the second semester, with the addition of lectures on tax

legislation and legal procedures and an outline of the history of the press in Turkey and abroad. During the third and fourth semesters, well-known professors take the place of the lecturers who conduct the introductory classes. The curriculum includes lectures on social politics, press and copyright law, and other subjects. During the second year, the students are also encouraged to attend classes on the history of literature and art and also language courses. Practical courses on journalistic techniques are given by Cevat F. Baskut, the editor of the daily paper *Cumhuriyet*, who also represents the Turkish Journalists' Association on the institute's executive committee.

At present the institute has about a hundred students. After graduation, the male students generally encounter no difficulty in obtaining suitable positions in the press; many of them work on newspapers while they are still studying.

In the year 1955-56, a German professor was invited as guest lecturer. His predecessor was a visiting American professor. The institute's library includes many English, American and French books on journalistic questions, and a selection of specialized German books is shortly to be added to the collection.

Austria, Belgium, France, Germany (Federal Republic of), Greece, Italy, Netherlands and Switzerland

by JACQUES BOURQUIN,
Director, Union Romande de Journaux;
Lecturer in Journalism,
University of Lausanne

According to Unesco statistics,[1] it is in the United States of America that professional training in journalism is, relatively, most highly developed. In 1953, there were in that country about 550 higher educational establishments which included one or more courses in journalism in their programmes. Europe — excluding Spain, the United Kingdom, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the People's Democracies and Scandinavia, which are covered by separate reports — comes second, with 23 establishments of university standing. The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the People's Democracies have 17, Scandinavia 4, North and Central America (excluding the United States of America) 10, South America 10, the United Kingdom and Commonwealth countries 12, Asia 27, and Africa 3.

For some time past, and more particularly since the United Nations Conference on Freedom of Information (Geneva, 1948), training programmes for prospective journalists have tended towards some degree of uniformity. It is, however, to be noted that schools in the U.S.A. for the most part concentrate mainly on practical training and the teaching of strictly professional subjects, whereas in European schools the main emphasis is on social or political science, arts subjects or law.

In the opening years of the present century, the courses on 'newspaper science' (*Zeitungswissenschaft*) available at German, Austrian and Swiss universities dealt with the academic study of the press proper, its history, and research relating to it. For some years past, however, this subject has been losing ground to a new type of study — 'Communications' (*Publizistik*). This subject, extending beyond sociology to cover the vast field of anthropology,[2] deals with the major media of communication (press, films, radio, television) and seeks to provide an educational background of traditional university type for prospective

1. See 'Education for Journalism 1953', *Reports and Papers on Mass Communication*, No. 8, Unesco, Department of Mass Communication, January 1954, p. 8.
2. *IPI Report*, first year, No. 6.

educators, lawyers, doctors, economists, etc., as well as for prospective journalists.

The review of journalistic training which follows is based in part on papers by experts appearing in the *Reports* of the International Press Institute (IPI).

TEACHING METHODS

There are a number of criteria, e.g., association with a university, award of diplomas, subjects stressed, which can be used to establish a classification. The result will not, however, be completely satisfactory, as each school has its own individuality and there is extensive interchange of methods.

University or Secondary School Courses; Independent Institutions

An easy initial distinction, however, is between journalistic training establishments of university status, and usually attached to a university, on the one hand, and schools managed by professional associations or forming part of the structure of secondary, commercial or independent education, on the other.

This distinction reflects the two trends of thought detected by Professor Karl d'Ester[1] who writes, in substance, that the idea behind the first is that a subject as important as the world press not merely deserves but demands treatment at university level — whence the establishment, within universities, of scientific institutes covering every type of question relating to the press as a national and international institution; these are designed to serve students of all faculties, but more particularly prospective journalists. The second trend of thought, he says, is based on more practical considerations, and leads to the establishment of special schools where prospective journalists are given theoretical and practical training, on carefully planned lines, in all the aspects of journalism which are teachable.

The number of establishments in the second category is difficult to determine with accuracy, for there are a number of private institutions which might claim to train prospective journalists. There is, however, a very marked predominance of university-based training, as only five major establishments are not attached to an institute of higher studies or a university, namely: Institut français de presse, Paris;[2] Centre d'études, radiophoniques, Paris; Centre de formation des journalistes, Paris; Institut pour Journalistes, Brussels; Werner Friedmann Institute, Munich.

Against this, there are professional training courses for pro-

1. See Karl d'Ester, 'German training is divided into two types', *IPI Report*, October 1954, p. 9.
2. This is a research centre rather than a training school.

spective journalists in the following 21 universities or institutes of higher studies: *Austria:* University of Vienna. *Belgium:* Free University of Brussels; University of Louvain. *France:* Institut de filmologie, Sorbonne,[1] Paris; Faculté catholique, Lille. *Germany:* Erste Deutsche Journalistenschule, Aix-la-Chapelle; University for Economic and Social Sciences, Nuremberg; University of Munich; University of Münster; University of Heidelberg; Free University of Berlin; Hans Bredow Institute, Hamburg; *Italy:* University of Palermo; Istituto Italiano di Pubblicismo, Rome; 'Pro Deo' International University, Rome. *Netherlands:* University of Amsterdam. *Spain:* Escuela oficial de Periodismo, Madrid. *Switzerland:* University of Berne; University of Lausanne; University of Fribourg; University of Zürich.

The predominance of university-based courses accounts for the contrast between the academic bias of training in Europe, with its emphasis on research, theory and general ideas, and the down-to-earth instruction provided in countries where professional organizations or communication services are themselves responsible for the training of their recruits.

News staff for the press, the cinema, the radio and the television is being increasingly recruited from among graduates of specialist schools, as in the U.S.A., or of universities, as in Western Europe. The provision of special courses for these recruits is therefore becoming yearly more necessary: a university education is the best training for a number of posts on the editorial or managerial sides, always providing that it is rounded off by more specialized courses on information and the press. The requisite practical knowledge can be acquired by periods 'on the job' or, possibly, seminars, plus experience. To sum up, the present situation in Europe would be satisfactory if all, or at any rate the most important, universities had a better appreciation of the situation, and of the role of the press, and gave journalistic training the importance which is its due today.

Diplomas, Degrees and Other Awards

Only some of the above-mentioned establishments award special diplomas or degrees for prospective journalists, publishers, advertising agents, etc. They may accordingly be classified according to whether they give simply a leaving certificate (C), a degree qualification, 'licence' (L), a doctorate (Dr) or no certificate or other proof of study (N).

The award of formal 'qualifications' contains an element of danger when the State makes professional employment in journalism conditional on possession of a degree or diploma. State supervision, allegedly to aid a university or improve the quality of professional journalism, could lead to serious restrictions

1. The emphasis in the courses is on philosophical and social aspects.

on the freedom of the press and information.[1] Care must therefore be taken to ensure that the award of diplomas does not become a means by which the State can restrict entry into journalism or the right of every individual to propagate his views through the major communication media. Once this reservation has been made, however, a university degree approved by the professional organizations of newspaper publishers and editors may present certain advantages. It might, for instance, lead to a reduction in the length of the training period required of prospective journalists.

A question arising in this connexion is whether it is advisable to confer the degrees of Bachelor *(licencié)* or Doctor of journalism on students who may be up to standard academically but are often without experience. The corresponding degrees in social or political science, economics, commerce or administrative studies, philosophy or law, with a qualification in 'science of information', 'communications' or 'journalism', as granted by the Universities of Brussels, Louvain, Munich, Münster and Vienna, seem more suitable.

Present Trends

Of recent years, a trend in professional training for the great media of mass communication has been towards extensive interchange of methods; to this the United Nations and Unesco have largely contributed.

Thus any classification by methods must be approximate and inclined to be arbitrary. There are, however, certain dominant biases, and a distinction must be made between those schools whose principal concern is to provide an academic training covering the major communication media as a whole, and those seeking primarily to provide a technical and practical grounding for prospective journalists. Lastly, some universities regard courses on mass communication or the press as a useful background adjunct to their degree courses in political or social science, law, arts or philosophy, for prospective politicians, diplomats, teachers, lawyers, etc. On the basis of this distinction, the various establishments may be classified as follows:

Academic: Erste Deutsche Journalistenschule, Aix-la-Chapelle (C); Free University of Berlin (N); University for Economic and Social Sciences, Nuremberg (N); University of Louvain (L); University of Munich (Dr); University of Münster (Dr); University of Palermo (C); Pro Deo University, Rome (C).

Technical: Centre de formation des journalistes, Paris (C); Ecole supérieure de journalisme, Paris (C); Escuela oficial de Periodismo, Madrid (C); Institut pour journalistes, Brussels (C); Istituto Italiano di Pubblicismo, Rome (C); Werner Friedmann Institute, Munich (C).

1. See J. Bourquin, *La Liberté de la Presse*, Paris, Presses Universitaires de France, p. 110.

Cultural background: Facultés catholiques, Lille (C) University of Amsterdam (C); University of Berne (N); Free University of Brussels (L); University of Fribourg (N); University of Heidelberg (N); University of Lausanne (N); University of Nijmegen (C); University of Vienna (Dr); University of Zürich (N).

The Role of Research Centres

There are a number of bodies or institutions with headquarters in Western Europe, which are not covered by the above list. Though they are so constituted as to preclude their being attached to other establishments, they are making an appreciable contribution, directly or indirectly, to the training of recruits for mass communication services and to the better qualification of practising journalists. Of these bodies and institutions, the following deserve mention:

The International Press Institute, Zürich: Founded in 1951, this institute concentrates exclusively on newspapers and their editorial problems. It issues a monthly bulletin, *IPI Report*, which, in addition to special papers, often contains articles on the training of journalists.

The International Press Museum: Founded in 1949 at The Hague, it is a documentation centre on journalism.

The Institut français de presse, Paris: Publishes a comprehensive scientific review, *Etudes de presse*, and promotes research on the press.

The Institute for Picture Journalism, Munich: Specializes in modern techniques of newspaper illustration.[1]

The Centre d'études radiophoniques, Paris: An offshoot of the French Broadcasting and Television Corporation; the centre provides training courses, specialist seminars and background lectures, and arranges research groups, study days, surveys, etc.

The Institut des hautes études cinématographiques, Paris.

The Cours de filmologie, at the Sorbonne, Paris: Is concerned with the study of the forms and effects of the cinema. In conjunction with these courses, the Presses Universitaires de France publish a *Revue de filmologie.*

Lastly, several film libraries have assembled valuable archives and documentation on the cinema. They are of immense assistance to the study of the 'seventh art', besides playing a part in the training of film specialists. The list of film libraries in Western Europe belonging to the International Federation of Film Archives (IFFA) is as follows: Deutsches Institut für Filmkunde, Wiesbaden-Biebrich; Cinémathèque de Belgique, Brussels; Cinémathèque française, Paris; Nederlands Filmmuseum, Amsterdam; Cineteca Italiana, Milan; Cineteca Nazionale, Rome; Museo de Cinema, Turin; Cinémathèque suisse, Lausanne.

1. See *IPI Report*, October 1954.

AUSTRIA[1]

In Austria there is no professional school for journalists where the subject is taught on practical lines, but the University of Vienna has an Institute of Newspaper Science providing academic courses which give the prospective journalist a grasp of journalistic work and of the history and role of the press. The presentation of news and the various forms of communication are dealt with up to a point, but these are no more than very brief excursions into the practical field. The institute's view is that practical journalism is a matter of personal aptitude or disposition and is not teachable. Numerous graduates of the institute are today working in the news field, and their success proves that their studies were not without value.

Academic Studies

The Institute of Newspaper Science is the successor to the former Society for Knowledge of the Press. The latter used to organize courses covering six half-year terms for prospective editors, but the arrival of the German troops in March 1938 put a stop to its activities.

The institute was started immediately after the war, with the founder of the earlier society serving as professor during the winter term of 1946-47. He drew up a programme including, among other subjects: general study of public opinion, history of the press, public law, constitutional and international law, press legislation, copyright and labour legislation, press policy (past and present), magazines and newspaper management. Courses in English and French are provided for students wishing to improve their knowledge of these languages, and there are also practical seminars.

The Institute of Newspaper Science comes under the Faculty of Arts of Vienna University. The degree course extends over eight terms; the subjects to be taken, besides newspaper science, are philosophy, psychology, and one optional subject (history, art history, German language and literature, etc.). To obtain the Doctorate, students are required to submit a thesis and to pass oral examinations in philosophy, psychology, newspaper science (two tests) and an optional subject.

The total number of students is now 136, among whom are many foreigners. Since 1946, more than 100 candidates have obtained Doctorates and 87 of them are at present working in journalism.

The Austrian Association for the Study of Journalism is considering arranging seminars, for which it would enlist the services of eminent journalists, to afford students of journalism an

1. See article by Professor Kurt Paupié, of the Institut für Zeitungswissenschaft at the University of Vienna, *IPI Report*, September 1955, p. 3.

opportunity of acquainting themselves with the practical problems of the profession.

Practical Training

While there is no professional school for journalists in Austria, efforts have nevertheless been made to fill the gap. In 1948, a school of practical journalism was founded but was forced to close after only one term's work. A similar school operated from January to May 1954, under one of the staff of the Institute of Newspaper Science; its syllabus concentrated mainly on the technique of newspaper production, the subjects taught being editorial work, plant management and printing techniques, advertising practice, economic and financial aspects of the newspaper industry, and press law.

It is still an open question whether the press itself or its professional organizations are interested in providing practical professional training. Most Austrian newspapers are against organized professional training, preferring to engage the journalists they need on a basis of free competition. However, the Institute of Newspaper Science gives prospective journalists a sound background by acquainting them, at least in theory, with the technical problems of journalism and with political, sociological and psychological questions.

BELGIUM[1]

The Belgian Institut pour journalistes is the oldest of the establishments providing training in journalism. Two others were founded after the war — the Department of Journalism at the Free University of Brussels, and the School of Journalism at the Catholic University of Louvain. However, the institute is the only one providing practical training, the instruction given in the other two being essentially academic in nature.

Independent Training Establishments

Institut pour journalistes. The institute opened its doors in April 1922 at the Maison de la presse, Brussels. Its foundation resulted from the concern of the General Association of the Belgian Press for the training of journalists after the first world war. The institute enjoyed immediate success, thanks to the start given it by its founder-president, Mr. Hermann Dons, who was succeeded in 1956 by Mr. Charles Bernard. At the outset, it attracted more young working journalists than students hoping to take up newspaper work, but the proportions were later reversed.

1. See article by Léon Duwaerts, Secretary-General of the Belgian Press Association, in *IPI Report*, March 1953, p. 10.

In 1937 the institute became legally independent, while remaining under the effective control of the General Association of the Belgian Press. The course of study lasts two years, with annual examinations. The institute's diploma enjoys no official recognition. For admission, students must produce a school certificate or sit for an entrance examination.

The syllabus includes, first, general history, Belgian political history, economics, sociology, literature, dramatic, music and art criticism, and an introduction to criminology and forensic medicine and, second, study of information media (news broadcasts, documentary news films, etc.), history of the development of the Belgian Press, the work of the great European journalists, the political and historical education of the journalist, press law, and professional ethics and standards in journalism. This is supplemented by a number of courses in practical journalism.

The institute is divided into two departments — for French-speaking and Flemish-speaking students — each with a staff of about twenty teachers. The Flemish department was established in 1934; since then, 242 students have passed through it, 41 of whom were awarded the final certificate. The French department, between 1922 and 1952, handled 1,127 students and awarded 98 diplomas.

University Courses

Department of Journalism at the University of Brussels. This department is attached to the Faculty of Philosophy and Arts, and is not so much a school for journalists as a faculty of journalistic studies. The course lasts two years, leading to a degree in journalism, which, like the institute's diploma, has no legal standing. The examination consists of two oral tests, taken at the end of each year of study. To qualify for enrolment, candidates must hold a university diploma furnishing proof at least two years' study.

The compulsory subjects include general history, the parliamentary and legislative history of Belgium, contemporary international politics, public law and press law, the history of the press, professional ethics, information and its role in society. Students also have to select six optional subjects from a wide list, ranging from the history of education to agricultural economics. These subjects, with the exception of those having a direct bearing on the press, are part of the regular courses for the Faculty of Philosophy and Arts. Even the course in the general history of the press is given by one of the ordinary lecturers in the faculty, and there is only one professional journalist on the staff.

Since its foundation in 1945, the department has had 161 students, 32 of whom have been awarded diplomas. To obtain the final certificate, students are required to work for a period with a newspaper. Such arrangements are, however, seldom

made with the larger dailies, since most newspapers are reluctant to take on candidates whom they do not intend to keep on their staff and who, being unpaid, may cause discontent among the regular staff.

The School of Journalism at the Catholic University of Louvain. This school, founded in 1946, comes under the School of Political and Social Science which, together with the School of Economics, forms the Faculty of Economics and Social Science. The School of Journalism awards no diploma of its own, but furnishes a certificate of attendance at special journalism courses, which may be added to the diploma of political and social sciences.

The programme of studies includes all subjects taken in the School of Political and Social Science, plus the following six special courses of lectures (in French and Flemish): history of the press, press law, sociology and professional ethics, technique of journalism, public opinion and propaganda, and study of the different styles of journalism. Students are also required to attend a seminar which affords them an opportunity for practical experience in editorial work and reporting.

As at Brussels, the courses at Louvain are conducted by the regular staff of the faculty, with the exception of the lectures on the history of the press and the technique of journalism, which, in both the French and the Flemish sections, are given by professional journalists. In 1950, the Flemish section began the publication of a series of works on journalism.[1]

To date, some 300 students, including a number of Netherlanders, have taken one or more of the special courses; 87 of them have obtained the special certificate of journalism. As at Brussels, certain academic qualifications are required for enrolment, e.g., two years' previous study at a university. Like those issued by the other two establishments, the Louvain certificate carries no legal weight.

FRANCE

Schools of Journalism

In France, the university has only recently and indirectly become associated with the professional training of journalists, through the inauguration of courses on the press and public opinion at the Institut d'études politiques, in Paris; journalistic training and newspaper science are covered by separate institutions, although no doctrinal distinction is drawn between the two types. The profession itself has closed links with both fields.

1. The latest volume is a study of the ethics of the press, by Father N. de Volder.

Centre de formation des journalistes, Paris.[1] The centre was set up in 1946 by professional associations of publishers, editors and journalists, and is administered under their joint supervision. It provides a two-year course, which many of the candidates take in conjunction with other studies or while they are working; successful candidates obtain a certificate of aptitude for the profession of journalism. Out of every 40 students starting the course only 10 or 12 complete it, as the standards set are high. They become acquainted with the working methods (through lectures and extensive practical exercises) and organization of newspapers; they learn the main facts about printing techniques, and acquire a knowledge of the background of current affairs — history, politics, economics, life in foreign countries, etc. Thus, when they enter the profession they already have a sound training behind them, are better equipped than the majority of candidates for jobs and have developed an active taste for finding things out for themselves and constantly extending their knowledge.

The training centre's income consists largely of subsidies from the 'apprentice tax', paid by all firms according to salary levels and administered by the Technical Instruction Department of the Ministry of Education. It is an independent institution and most of its lecturers, selected by the Board of Management, are professional journalists.

Ecole supérieure de journalisme, Lille. This school was established in 1924 under the auspices of the Catholic Faculties of Lille, and provides both general instruction (in philosophy, sociology, constitutional law, history and political economy) and specialized instruction (practical exercises in editorial work in the first year, sub-editing and make-up in the second year, and feature-writing, editorials, articles, etc., in the third year of study). The aim is to train journalists to be able to take on any of the tasks arising in a newspaper office. Travel for study purposes and interneship with newspapers are arranged. The course lasts three years and about six students graduate every year. It is only natural that relations with the press should be mainly, though not exclusively, with Catholic journals.

Newspaper Science

The Institut français de presse (IFP) is quite a different type of organization. Since its establishment in 1953, it has concentrated its activities on newspaper science.

Just before the second world war, an Institut de science de la presse was set up as an affiliate of the University of Paris; in 1938 and 1939 it published a remarkable collection of reports, dealing with French and foreign problems alike, under the title

1. *IPI Report*, October 1953, p. 5.

of *Cahiers de la presse*. After the Liberation, a fresh effort was made with the establishment of the Centre d'études scientifiques de la presse, which published the review *Etudes de presse* in 1946 and 1947, but had in its turn to close down owing to lack of financial resources. The idea, however, was not abandoned. Men with the cause of journalism at heart — not only professionals, publishers, editors and journalists, but also teachers and research-workers — still continued to explore ways and means of starting afresh.

The IFP's objectives are not utilitarian. It considers press problems because of their own intrinsic importance. The object is both to assemble data and to provide a channel for co-operation between the various branches of university study involved. Newspapers themselves, to whose generosity the institute owes the major part of its funds, realize that such research helps to maintain the rightful position of the press as one of the most important factors in the life of nations.

Since 1951, publication of the review *Etudes de presse* has been resumed on the same lines as a few years previously; the first section consists of original articles, and the second of documentation. The latter includes basic information about the press in France and other countries, and texts and documents concerning legislation and court cases.

The IFP, with its headquarters at the Fondation nationale des sciences politiques, is building up a documentation centre and a specialized library, and, in co-operation with the Bibliothèque nationale, is compiling a systematic card-index of all material published throughout the world on the subject of press and information, whether in book form or in newspapers and periodicals.

It is to be hoped that the first achievements in France under the aegis of the university will be supplemented by a university research and training centre specializing in the press. In any case, the importance of the subject, both from the country's own point of view and from that of the necessary links with other countries, more than justifies the existence of the Institut français de presse as at present constituted, and the hopes that are entertained for its extension.

Radio and Television

The Centre d'études radiophoniques[1] of the French Broadcasting and Television Corporation serves as: a 'forum' for the exchange of ideas on the functions and development of broadcasting and television; a 'training centre' providing specialized instruction in the techniques of communication by means of radio and television; a 'laboratory' where teams of research workers study clearly defined problems with a view to putting

1. See *Le Centre d'études radiophoniques*, by Jean Tardieu, Director of the CER, 37, rue de l'Université, Paris.

their findings into practice in the planning and production of broadcasts and in the working out of programmes.

The most significant sequences in the broadcasts produced by the Radiodiffusion-Télévision française over the last ten years or so have been duplicated and filed in the centre's archives. The centre also publishes a quarterly review entitled *Cahiers d'études de radio-télévision.*

Films

In 1947, the University of Paris set up an Institut de filmologie within the Faculty of Arts at the Sorbonne.

The institute does five different types of work:[1] experimental research in the field of psychology regarding the phenomenon whereby the succession of film images sinks into and transforms the spectator's mind without his knowledge; documentation (historical studies and research on the development of practical film work); aesthetics and sociology (study of the importance of films in human behaviour today); comparative studies; and, lastly, research into standards of application problems relating to the possible functions of the film in the life of the individual and of society).

In addition, there is in Paris the Académie française du cinéma, which arranges informative lectures.

GERMANY (FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF)[2]

In Germany, as elsewhere, opinions differ as to whether journalists should be trained in professional schools or on the job. One school of thought considers that journalistic skills are best picked up in a newspaper office, while another takes the view that in practical journalism only those candidates should be accepted who have acquainted themselves with the techniques of journalism, and qualified satisfactorily, in the professional schools.

Differences apart, both attitudes leave the question of the actual form of professional training still to be solved; and in this connexion it should be noted that in Germany schools of journalism, all privately founded, are not numerous and have not yet moved beyond the experimental stage.

New Developments — Practical Training

Werner Friedmann Institute. In 1949, a school of journalism of a special type was opened at the Werner Friedmann Institute

1. See *Revue internationale de filmologie*, No. 1, July/August 1947, p. 87-8. (Presses Universitaires de France.)
2. See article by Professor Karl d'Ester, director of the Institut für Zeitungswissenschaft, Munich University, in *IPI Report*, October 1954, p. 9.

in Munich. A non-profit-making company was formed at the instance of the editor of the *Süddeutsche Zeitung*, Mr. Werner Friedmann, for the purpose, under its articles of association, of providing free training in journalism for young Germans.[1] A dozen young people are admitted to the institute by competition each year and spend twelve months studying journalism and publishing under the guidance of members of the staff of newspapers and publishing firms; during training they receive a living allowance from the foundation.

While the institute had the practical advantage of being located in the premises of a major publishing house, there were no precedents in Germany on which its programme could be based. It was, however, possible to draw certain parallels with experiments in the Netherlands, Denmark and the United States of America.

The courses are divided into two six-month terms, for the first of which there is a syllabus requiring about 800 working hours. In the mornings, there are classes in copy-writing, at which students learn to draft news stories, correct manuscripts and write up agency messages; while the afternoons are kept for classes in domestic and foreign political affairs, economics, features and sport, given by specialist journalists. There are also classes in press law and in English, shorthand and typing.

Another course introduces a novelty — namely, practice, with magnetophone recordings and loudspeakers, in producing broadcast news programmes. Under the supervision of a news programme specialist of the Bavarian Broadcasting Organization, a news programme is actually broadcast daily at 1 p.m. and enjoys some local popularity.

The Werner Friedmann Institute never has more than twelve students, in obedience to the two basic principles of intensive coaching and avoidance of the academic. Every effort is made to approximate as closely as possible to actual working conditions. Students are taken to plays, press conferences, meetings or parliament, etc., and have to submit detailed reports, which are then discussed. There are three instructors, chosen for their special knowledge and their teaching ability, for each student.

During the second term, students are attached to selected newspapers, the D.P.A. press agency and broadcasting and television organizations for six weeks, when they have an opportunity of putting their knowledge into practice and can, in turn, be assessed objectively by the publishers and editors under whom they work.

The greatest difficulty consists in selecting the twelve students to be accepted from among the large numbers of applicants. In the first year, 1949, over 1,700 applications were received, with 1,165 in the second year and 450 in the third.

1. See article by the institute's director, Mr. Rolf Meyer, in *IPI Report*, November 1955.

After a series of written tests, the first forty candidates are invited to Munich, where they sit a further rigorous examination. Among the tests are rewriting, compressing to forty-five lines, and headlining a sixty-line passage full of faults of style (time allowed: 20 minutes); completion of a four-page questionnaire on 'general knowledge' (35 minutes); preparation, in 20 minutes, of a report of a ten-minute interview; and getting and writing up a story on a set subject in Munich (3 hours). Five assessors report to the board of examiners on the various tests, and it is on this basis that the twelve successful candidates are chosen.

So far, it has been possible to place all students, on completion of training, as reporters or sub-editors with newspapers, magazines or broadcasting and television undertakings.

In addition to the journalism course proper, refresher courses lasting a few weeks are arranged for young working journalists, selected by the institute on the advice of newspaper managers and editors.

School of Journalism, Aix-la-Chapelle. In 1945, the first post-war school of journalism in Germany was founded at the instance of the American occupation authorities, with the aim of educating, 'by scientific methods, future democratic journalists who should be independent and responsible in thought and practice' for all branches of press, film, radio and television work. The school's programme includes academic courses as well as practical journalistic work. It is spread over three terms of four months each and is financed by the school, which receives a State grant, and by a special fund set up by industrial, press and radio interests.

'Communications' as an Academic Subject

The functions of faculties of journalism and communications (*Publizistik*) differ from those of the schools described above. Their object is less to provide technical training than to carry out research and provide more academic courses. They are thus primarily concerned with constructive criticism of contemporary journalism; and the courses they offer are intended for students of all subjects — education, law, medicine, economics, etc. — wishing to acquaint themselves with the principles and practice of journalism. In this way, 'newspaper science' (Zeitungswissenschaft) assists the public relations efforts of the press and helps to define its role in society.

What prospective journalists are offered in these faculties is not so much practical training as background culture in the university tradition; but there is no neglect of their training in the technical domains essential to the exercise of their profession, to which scientific research is constantly giving added importance.

Of the twelve institutes of journalism and communications which existed in Germany before 1933, only five survive, but two new institutes have been established since the war. These seven establishments are:

The Institut für Publizistik at the Free University of Berlin: This institute is concerned with systematic research and teaching on communications in general and the special fields of the printed press, radio and films.

The Institut für Publizistik at the University of Münster (Westphalia): Teaching and research subjects here are the press, radio and films, and advertising, public opinion and contemporary history. The institute was founded in 1919 and has an average student enrolment of 80. Since 1949 it has been directed by Professor Hagemann, who has played an important part in elaborating and studying the concept of *Publizistik*.

The Institut für Publizistik at the University of Heidelberg: This institute's objects and working methods are similar to those of the two already mentioned. It was founded in 1927 as a school of journalism, by the German Newspaper Publishers' Association and journalists' associations, to provide practical training for journalists and publishers. However, as a school of this type does not fit into the framework of a university, it was renamed after the war and is now concerned with studies in the field of public opinion and communications and, more generally, with questions relating to sociology.

The Institut für Zeitungswissenschaft at the University of Munich: Unlike the institutes dealt with above, that attached to the University of Munich has never been primarily concerned with the sociological phenomenon of public opinion and journalistic means of influencing public opinion. The 'newspaper' is studied as an independent ethnographical phenomenon extending beyond sociology to the major field of anthropology. A Chair of Practical Journalism has, however, been established, the incumbent being a professional journalist.

The Institute of Newspaper Science at the University for Economic and Social Sciences, Nuremberg: This institute concentrates on the press as a phenomenon, newspaper management, and the economic aspects of the newspaper industry.

Hans-Bredow Institute for Broadcasting and Television (University of Hamburg): This institute, founded after the war, is concerned with radio and television problems. It is directed by Professor Zeculiu and is in close touch with Hamburg University.

Social Science Faculty (Hochschule für Sozialwissenschaften), Wilhelmshaven: this faculty has a Chair of Communications, held by Professor Wilmont Haacke.

GREECE

Journalists are trained 'on the job', in newspaper offices. Some professional circles, however, consider that it would be well to set up a school attached to a university. In 1952, an interesting experiment was tried out, when Professor Kenneth Olson of the North-Western University gave a series of private lectures over a period of several weeks; this met with great success.

ITALY[1]

Journalistic Training prior to 1945

Professional training for journalists is a recent growth in Italy. At the beginning of the century, arrangements for a few independent courses were made by the Universities of Naples and Turin, but this type of training has really taken root only in about the last twenty-five years, with the courses organized in 1928 by the School of Journalism in Rome, under the auspices of the Press Federation, and the specialized courses on journalism established in the same year by the Faculty of Political Science at the University of Perugia. These four-year courses, comprising both theoretical and practical studies, led to a diploma which was officially recognized as the equivalent of the qualifying diploma necessary at that time for all wishing to practise as journalists.

For various reasons, these courses were short-lived, but the system was not entirely discarded. Out of it has developed the present Chair in the History of Journalism at the University of Perugia, now held by Professor Paolo Orano; and the independent courses in the same subject conducted at Rome and Urbino by Messrs. Fattorello, Perino-Bembo, Barbieri and Gaeta, the only four regular professors of journalism in Italy today.

The Present Situation

Public Opinion Centre, Rome (Centro di Demodossalogia).[2] This was the first establishment to reinstitute a course in journalism training after the war. It was set up in 1939 with the object of making a thorough study of 'the art and science of public opinion' and of improving journalistic techniques; courses of four types are provided — extension, intermediate, university and postgraduate courses. The extension course, which lasts from six months to a year, provides practical training for journalists who are to occupy junior positions in news-

1. See article by Camille Mallarmé, of the Centro di Demodossalogia, Rome, in *IPI Report*, December 1954, p. 6.
2. *IPI Report*, February 1955, p. 12.

paper offices. The other three courses, lasting two years, include the following six subjects in the first year: science of public opinion, analysis of current affairs, journalism and related activities, propaganda and advertising, the arts, and public opinion surveys. In the second year, only the first three subjects continue to be studied.

These courses have been given official recognition. Between the first and the second years, candidates for the diploma are given a psychological test by a vocational guidance service, which also helps to find suitable employment for them on completion of their course.

Istituto Italiano di Pubblicismo, Rome.[1] This institute was opened in 1947. Its director (Professor Fattorello) has organized two-year courses covering propaganda techniques and other matters. The institute was responsible for introducing the study of news techniques, ideological propaganda and commercial advertising in Italy. The basis of the curriculum is sociology ('technique of imparting information to the general public').

Not only was the institute behind the introductory course in journalism started in the Faculty of Statistical Sciences at the University of Rome, but in 1947 it also founded the Scuola di Pubblicistica, which awards a technical diploma for Italian journalists. In addition, this school has for some years been arranging exchanges of teachers with universities in the United States of America.

Higher Institute for the Science of Public Opinion. In 1948, Father Morlion, of Belgium, opened a Catholic school of journalism in Rome. This institute provides professional training for Catholic journalists, endeavouring to awaken in them a sense of their high responsibilities in the enlightenment of public opinion. It provides a two-year course of study covering the various specialized aspects of journalism.

Journalism course of the Ecomond Agency. In 1950, the press agency Ecomond inaugurated a one-year course in journalism in Rome, supplemented by a six-month extension course. The course may be taken by correspondence and covers 19 subjects, such as the organization of the press, the history of journalism, editorial and printing techniques, the science of public opinion, etc.

Journalism course at the Independent University of Urbino. In 1949, the Press Association of Emilia instituted a three-year journalism course at the Independent University of Urbino. It later endeavoured to extend its educational work to other Italian cities; but in practice it has gone no further than the organizing

1. *IPI Report*, February 1955, p. 12.

of a few lectures, nearly all in Milan. No university degree required for enrolment for the Urbino course, and candidates may enter for the examinations without attending lectures. The syllabus includes 19 subjects, only two of which are directly connected with journalism; the remaining 17, ranging from literature to law, come under various other faculties.

Higher Institute of Social Psychology, Turin. This institute, established in Turin in 1951, has a Chair of Communications Psychology.

Institute of Journalism, Palermo. On the initiative of a few journalists and students, an Institute of Journalism was set up in Palermo in 1952 and launched a programme of lectures on the history of journalism and the science of public opinion. In conjunction with these lectures, students take a theoretical and practical course of training at the University of Palermo under the supervision of Mr. E. Melati, editor of the *Giornale di Sicilia.* The whole course, lasting three years, is open to students who have completed an advanced secondary education and is designed for the training of higher-ranking journalists.

Enrolment and Graduates

Over the past ten years, the above faculties and centres have awarded diplomas to some 500 candidates, a third of whom graduated from Father Morlion's Institute for the Science of Public Opinion, a third from the Centro di Demodossalogia, Rome, and the remaining third from the other establishments. Enrolments are, on the whole, rising (except at Father Morlion's institute, which has lost ground). At the Centro di Demodossalogia, there are more than 800 students, over half of whom attend the extension courses. Owing to unemployment in the profession, this centre decided, for the academic year 1954-55, to limit enrolments for its intermediate, university and post-graduate courses, by an entrance examination. On the other hand, the extension courses are to be expanded, and special finishing courses are to be organized in various Italian cities.

Films

A number of specialized journals and film institutes have been established.[1]

1. See 'Recherches sur les problèmes du Cinéma', by Alberto Marzi and R. Canestrari in the *Revue Internationale de Filmologie,* Vol. III, No. 11, p. 179.

NETHERLANDS[1]

Since the war, there have been two special courses for journalists — a general course at Amsterdam, and a course based on Catholic principles at Nijmegen.

Institute of Press Studies at the University of Amsterdam. This institute is directed by Mr. Kurt Baschwitz, Professor of Psychology and Journalism, and Mr. Maarten Rooy, editor of the *Nieuwe Rotterdamse Courant* and chairman of the National Committee of the IPI. The institute was formally opened in 1952 after a trial period of three years. It is maintained by the City of Amsterdam and by publishing firms, and is entirely independent of the university, although Professor Baschwitz and some of his colleagues lecture there and the students registered in the various faculties pay only a very small fee for the course.

The institute's courses are intended for young journalists and trainees, the basic principle being that both need to acquire some general knowledge to supplement their secondary education and to familiarize themselves with the requirements of their profession. These courses therefore cannot be strictly described as training courses for prospective journalists; they are, rather, 'extension' courses.

The syllabus covers two years and consists of four lectures a week for 24 weeks in the year, on the following subjects: history of the Netherlands and the international press (14 hours); mass psychology, public opinion and propaganda (14 hours); press law and ethics (7 hours); economic problems of the press (14 hours); civics (16 hours); public finance (8 hours); economics (8 hours); sociology (8 hours); modern history (12 hours); and international politics (12 hours). Approximately 40 hours are set aside for practical exercises.

To obtain a certificate, candidates must pass preliminary examinations in seven subjects, including the first four in the above list, which are compulsory.

At present, approximately 90 students are taking the course, 55 of them being journalists and trainees, while the remainder are university students and other interested persons. The fee for journalists and trainees amounts to 250 florins, part of which is paid by their newspapers.

The fact that several newspaper editors in various parts of the country encourage younger members of their staff to attend these lectures is proof that their value is appreciated.

The Nijmegen course. The course of journalism at Nijmegen was inaugurated in 1948, in co-operation with the Catholic University and the Catholic Institute of Journalism, to which Catholic

1. See article by Mr. Maarten Schneider, of The Hague, in *IPI Report*, May 1955, p. 4.

editors, publishers and journalists belong. This course is run by the institute and open to young journalists and registered university students. It is directed by Mr. Jan Nieuwenhuis, formerly editor of the Rotterdam daily, *De Maasbode*, and now head of that city's press service.

The syllabus includes Friday evening and Saturday morning lectures on the art of journalism, the history of journalism, press law, public opinion, etc. (1 hour a week); typography, newspaper and press agency organization, practical exercises, reporting, editorial work, etc. (2 hours); and theoretical and practical training in style (1 hour).

After two years' study, candidates do three months' practical work, after which they sit for their final examinations. The number of students to date has varied from 12 to 50. As a rule, half are university students, paying a very small fee, while the other half are young journalists, who pay a total fee of 350 florins.

A scientific review. A new international review on communications and press studies, *Gazette*, is published quarterly at Leyden.

SWITZERLAND[1]

Swiss journalists have hitherto not been recruited primarily from among graduates of university courses in journalism, and these graduates are not necessarily given any preference by newspaper editors. In the latters' opinion, a period of training with a newspaper is more important; and although a university degree is becoming more and more necessary for entry to the profession — about 70 per cent of professional journalists are university graduates — some newspaper offices still appoint candidates who have had no higher education. The situation is changing, however, and advanced journalistic training is tending to assume greater importance than in the past.

Switzerland today has no faculty or school of journalism — a fact that may seem surprising when it is remembered that at the turn of the century this country was a pioneer in training for journalism. In 1884, a German professor, Karl Bücher, started a course at the University of Basle, which was the first attempt to each journalism in a European university.[2] In 1890, Bücher left Basle for Leipzig, but in 1903 the Universities of Berne and Zürich introduced advanced instruction for journalism into their curricula. At Berne this introduction was suspended for long periods, but at Zürich it was systematically continued.

1. See article by Mr. Armand Gaspard, of Zürich, *IPI Report*, May 1956.
2. The first Faculty of Journalism was founded in 1870 at Washington College, Lexington.

The Seminar on Journalism at the University of Zürich owes its success to a great teacher, Oscar Wettstein (1866-1952). For some twenty years, while pursuing a brilliant career in journalism and politics, Wettstein lectured on press history, law and techniques. He also wrote a number of studies on the press and, immediately after the first world war, even suggested the establishment of an international press institute. It was his opinion that the institute should be linked with a university in some neutral country and aim at providing an international type of training for journalists from different countries.

The Zürich Seminar. This seminar has remained on a small scale, forming a department of the Arts Faculty (philosophy and history). It awards no diploma in journalism and the lectures, occupying two hours a week, are optional. Candidates for the Doctorate may, however, choose for their thesis a subject bearing on journalism. Since the foundation of the seminar, several theses have been presented on such 'press' questions as the history, ethics, sociology and psychology of mass communication. The seminar has a library containing some 3,000 books and pamphlets, together with extensive archives, which are particularly useful for the history of journalism.

The Zürich Seminar concentrates more on newspaper science than on practical journalism. It sets out not so much to train qualified journalists as to give students a general idea of the problems arising in the journalist's profession.

Since 1952, Mr. Siegfried Frey, Director of the Swiss Telegraphic Agency, has been the lecturer in journalism at the University of Zürich. The course covers the history of journalism, the structure of the Swiss press, the press and public opinion; and it includes practical editorial work, with special reference to the reporting of parliamentary proceedings. The courses are attended by some fifty students and other interested persons.

The University of Berne. After a long break, the journalism course in the Faculty of Law was resumed in 1942. Here, too, the lecturer is Mr. Siegfried Frey, who, as at Zürich, has taken the place of Professor Karl Weber. The lectures, occupying two hours a week, cover the same subjects as at Zürich and are attended by 20-30 students. For their history research, they can use the collections of the Gutenberg Museum, established in 1900, which has over 25,000 specimens of newspapers from all over the world.

The University of Fribourg. Journalism has been taught here intermittently, one of the most noted instructors being the celebrated Sury d'Aspremont.

The University of Lausanne. Since 1951, Mr. Jacques Bourquin has been lecturing at the School of Social and Political Sciences,

on mass communication in modern society. His lectures cover press history and legislation, professional ethics, and the editorial and management sides of newspaper work. They are supplemented by visits to newspapers, printing offices, and broadcasting and television studios. Theses for the Doctorate in Law have been presented on subjects connected with the press, and facilities for interneships are available to prospective journalists.

The Swiss Film Library. The library, with its headquarters at Lausanne, is an aid in the process of training film critics and extending the knowledge of all who have a professional, social or artistic interest in films. It serves as a documentation and research centre and, in accordance with the instructions of the International Federation of Film Archives,[1] co-operates to good purpose with the Swiss Television Organization and brings out a periodical publication entitled *Bulletin de la cinémathèque suisse.*

CONCLUSIONS

What lessons can we learn from the methods used in Western Europe for the training of journalists? Can we, by considering them as a body, establish certain educational principles and guiding ideas which may serve as a basis for the training of journalists throughout the world? If so, how can we gain acceptance for these methods and ideas, publicize them and make them generally known?

In other words, can Unesco, either directly or through other bodies, take on the task of improving the recruitment and training of journalists? A constructive answer to these difficult and complex questions may be found in the proposals outlined below.

Suggestions for a Common Basis for Teaching

If journalism schools have adequate staff and funds for the purpose, they should not confine themselves to the training of journalists and correspondents for the printed press, but should extend their teaching to the staff employed by all the main media of mass communication, including radio, films and television, as well as the press.

Moreover, it is not only prospective journalists who need to be acquainted with the intricate and varied machinery of the great media of mass communication; the senior staff of government departments, publishing firms, advertising firms and distribution agencies should also be familiar with the functions,

1. Congress at Venice, October 1953.

responsibilities and operation of mass communication in the world today. Such knowledge is of benefit to future diplomats, Civil Servants and politicians — in short, to all who, directly or indirectly, will in the course of their lives come into contact with the main media for the moulding of public opinion. This type of instruction should therefore be extended as widely as possible.

Journalism schools should concentrate on inculcating in future journalists a keen sense of their moral and social responsibilities.[1] High ethical standards, ruling out sensationalism and intolerance, and a concern for objectivity and impartiality, are the chief goals to be aimed at. An intensive study of the history and culture of other peoples should be included in the curricula of all schools of journalism, to provide a background for more accurate interpretation of international news and events.

Prospective journalists should also make a scientific study of the press and its problems, for their intrinsic interest, without any immediate utilitarian aim. This would help to broaden the background of their training, which should not be confined to practical issues.

Prospective journalists should be trained to respect certain rules, since there are special methods for the getting and circulation of news, as for other activities. It is necessary to explain how the income and expenditure of a newspaper are balanced, and why sound commercial and administrative management is an effective safeguard for the freedom of journalists.

Knowledge of foreign languages is conducive to better mutual understanding between journalists of different nationalities, and should be extended and encouraged.

Efforts should be made to provide a comprehensive training, including the study not only of mass communication techniques and their repercussions but also of general background subjects, without, however, neglecting training in the fundamental techniques.

A few basic philosophical problems, such as 'free will and determinism' and 'the concept of truth', should be discussed without bias in all schools of journalism. Study of the operation of parliamentary democracies and of the safeguards for individual liberties should make it clear which systems of government provide the most effective guarantees for individual freedom of expression. Lastly, students should be shown why freedom of information and of the press are the best safeguards of democracy, and at the same time a means of counteracting abuses.

Ways and means. The profession — that is, publishers and editors, journalists and all connected with the daily life of the main communication media — should be closely associated with the work done to promote professional training for journalism.

1. Resolution No. 35 of the Final Act of the United Nations Conference on Freedom of Information.

Through co-operation with professional associations, internships with newspapers can be arranged for trainees, and refresher courses for practising journalists. The example set by the American Press Institute, which regularly organizes practical courses and meetings of journalists at Columbia University, might well be followed.

The two different branches — academic education and practical training — should be reconciled and, if possible, co-ordinated. University training in one of the traditional faculties (arts, law, social science, economics, commerce, administrative or political sciences), supplemented by lectures on communications, the press, journalism, etc., is the best preparation for a journalistic career and for appointment to senior posts on the management side in newspaper offices. But this rather academic type of training must be accompanied by practical work and internships with newspapers, if possible abroad.

Czechoslovakia

by VLADIMIR KLIMEŠ,
Lecturer at the Charles University,
Prague, Czechoslovakia

The present organization of professional training for journalists in Czechoslovakia is the outcome of various experiments. As long ago as 1910, the problem of providing formal training facilities was given serious consideration by the Czech National Council. After the foundation of the Republic, further attempts were made to set up a professional school of journalism in Czechoslovakia; the most resolute of these efforts resulted in the establishment of a Section of Journalism at the Independent School of Political Science, in Prague, in 1928. It was not until after the second world war, however, that the first higher institution for the training of journalists came into being, with the creation of the Faculty of Journalism as part of the new Higher School of Political and Social Science in Prague. When, in 1952, this school became the Higher School of Economics, the teaching of journalism was transferred to the universities. At present, both the Faculty of Philology of Charles University (Prague) and the Arts School of Comenius University (Bratislava) have Sections of Journalism.

GENERAL APPROACH

In Czechoslovakia, the teaching of journalism is based on two fundamental principles: (a) That the press — like all other

communication media — is a political institution; and (b) that journalism, whose means of expression is the written or spoken word (all other means of expression being of merely secondary importance, even in the case of television), is essentially a literary activity and is in its own right a very important branch of literature.

For this reason, while all journalists are required to possess as extensive and as thorough a knowledge as possible of the social sciences, they should also have mastered the basic techniques (which are essentially literary in character) of journalistic work.

It should be noted at this point that schools of journalism in Czechoslovakia, unlike those in certain other countries, do not provide training in all branches of journalistic activity (e.g., radio, television and newsreel work). They simply train correspondents, reporters, political writers, members of newspaper or periodical staffs, heads of the various services, etc.

Journalists specializing in particular fields, such as economics, literature, art, agriculture, for which more detailed knowledge is necessary, are required to have higher educational qualifications in the subjects concerned.

ORGANIZATION OF STUDIES

Training courses in journalism in Czechoslovakia cover a five-year period, as also do courses in other branches of the social sciences. In order to be eligible for enrolment, a candidate must have completed the third educational cycle, which terminates with the secondary school leaving certificate. He is then called up for a special interview, in the light of which the dean of the faculty concerned decides whether he will be admitted, provisionally, to the journalism course for one year.

During the first year, the students attend classes at the faculty for three days a week, the three remaining days being spent, under the supervision of teachers from the section of journalism, in practical training in the offices of selected daily newspapers. At the end of the first year, a decision is taken as to whether the student may or may not continue with the course.

During the next four years, the students attend classes at the faculty, do practical work and take part in organized visits (to Parliament, the town councils, courts of law, large State factories and construction grounds, peasants' co-operatives, etc.). In addition, they must spend a month every year working in the office of a daily newspaper or periodical.

The course, like all university courses in Czechoslovakia, concludes with a State examination and the defence of a thesis. A successful student obtains a graduate philologist's diploma (an academic degree corresponding to the former Doctorate of Letters).

Graduates who wish to specialize in the theoretical side of journalism or to do advanced study in a particular subject may, after three years' practical work in an editorial office, return to the university and become 'aspirants' to the degree of Doctor of Science. After three years' study, those who have passed the required examinations and had their thesis accepted become 'candidates' for the doctorate in philological sciences. Subsequently, in accordance with the general rules governing the award of science degrees, a student may, after defending a second thesis, receive the title of Doctor of Philological Sciences. Apart from these university degrees, 'candidates' and Doctors of Philological Sciences may submit special theses in order to qualify as 'lecturers' or 'professors'.

SUBJECTS TAUGHT

In the programme at present in force the courses, seminars and exercises may be divided into three main groups.

The first group, consisting of courses in the social sciences, comprises: general philosophical studies, including the history of philosophy; special courses in logic and applied psychology; introduction to political theory; Czechoslovak history, including an introduction to the method of historical study; the theory of the State and of law; political economy, including the history of economic theories and the economic history of Czechoslovakia; political and economic geography; courses on international relations, including contemporary world history, the history of diplomacy and a general outline of international law. Over the five-year period, these courses add up to about 1,000 hours.

The second group consists of courses and seminars particularly concerned with the literary training of journalists, and comprises: Czech and Slovak philology, with an introduction to linguistics; journalistic style; theory of literature; history of Czech and Slovak literature; history of world literature; history of Russian literature before and after 1917. Courses and exercises in foreign languages may also, because of their philological character, be included in this group — candidates must choose two of the following three foreign languages: English, French or German. All these courses, seminars and exercises total about 900 hours over the five-year period.

The third and largest group of courses, seminars and exercises totalling some 1,300 hours, consists of the journalistic disciplines proper, namely: introduction to journalistic studies; history of Czechoslovak journalism; history of world journalism; history of Russian journalism before and after 1917; the contemporary world press; the function and role of the press in society and the moral and ideological principles of journalism; investigations and reporting; types of journalism; typographic

presentation; the organization of editorial services and work; theory of journalism. Subjects of courses and seminars include the following: (a) introduction to the theory of radio broadcasting; (b) specific methods of journalistic work for radio; (c) the function of illustrations in newspapers and the problems of photographic reporting.

CORRESPONDENCE COURSES

Both the Prague and the Bratislava faculties offer, in addition, training in journalism by correspondence. In each case the course is a five-year one. Those accepted as correspondence students must meet the same requirements as ordinary students and must also have worked as professional journalists for at least two years. The correspondence course differs from the full-time course only with respect to the teaching methods used. Correspondence students come together at the faculty for at least two days every month in order to meet the professors and their assistants and discuss their work with them. Once every semester, there is a gathering of this kind which lasts a week. Correspondence students must pass the same diploma examinations as the full-time students.

Denmark

by Troels Fink,
Head, School of Journalism,
University of Aarhus, Denmark

The School of Journalism at Aarhus University (Journalistkursus ved Aarhus Universitet) was founded in 1946 as an independent institution in co-operation with the university and all Danish press organizations. The school is financed by contributions from press organizations and the Government.

At first the school had only one class a day for a period of three months every autumn. This course is still carried on as an elementary course especially designed for young journalists who have spent at least two years of the normal three years' apprenticeship period on the editorial staff of a newspaper.

The curriculum includes professional journalistic subjects of a technical and theoretical character as well as general cultural subjects. The aim is to give young journalists an introduction to all problems — editorial, journalistic and technical as well as administrative; the organization of the distribution of news is also a teaching subject. The young journalist must

learn how all the cogs in the vast machinery of press organization work and interact. At the same time, he must also have an understanding of the structure of society, modern history and international relations. Lectures are also given on modern literature, modern psychology, and the universe in the light of modern physics.

Every year, about twenty young journalists participate in the elementary course. Though the results have been satisfactory, the elementary training period may have to be extended in the future to two terms of three months each.

After the first few years it was realized that there was also a need for the advanced training of journalists who had passed their apprenticeship and had some years of experience in practical journalism. In order to meet this need a new advanced course was established in 1953. Since then this course has been offered every spring term. The course lasts for three months; particular stress is laid on the following points: (a) A critical analysis of the sources of news is considered essential and students have to provide their own material for exercises in this type of analysis; (b) every participating journalist is confronted with his own writings and, in accordance with the principles of the science of semantics, linguistic exercises are held under the title of 'Language as a Tool for Journalists'; (c) the ethical principles of journalism are considered in different ways — this branch of teaching has not yet reached its definite form. The principle of studying actual case material is also applied.

The advanced course comprises only a few lectures; as a rule seminars are preferred. Subjects such as international relations, contemporary history (Danish and foreign), economics and social policy are also dealt with. At the School of Journalism the journalist is given the same source material as he uses on his own job. He writes articles, but is relieved from the time pressure of the editorial desk, and his work is criticized by a scientifically trained teacher and discussed by all participants.

In order to obtain suitable source material the School of Journalism has its own editorial archives. These consist of cuttings from news agency reports, and are of particular interest for the critical analysis of the sources of press information. The material is also useful for the writing of articles on Danish and foreign politics and on international relations, economics and social policy. The editorial archives, which were established in 1953, are also useful for scientific studies of the press.

For some years the School of Journalism at Aarhus University has been collecting funds to build its own premises. Danish newspapers and press organizations have presented the school with 550,000 Danish crowns (approximately $80,000) and a government loan of about 350,000 Danish crowns (approximately $50,850) has been granted. The foundation stone was laid on

15 September 1956, and the new building was expected be completed exactly one year later. In the new house, rooms for 33 students will be available at moderate rates. There is also accommodation for a library, for the archives and for offices, as well as a lecture room and a lounge.

A REGIONAL TRAINING CENTRE

In 1955 at a meeting of the Scandinavian Council[1] a suggestion was made that joint facilities should be provided for the advanced training of Scandinavian journalists. In January 1956 the delegates of the Scandinavian Council recommended that the governments should finance a Scandinavian advanced course in journalism to be held at Aarhus University and in co-operation with the university's School of Journalism. In 1957 a board of directors was elected representing all Scandinavian press organizations, and the first course, which is to last three months, will begin on 1 February 1958. If needs be, the advanced Danish course will be conducted in addition to the Scandinavian course, but not before 1959.

Finland

by Osmo Mäkeläinen,
Editor of *Finlandia Pictorial*, Helsinki, Finland

Finland has 110 newspapers and 1,200 periodicals; 800 newspaper editors and journalists and 160 editors and journalists working for magazines belong to professional organizations.

The country has no special school of journalism, nor, so far, any faculty of journalism at any of the universities. The Institute of Social Sciences has since the 1930s provided instruction in journalism. The great majority of reporters receive no formal training in journalism before taking up their work. Studies abroad in this specific field have been extremely rare because of language difficulties and the long distances involved.

Helsinki University has for over two years organized so-called subsidiary courses in elementary journalism for graduates and its Faculty of Political Sciences is planning the establishment of a chair for an assistant professor in journalism.

The Association of Journalists in Finland has, since 1924, arranged one-week courses for active newspapermen. Since

1. The Nordiska Raadet, composed of representatives from the Scandinavian Governments and Parliaments, meets annually to promote Scandinavian co-operation.

the war the Association of Magazine Editors also has arranged courses for its members almost every year. These courses have been a permanent feature since 1954, and in addition to the journalistic organizations (and employer organizations) the Finnish Cultural Fund has also participated actively in the work and has, moreover, been partly responsible for organizing the courses.

Newspaper and magazine correspondents first attend a theoretical course of one week. Then the two groups split up for practical courses of at least one week. Thus both cultural and professional aspects are taken into consideration. The theoretical courses comprise lectures on public opinion, reader interest and readability, illustrations and other technical questions as well as on problems of topical interest. The practical courses cover various professional questions, from reproduction techniques to copyright law.

Participation in the courses is possible for any interested member of the journalistic associations. A per diem allowance is paid to correspondents from outside Helsinki, who are expected to attend all the lectures and practical exercises. The number of participants in the theoretical courses in autumn 1956 was 50-60, and in the practical course for magazine journalism 35-75. Both courses were held in Helsinki; the practical courses for newspapermen are organized in alternate years in other major cities throughout the country.

For the financing of these courses a journalists' continuation training fund has been established in connexion with the Finnish Cultural Fund. Journalists' associations also make contributions to it.

As the Institute of Social Sciences is to move from Helsinki to Tampere in the next few years, the capital will no longer have a special library in the field. Magazine editors, however, have taken measures to establish a special journalistic library in connexion with the library of the Students' Union of Helsinki University. The Faculty of Political Sciences of the same university will also, later on, establish a seminar library in the field. But there is a lack of books well adapted to the needs of teachers of journalism and their students.

In recent times members of the profession have had more opportunities than before of travelling abroad on scholarships so as to acquaint themselves with journalistic practice abroad and to participate in courses in journalism, notably in the United States of America. But no grants have been available for long-term study abroad.

Norway

by CARL JUST,
Director of the School of Journalism,
Oslo, Norway

The main task of a school of journalism is to teach students everything connected with the press, journalism and newspaper technique. The school also has the subsidiary task of giving guidance to its students on a large number of subjects with which they will be called upon to deal in practising their profession; these may range from the structure of the State to surrealism. The all-round journalist is not expected to go deeply into any of these subjects — so long as he is not a specialist — but merely to bring them before the public eye. He must, however, have a basic knowledge of them, so as to be able to make a correct use of the information in his possession. It is most important for students to be acquainted with the sources of information and to learn the art of accurate reporting.

OUTLINE OF THE SITUATION

Training for journalism in Norway is based on the criteria defined above. The Oslo School of Journalism (Journalistakademiet i Oslo), founded in 1951, is an independent institution and its director is a journalist. Its sole present link with the universities is the fact that the universities of Oslo and Bergen each have a representative on its governing board. It was set up by the Norwegian Association of Editors and Journalists and the National Federation of Norwegian Newspaper Publishers; it is financed by contributions from press organizations and the State. The length of the training course is ten months.

A handbook of some 300 pages is published by the director of the Journalistakademiet; this also serves as the basic textbook for correspondence courses given at the Norwegian Correspondence School (Norsk Korrespondanseskole), the largest training school in Norway, which is held in high esteem. That school provides a course in the form of 13 printed lesson books; at the end of each book a composition is set for the student and this is afterwards corrected by the teacher. Of the 1,500 students who have followed these courses since 1943, without having any previous professional experience, 150 are now permanently employed on daily papers or periodicals or with broadcasting organizations.

THE NORWEGIAN EXPERIMENT

The Norwegian press organizations had made arrangements every year for short courses for young journalists. However, in 1950, a fact-finding committee came to the conclusion that a school of journalism should be established. They recommended that the minimum training period should be ten months; several members advocated a two-year period. The training now provided by the School of Journalism is based on the principle that journalism is not a science but a liberal profession which demands a considerable stock of general knowledge and even, in certain cases, specialized knowledge. The aim is thus to provide training and experience for all-round journalists and newspaper correspondents. It was thought unnecessary, in a small country like Norway, to set up an essentially scientific faculty for the very small number of trainees intending to become special columnists.

The number of students at the school is limited to fifteen. This enables the director to give maximum attention to each student; it also makes the group readily mobile. Visits to newspaper offices, institutions, organizations, societies, museums, large industrial undertakings, etc., are an essential part of the training, as are study tours. As far as possible, students are given an opportunity of seeing as realities the phenomena that are the subjects of their studies. For instance, when they are studying the distribution of electricity, students will be able to visit a large power-station and talk with the engineers. The training course includes lectures, during which the students can put questions to the teachers; discussions; exercises in journalism, followed by analysis and criticism.

The curriculum was originally drawn up to suit the special circumstances of the Norwegian press. Account had to be taken of the fact that most of the students came from newspapers with a comparatively small circulation. The course does, however, include instruction adapted to the needs of journalists employed by newspapers with a wider circulation. In the beginning, the curriculum was found to include too many subjects. Since then, a large number of special subjects has been excluded. The studies fall into two main categories: (a) History of the press, matters relating to the press, and journalism; (b) general subjects.

Students learn something of the history of the press and are given a general idea of the press in Norway, Denmark, Sweden, Finland and in the larger countries. The aim of this 'basic' instruction is to help them realize what a good journalist and a good newspaper can be.

The other subjects come within various domains: languages, history, home policy, foreign policy, political systems and management of public affairs, municipal administration, the general law of the land, economics, statistics, main Norwegian

industries, national and international means of communication, Norwegian national defence, literature, drama, fine arts, cinema and photography.

Instruction is given by the director of the school assisted by highly qualified press experts from Sweden, Denmark and Norway, and by university teachers, doctors and *agrégés*, teachers from institutions of higher learning, directors of cultural institutions, writers, artists, librarians, heads of commercial and industrial undertakings, jurists, municipal leaders, representatives of administrative departments, members of the Legislative Assembly and of the government. Every year since the school was founded, the Norwegian Minister of Foreign Affairs has lectured to the young journalists on Norwegian foreign policy and on the international situation, afterwards granting them personal interviews.

Students are expected to supplement their class work by systematic reading. They are then asked to prepare a brief article on one of the lectures they have attended. There is no special examination at the end of the course. However, students are asked to write two compositions each year; these demand a good deal of skill and a broad general knowledge, without, however, requiring specialized knowledge.

The school tries to give help and support to students applying for scholarships or for posts. The Norwegian press places full reliance in the opinion expressed by the school regarding the students.

Poland

by Mieczyslaw Kafel,
Professor at the Faculty of Journalism,
University of Warsaw, Poland

HISTORY AND ORGANIZATION

The beginnings of journalistic studies in Poland go back to the years 1917-18, when the Department of Journalism was opened at the Academy of Political Sciences in Warsaw and several other courses in journalism were also organized. In 1927 the Higher School of Journalism was established in Warsaw; in 1936 it was raised to academic rank. The Higher School of Journalism was re-established in 1946.

The next important step in the development of journalistic studies in Poland was the establishment of the Faculty of Journalism at the University of Warsaw in 1952. The curriculum of this faculty now covers five years; the programme comprises

lectures and seminars on some 20 subjects. These may be grouped as follows: (a) Ideological subjects: principles of philosophy, political economy, etc. (b) Historical subjects: European history, Polish history, history of the Polish and foreign press. (c) Contemporary Polish language and history of Polish literature with an introduction to literary theories and European literature. (d) Journalistic subjects, including such courses as: The political function of the press; the contemporary press; organization of work in editorial offices; the technique of publishing. Seminars are given on 'Forms of Journalistic Work', 'Polish and Foreign Journalism' and current events. Seminars are also offered to those specializing in a chosen field such as international affairs, cultural life, sport, theatre, and film criticism.

Language requirements include the study of two foreign languages.

THE FACULTY

The faculty comprises nine Chairs: Theory and Practice of Journalism, History of the Press, History of Diplomacy and International Relations, Contemporary Press, History of the Polish Press, Techniques of Publishing, International Relations, Periodicals and Literary Criticism, Style and Culture of Language. The remaining subjects, such as Polish history and geography, are taught by lecturers from other departments of the university.

Students who have completed all the required courses and whose dissertations have been accepted receive the Master's degree in journalism.

Students applying for admission must pass a preliminary examination consisting of a written examination in Polish literature and an oral one in history and in knowledge of the Constitution.

Students of the Faculty of Journalism edit their own monthly, *Horyzonty* (Horizons), thus doing their first practical work in journalism and helping to develop their cultural life. In January 1956 appeared the first issue of another monthly, *Horyzonty Prasoznawcze* (Horizons of Press Research).

PROGRAMME OF STUDIES

The list below comprises all subjects included in the programme of studies at the Faculty of Journalism: Principles of philosophy; political economy; dialectical and historical materialism; economical and political geography of Poland and the world; Polish history; world and European history of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries; Polish literature; world literature of the

nineteenth and twentieth centuries; Polish language; history of the Polish press; history of the foreign press; theory and practice of journalism; journalistic seminars (to be chosen by the students); advanced seminar (connected with the topic of the dissertation); publishing technique and graphic arrangement of newspapers; press photography and shorthand; current events; foreign languages (English, French, German or Russian); physical training.

The courses on the contemporary press are survey courses, aimed at acquainting students with the economic and organizational structure of the Polish and foreign press as well as with different types of press publications. Foreign radio and television stations are also discussed. Several hours are devoted to international and Polish associations of journalists, schools of journalism and institutes of press research.

Half of the time is devoted to the study of the Polish press, the lectures covering such topics as the structure and organization of radio, news agencies and newspapers; various types of the Polish press and selected problems of the Polish press before the second world war are also considered.

In the second year of studies, lectures are devoted to the political function of the press and deal with the principal ideological and political problems with which the socialist press is concerned at present.

The lectures further cover various forms of journalistic work under the following headings: (a) Small forms — headlines, captions, shorts, notices, etc.; (b) medium forms — home and foreign correspondence, interviews, etc.; (c) historical forms — editorials, long reports, feature articles, etc.; (d) photos and drawings; (e) radio, television, exhibitions, visual propaganda.

Before taking the examination in publishing technique every student is required to obtain credits for a special assignment and to do practical work in either shorthand or press photography.

Students in their fourth and fifth year of study are required to participate in seminars connected with the topic of their dissertations (Master's seminars). In addition, there are 'special seminars' for those with special interests of their own. The following seminars are regularly held:

Journalistic seminars: reporting; editorial and article writing.

Special seminars: theatrical criticism; film criticism; radio forms; secretarial work in editorial offices; sport.

Master's seminars: history of the press; editing; theory of the press; European literature; literary criticism; Polish language; publishing technique; economics of agriculture; economics of industry; international affairs.

Summer practice is an essential part of the journalistic education offered in Poland. Four weeks of summer practice are required after the first, second, third and fourth years. Students do their practical work in the editorial offices of newspapers, press

agencies and radio stations, in Warsaw as well as in other cities.

PLACEMENT OF GRADUATES

Upon completion of their studies students are very often employed in the editorial offices of the newspapers or publishing companies in which they gained their first practical experience. But this is not a rule. Poland has about 100 newspapers, over 900 periodicals, several radio stations, two television stations and numerous book publishing companies; periodicals are also published by factories and other institutions. All these offer openings for journalists graduating from the Faculty of Journalism of Warsaw University.

Some entrants may find employment as researchers or teachers in the Institute of Press Research or in the Faculty of Journalism at the University of Warsaw. The former, established in 1954, conducts research in the field of the press and of the history of the Polish press, although the Faculty of Journalism also engages in research work.

RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

The Faculty of Journalism, like any other university department, is not merely concerned with teaching but also with research. The subject matter of this research is the press, and other fields closely related to it. Successful teaching can be done only if it is based on sound research. The press research conducted by the Faculty of Journalism may be regarded as an independent scientific discipline within the range of the social sciences. This research may be divided into two main groups.

Work arising directly from the didactic purpose of the faculty. This work is done not only by the faculty but also by many well-known journalists with wide practical experience. Students offer their assistance and help to collect bibliographical material, etc. One of the results of this kind of work has been a collective textbook, *The Contemporary Press.*

Individual research. This is done mostly by professors particularly interested in press research. Assistants have also begun to do some promising work in this respect, and the first results of their investigations are now being published. They are helped by more experienced colleagues. Problems covered by these research projects are as follows:

The Contemporary Polish Press. A large bibliography, covering the period from 1945 to 1955 is now being printed. Work on monographs on two newspapers is in progress.

The Foreign Press. Research in this field covers the work of foreign press agencies, and the education of journalists and journalistic studies abroad; foreign works on the professional training of journalists and on press research are made accessible through anthologies.

The History of the Press. Work is being done on a critical guide to the newspapers and periodicals published in Poland between the two world wars. A bibliography of work on the history of press and press research, a list of archives and of materials concerning the history of the Polish press are planned. A handbook on the history of the Polish press is now being printed, and plans are ready for publications dealing with more recent developments in the Polish press.

Publishing Techniques. Topics include: An outline history of printing; an outline of publishing techniques; work on a dictionary of journalism and publishing; organization and working methods of press publications issued by factories and other enterprises.

The Department of Style and Culture of Language is doing extensive research work connected with the faculty's scientific projects. Research workers in this section have published several works on the language of the press.

Spain

by JUAN BENEYTO,
Director of the School of Journalism
and of the *Gaceta de la Prensa, Madrid, Spain*

HISTORICAL REVIEW

Before the restoration of the Spanish State in 1938, there had been no academic institution specializing in professional training for journalism. Journalists acquired their training on the job and, as a general rule, entered the profession without any qualifications other than their desire to do newspaper work. As early as 1923, however, this situation had begun to cause anxiety; and in 1926 the Catholic paper, *El Debate*, introduced the first training course for journalists. When the Central Government was reorganized in February 1938, a Press Department was established at the Ministry of the Interior. In April of that year, the Press Law made provision for 'academic training in journalism'.

The law of 1938 established the Official Register of Journalists, which was to contain the names of all journalists of proved professional capacity, whether they were actually exercising their profession at the time when the law came into

force, or had exercised it prior to 18 July 1936, the date of the Rising. Since the number of journalists entered in the Register was not sufficient to meet requirements, it was decided, by the Ministerial Order of 24 August 1940, to resort to emergency training by means of 'specialization' courses. The latter were open only to persons with a university or higher education, and to regular army officers. Among the subjects taught were international affairs; and students who passed the examination had, before being placed on the Official Register of Journalists, to do three months' practical work on a newspaper, chosen in each case by the Press Department.

On the basis of the same Ministerial Order of 1940, the School of Journalism was established in 1941. From 1941 to 1945, the press services were placed under the control of the Falangist Party and the courses were submitted for approval to the National Press Delegation, which organized six-month cycles of studies. In 1945, as the result of a new administrative reform, all these services (Department of Popular Education) were transferred to the Ministry of Education. It was then decided to revert to an earlier plan whereby the School of Journalism was to be attached to the University of Madrid, with the difference that this time it would not come under the Faculty of Arts but under the newly established Faculty of Political Science. Pending a decision on this matter, the school's activities during the years 1945-51 were limited to the organizing of rapid training courses.

An extremely important reform took place in 1951. Pursuant to the law of 1938, the press services were attached to the former Department of Press, Propaganda and Tourism, previously dependent on the Ministry of the Interior but reconstituted as the Ministry of Information and Tourism. The school resumed its activities and the Ministerial Order of 7 March 1953 gives grounds for hoping that the experimental period is over and that the school is now founded on a permanent basis. Recently, a new Order (July 1957) modified the curriculum.

ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL

The Spanish School of Journalism is a State institution, i.e., it is part of the State educational system. It is the only one of its kind in the country, and its students are drawn from all regions, from Galicia to the Canaries and the Balearic Islands. It has its headquarters in Madrid and has set up a branch in Barcelona. The course lasts three years and, as the Barcelona branch provides instruction covering only the first two years of the curriculum, all students attend the Madrid centre for the last year of the course.

The school is controlled by a governing board, comprising representatives of the administrative authorities, of professional

associations and former students, and of press, radio, television, publicity and newsreel services. Thus, this board is responsible for the educational task of the school, whereas matters of internal organization are entrusted to a director, appointed by the Ministry of Information. A deputy-director, responsible for directing studies and for dealing with questions concerning the application of the school regulations, and a secretary in charge of administrative matters have also been appointed.

The regulations governing admission to the Spanish School of Journalism are established at the end of each school year, by instructions issued by the Director-General of the Press. For example, for the 1940 courses, it was stipulated that the number of vacancies would be limited 'in accordance with yearly needs', while the 1941 regulations fixed the number of students at twenty.

As from 1957, all candidates who pass the entrance examination — which is fairly stiff — are admitted. In fact, out of approximately three hundred candidates, about fifty gain admission.

Selection is by competitive examination, but account is also taken of the candidate's *curriculum vitae*, which must be attached to his application for admission and which is scrutinized by the director himself during the examination. The tests, which are both oral and written, bear on current affairs. The board of examiners consists of the director (as chairman), the deputy-director, the secretary and two members of the teaching staff. Since September 1954, the examination has included a special test of 'journalistic aptitude'; each candidate must answer 75 questions on current national and foreign affairs. On the basis of the number of marks obtained, it is possible to assess with mathematical accuracy — the assessment has always been confirmed by experience — the candidate's real interest in the profession. A knowledge of French and English is required.

CURRICULUM

The curriculum of the School of Journalism was recently modified, by a decision of the governing board. Thus, pursuant to the Ministerial Order of 20 July 1957, the school's three-year course covers cultural and technical subjects and includes seminars, lectures and practical work. The cultural subjects are as follows: current world affairs, contemporary Spain, Spanish culture, ethics and deontology, sociology, the history of journalism, the theory of information and the legal structure and financing of information services. The technical studies cover: journalistic style, the theory of news, the theory of publicity, the technique of graphic arts, and the organization and methods of news transmission. French and English are

studied during the three-year course, and lectures, followed by discussions, are arranged on current affairs and related questions. Seminars are organized on editing, news reporting, typography and page-setting, illustration (including photography and newsreels), broadcasting (including television) and publicity (including public relations). At the end of the second year, during the summer vacation, students of journalism replace journalists absent on statutory paid leave. During the third year, the seminars are replaced by practical training in newspaper offices, radio and television stations and publicity undertakings.

The school year lasts from 1 October to 15 June; attendance at classes is compulsory. Students who have successfully completed the course are admitted to the final examination, which includes written tests in subjects chosen by the board of examiners. In general, these written tests comprise: writing a leading article; sifting, heading and, where necessary, sub-heading agency news; summarizing a text, lecture or speech; rewriting a piece of reporting; interviewing a person of note; and writing a literary article. The oral tests bear on the organization of enterprises, legislation, and on foreign languages. Since 1954, students have also had to present a dissertation or thesis on an approved subject connected with the press, radio, etc.

The board of examiners for the final examination consists of members of the governing board and of the teaching staff, but two newspaper directors, who represent the interests of the profession, have most say in the matter.

Successful candidates receive a Diploma of Journalism, which entitles them to be placed on the Official Register of Journalists, and thus to begin exercising their profession immediately.

The Spanish School of Journalism organizes seminars during the summer vacation. Since 1954, a course organized at Salou (Tarragona) has been attended by students and professionals specializing in the various branches of information. The purposes of this seminar are the exchange of knowledge gained by practical experience, the establishment of contacts between specialists, and study of the various methods and activities in the field of journalism. At the present time, this seminar is organized by a local governing board, headed by the authorities of Tarragona, as provided for by a Ministerial Order of June 1957. In addition to the School of Journalism, there is now a course instituted by the University of Santander, originally intended as a rapid initiation for young university students in journalistic techniques, it has now been transformed into a course in journalism proper. Lastly, since 1952, the author of the present report has been giving, at the Faculty of Political Science in the University of Madrid, a course on the sociology of information and the theory of opinion, at the Doctorate level.

Students of journalism in Spain receive support from press

and radio enterprises, professional associations and various other organizations which offer them fellowships, independently of those offered by educational welfare services, youth movements and trade unions. These fellowships also entitle the holders to attend seminars organized during the summer vacation.

Sweden

by SVEN SANDSTEDT,
Feature editor, *Svenska Dagbladet*, Stockholm;
Member of the Committee for the Education of Journalists, Sweden

INITIAL AND ADVANCED STUDY COURSES

There is no State-aided training of journalists in Sweden. Since 1946 study courses have occasionally been organized by the three leading Swedish press organizations, the Press Club (Publicistklubben), the Union of the Swedish Journalists (Svenska Journalistförbundet) and the Newspaper Publishers' Association of Sweden (Svenska Tidningsutgivareföreningen).

At the University of Göteborg such courses began in 1945 with the co-operation of local newspapers. The University of Stockholm (Stockholms högskola) periodically offers courses of training for journalists in collaboration with the three press organizations mentioned. In 1950 and 1951 extensive courses, lasting 6-8 weeks, were held for beginners. Special courses in different fields for experienced journalists were also organized. One such course, held in Stockholm from 19 to 22 March 1956, was attended by editors, foreign editors and other editorial staff. The lecturers included the Swedish Minister of Foreign Affairs. A seven-week course for beginners with an attendance of 50 was organized in the spring of 1956.

The committee for the organization of study courses (known as the Hastad Committee after its president, Professor Hastad of Stockholm University) has also taken up the matter of press research and of an institute for press research. It was suggested that press research should be entrusted to the University of Stockholm.

POPPIUS'S JOURNALISTS' SCHOOL

For some years a private undertaking, Poppius's Journalists' School (Poppius Journalistskola), Stockholm, has offered general instruction in journalism to persons who wish to work in the daily and weekly press, as editors and writers of professional and technical journals, etc. The school has no official support.

THE 1955 COMMITTEE FOR THE EDUCATION OF JOURNALISTS

On 6 October 1955, the Committee for the Education of Journalists (Journalistutbildningskommittén 1955) was constituted in Stockholm. Its president is Mr. Allan Hernelius, editor-in-chief of the Stockholm daily *Svenska Dagbladet*. The committee was appointed at the request of the Swedish Journalists' Union and the Newspaper Publishers' Association of Sweden. Later on the Press Club (Publicistklubben) also came to be represented on the committee.

The first task of the committee is to investigate the present status of journalistic training and to submit appropriate proposals. The committee is in touch with the Swedish Ministry of Education and other authorities. The result of the investigation concerning the education of journalists in Sweden will be presented in September or October 1957.

The committee has found that a memorandum, prepared by the Hastad Committee, may be a suitable basis for the future organization of journalism education. Journalistic training might comprise: (a) general education before practical newspaper work; (b) basic training after some professional practice; (c) further education after a longer period of work as a journalist.

For the time being it has been decided to leave aside the question of a Swedish press institute and of press research and to concentrate, instead, exclusively upon journalistic training. It is considered that government assistance will be necessary in this respect.

The Swedish journalist generally has a very good education, often completed by university studies and academic degrees. He also enjoys a fair social status. Professionally, most of his practical training is carried out in the newspaper office. This has so far been considered a sound preparation but modern society demands more and more from the journalist. He is forced to specialize in one or more fields. Professional opinion in Sweden now is that it is no longer possible for the young journalist to acquire the necessary knowledge solely through his everyday work. Journalistic training has therefore become a question of current interest and it is hoped that a satisfactory solution will be arrived at within the next few years. The inter-Scandinavian training courses, to be started in Aarhus in the autumn of 1957, will be an important step forward in this respect.

Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

by E. L. KHUDIAKOV,
Dean of the Faculty of Journalism,
University of Moscow, U.S.S.R.

Journalism in Russia dates back to the first handwritten Russian newspapers. They bore such names as *Vesti* (News), *Vestovye pis'ma* (Correspondence) and *Vedomosti* (Information), or occasionally harked back to their original Dutch prototype and called themselves *Kuranty*. The earliest ones in our hands date from 1621. The first Russian newspaper in printed form, *Vedomosti*, made its appearance at the end of 1702 and was followed by a host of other newspapers and reviews.

Printing and publishing underwent a vast expansion in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics after the October Revolution. The development of journalism and the journalistic profession can be gauged from the mere fact that over 5,400 newspapers in 60 languages are at present published in the U.S.S.R., a total of over 46 million copies per issue being printed (Tsarist Russia had 859 newspapers in 24 languages and a total of 2,729,000 copies was printed).

The U.S.S.R. also produces 2,500 reviews and other periodicals. Apart from newspapers and reviews, the 300-odd publishing houses annually produce over 50,000 works in the languages of all the peoples of the U.S.S.R., and also works in foreign languages.

The great expansion of the press, broadcasting and television in the constituent Republics has naturally intensified the demand for skilled journalists.

Professional training for journalists in the U.S.S.R. is a comparatively recent innovation. Before the October Revolution, there were no training establishments in Russia specially designed for journalists. During the first few years of Soviet rule, short-term courses on journalism were organized, and 1921 saw the establishment of the Moscow Institute of Journalism. This was followed by the creation of departments of journalism at a number of higher educational establishments, and the organization of special schools and courses.

After the second world war, a number of departments of journalism were established at universities within the framework of the Faculties of Philology. The largest centre for the basic and advanced training of journalists is the Faculty of Journalism at the Lomonossov University, in Moscow. There are also separate faculties at the Universities of Kiev and Lvov (Ukrainian S.S.R.); while departments coming under the Faculty of Philology exist at the Universities of Leningrad, Azerbaijan (Baku), Byelorussia (Minsk), Sverdlovsk, Central Asia (Tashkent), Vilnius (Lithuanian S.S.R.), Kazakhstan (Alma-

Ata), Tiflis (Georgian S.S.R.) and Erivan (Armenian S.S.R.), at all of which instruction is given in the languages of the various Republics.

During the past four years, the universities have trained about 2,000 young journalists, who are now employed on various organs of the press. This is not a large number considering the rapid expansion of the press, the greater size and more frequent appearance of newspapers, the number of reviews and other periodicals, and the advances made in broadcasting and television. At conferences convened by Unesco and the University of Strasbourg on professional training for journalism and on scientific research in the field of information, the question was raised whether trainee journalists were able to find work on leaving the university. Our own reply was that in the U.S.S.R. all trainees were assured of a job, and that we needed journalists, who were in short supply. On the occasion of the award of diplomas at the Moscow Faculty of Journalism for the academic year 1956-57, less than 20 per cent of the existing vacancies for graduates could be filled. A similar situation obtains at the other universities, despite the considerable number of diplomas awarded. At present, 3,220 students are taking regular courses at the university faculties and departments of journalism, and another 1,880 are taking evening or correspondence courses. Outside the universities, there are a number of schools and courses for training journalists.

CURRICULA

The regular courses at university faculties and departments of journalism cover five years, and the correspondence courses six years.

The Moscow faculties gives specialized training in two fields: work on literary newspapers, and editorial work on publications for the masses. Apart from philological subjects, the curriculum includes political economy, philosophy, modern history and the history of Russian and foreign literature. In the past, little attention was paid to economic problems, but a course on the economy of industrial and agricultural undertakings is now to be found in the curriculum. Special importance is attached to the study of contemporary Russian and style, as well as to that of foreign languages, press photography, shorthand and typing. Great attention is paid, in both the press and publishing sections, to specifically journalistic subjects. Courses are given on the history of Russian and foreign journalism and the history of the Soviet press.

The last-mentioned course stresses the part played by the press in the life of Soviet society and gives a concrete picture of how the press came into being, developed and ramified.

Apart from the permanent teaching staff, some of the courses

and lectures are given by leading journalists employed by TASS (Soviet Union Telegraphic Agency), *Pravda*, *Izvestia* and *Komsomol'skaja Pravda*, or by other Moscow newspapers, reviews or publishing houses.

The course on the history of foreign journalism includes the history of the press in China, India, the United Kingdom, France, Germany, the United States of America, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, Hungary and other countries, with the main emphasis on an analysis of the democratic traditions of the press in Russia and abroad. The history of the press in modern times occupies a prominent place, and the role of the press in the struggle for peace, friendship and mutual understanding between the peoples of the world is particularly carefully examined.

The courses on the theory and practice of journalism cover all the many-sided activities of the Soviet press. Special importance is attached to the theoretical study of the various forms of journalism (news items, reports from correspondents, articles, essays, features, press surveys, reviews, etc.) and how to handle them in practice. Outside the actual courses, the students do written work centred upon the main subjects and the main forms of journalism (reports from correspondents, articles, reviews, etc.), which are then discussed collectively. The organization of editorial office tasks and newsgathering, the appropriate methods of work for the various departments of metropolitan and local newspapers, and the press presentation of national and international questions bulk large in the courses. Apart from the purely editorial side, the students are initiated into the technique of presenting and producing a newspaper, the work of TASS and the broadcasting and television services, and the special characteristics of different organs of the press.

Apart from the general courses, there are very important special courses on the history, theory and practice of journalism, as well as special seminars on the subjects of reviews, press surveys, literary criticism and bibliography, newspaper presentation of economic and cultural questions and so forth.

The level of journalistic training depends largely on the standard of the courses, seminars and practical work and on the subject matter required for the end-of-course and diploma papers. The inter-university conference held in April 1957 to improve the training of journalists went thoroughly into all aspects of the question of raising still further the level of teaching and research methods at the faculties and departments; significantly, the editorial offices of the metropolitan and regional newspapers showed great interest in the conference and came forward with a number of useful proposals.

PRACTICAL INSTRUCTION

Journalistic training is given not only in the lecture halls of the faculties but also in the editorial offices of individual newspapers, reviews and publishing houses. During their five-year term of study, the students undergo four practical periods of training. Their initiation into journalistic practice takes place at the end of their second year of study, when they are already equipped with a certain amount of theoretical and practical knowledge. The in-service courses last 6-8 weeks, and are conducted by members of the faculty's teaching staff and by experienced journalists.

At the end of each course, the copy produced by the students is examined by the group under the guidance of the professors, lectures and teachers of the faculty. A careful study is made of the news items, reports from correspondents, articles, essays, features, etc., drafted by the students (whether they have appeared in print or not) and all the other work done during the period. The results are assessed in the following way: the student speaks first in defence of his work, which is then criticized by another member of the group, the rest of the students and the instructors joining in the discussion. The director of the course concludes by summing up the discussion and evaluating the results obtained. In this manner, close attention is paid to the proper execution of the programme (each course has its own programme laying down the number and type of the items to be drafted, the amount of column space they should take up, etc.) and to the topicality of subject matter, the literary and political competence of the students, their individuality of style, and so on.

Following the group study of the trainees' work, they and the teaching staff hold conferences (which are also attended by representatives of various newspapers and reviews) to sum up the results of the group's practical work and draw general conclusions, the language and style of the written work being subjected to thorough analysis.

The Moscow Faculty has a trainee printing shop, shorthand-typing classrooms, a photographic workshop, and rooms for radio transmission and tape recording. The students in the various years issue their own paper, *Zurnalist,* under the guidance of the instructors; it is modelled on existing factory, regional, urban and provincial papers. In this way, the students keep closer to actual conditions; their articles and news reflect local happenings, and — what is most important — are written not for an instructor but for a real newspaper. They also learn how to put letters into literary form and edit material sent in by outside contributors. It is a striking fact that most of the material appearing in this student paper is reprinted by the local press.

During the training a point is made of briefing the faculty

students as fully as possible on all aspects of contemporary life both among the peoples of the Soviet Union and in countries abroad.

With that end in view, the practical courses are so planned as to enable the students to get to know the various facets of the country's political, economic and cultural life. During the practical courses arranged for their second, third, fourth and fifth years, they receive an insight into the work of industrial plants and collective and State farms, visit various economic regions and take an active part in social and cultural life. The faculty's courses on practical economy help them to understand the questions most vital for the construction of a Communist society.

The students are also given an understanding of life and culture in foreign countries, and of questions of world politics. In this connexion they are greatly assisted by the courses on modern history and the history of foreign literatures, as well as by the meetings arranged at the faculty with foreign journalists and representatives of cultural and social circles abroad.

The foregoing relates to the training of specialists for newspapers and reviews. The question now arises of the training provided for editorial staff of publishing houses.

The Book Editor's Department of the Faculty of Journalism concerns itself mainly with training literary editors of books for mass circulation having no specialized scientific or technical character.

The course on editing constitutes the main element in this training. Students learn the practical principles of book editing; they familiarize themselves with the main phases of editorial work, and with editorial methods and practices. The course also covers the special editorial treatment of the various literary forms — politics, popular science, production technique, agriculture, belles-lettres, children's books, etc.

Of great importance for editorial training are the courses on the economy and planning of book publishing, printing technology and book designing.

The Moscow Faculty also offers a course on 'forms and types of broadcasting', and a textbook is at present being prepared for publication on the main aspects of this subject. During their studies, students aspiring to radio and television journalism do practical work at broadcasting stations, engage in radio reporting and take part in actual productions. They follow this up by preparing research papers on specific aspects of broadcasting. Some of the faculty's graduates are now employed at central and local wireless stations and television studios.

As for the training of cinema workers, this is carried out by a special establishment — the All-Union State Institute for Cinematography in Moscow.

Of special importance in training journalists is the Moscow

Faculty's Chair of Stylistics of the Russian Language. A very high standard is required for newspaper writing: it must be simple, clear, accurate, concise and vivid. Only if these requirements are met will the *mot juste* register with the reader and have its due effect on him. Yet to write simply, accurately and vividly is no easy matter. It is not enough for the journalist to be an educated man, versed in all the subtleties of grammar and orthography; he must have all the resources of the language at his finger-tips, and know how to use them. The General Linguistics course familiarizes the student with the social essence of the language, and with its origins and laws of development.

At the same time, the study of classical and contemporary works as part of the course on Modern Literary Russian provides him with the theoretical knowledge which will enable him to evaluate linguistic data scientifically and exploit all the resources which the language has to offer.

The course on Practical Stylistics is of purely professional interest. Russian has a very well-stocked vocabulary, especially so far as synonyms are concerned. It is also very rich in interchangeable grammatical forms and constructions. By choosing the correct turn, even the finest shades of meaning can be successfully rendered.

Each of the courses is followed by practical exercises and written work of various kinds. The students prepare theses on various technical subjects and revise texts. Papers are submitted at the end of the first and second years; in the latter case they consist of an analysis of texts from local newspapers, the student being expected to be thoroughly familiar with the complete set of issues for the past year.

The regular lessons in the Russian language cease after the third year.

CAREERS OPEN TO YOUNG JOURNALISTS

Journalism covers an extremely broad field, and the publications issued deal with the most varied topics — political and scientific, trade and technical, satirical, literary and administrative. Each requires staff with a particular bent — editors, reporters, feature writers, essayists, literary reviewers — who are specialists in many different fields of economic and cultural life. Obviously, a higher educational establishment cannot of itself provide such specialized knowledge; this can be acquired only by practical work.

Experience has shown that the professional careers of graduates of the faculties of journalism follow very different lines. Some are serving as correspondents in foreign countries or provincial centres, or as members of the editorial staffs of metropolitan newspapers and reviews, while others are editors

of local newspapers. The graduates include essayists, feature writers and sports writers, as well as writers on economic subjects and contributors to particular sections of newspapers.

To improve the teaching of the various subjects, the faculties and departments conduct their own research, the university experts making a study of the scientific problems connected with all aspects of journalism: history of the press, and theory and practice of journalism and editorial work.

The faculties of the various universities also operate three-year postgraduate courses for journalists. The latter, like the students, are given State scholarships and free textbooks and are provided with accommodation by the university. After passing their 'Candidate' examination, they submit a thesis and are awarded the degree of Candidate of History or Philology; they are then directed to teaching or press work. Those taking the postgraduate course concentrate on the basic aspects of journalism — the history of the press, and editorial and publishing work, as well as on problems peculiar to the different forms of journalism. The Moscow Faculty also has a Doctor's course, the aim of which is to train experts and higher qualified teaching staff in the various branches of journalistic training.

It is worth stressing that leading authors, publicists and journalists take a most active part in the training of young journalists and greatly help the faculties and departments in their work. The universities, in turn, help working journalists. Moscow University, for example, has recently issued a series of manuals known as *Pressmen's Guides*. In general, the professors and other teachers at the various universities have been responsible for a very large number of manuals.

The Moscow Faculty, in particular, publishes lecture courses for students which are then used as a basis for manuals and textbooks. Titles already issued include 'Newspaper Articles', 'News Items and Correspondence', 'Literary Editing', 'Newspaper Illustration', 'Newspaper Distribution and Dispatch', 'Principles of Newspaper Reporting', and 'TASS and its Role'. In addition, there are a number of works on the history of the press. Others, on such important subjects as feature writing, essay writing, etc., are in process of publication.

Outside Moscow University, books on journalism have been produced by experts and publicists at the Universities of Leningrad and Byelorussia and at other higher educational establishments and centres of learning.

Of the works on newspaper lay-out, special mention should be made of that by V. A. Vyazemski (University Reader) entitled *Newspaper Lay-out and Production: A Practical Manual for Newspaper Workers*. This gives a clear exposition of questions concerning make-up, composition, preparation of the dummy, pictures, typography, caption-writing and proof-reading.

COLLABORATION WITH EDITORIAL OFFICES

The Chairs at the Moscow Faculty of Journalism maintain close relations with the editorial offices of the various newspapers, reviews and publishing houses. The professors, lecturers and instructors give talks to the editorial staffs, submit critical surveys of the material published, contribute regular articles to newspapers and reviews, hold seminars, operate an advisory service for pressmen at the Journalists' Centre, and so forth.

Hundreds of journalists working on reviews and newspapers in Moscow or the capitals of the constituent Republics, or in provincial, regional or district centres, follow the faculty's correspondence courses while continuing their work. They are given broad university instruction in the humanities and at the same time perfect their journalistic knowledge. A notable fact is that those taking correspondence courses include editors of regional newspapers, collective farm chairmen, workers who have had a secondary education, teachers and agronomists.

Journalists who have had a higher education and acquired considerable practical experience can take four-year postgraduate correspondence courses at the faculty without leaving their work. This enables them to perfect their technical training and professional skill. After passing a special 'Candidate' examination, they submit a thesis and are awarded a degree of Candidate in Science. Graduates taking such courses usually choose some current problem of key importance for journalism as the subject for their theses, and this in itself serves to promote the study of journalism as a science. Incidentally, they are given an extra month's paid leave every year by their employers.

SCIENTIFIC STUDY SESSIONS

The faculties and departments of journalism organize, each year, scientific study sessions at which papers are read by the professors and instructors. Research work is done not only by the teaching staff and the graduates, but also by the students themselves. Students' papers are entered in large numbers for the annual university competitions, diplomas and prizes being awarded for the best of them.

Scientific study groups for students, directed by the most experienced members of the teaching staff, have been organized under the auspices of the faculties and departments. The Moscow Faculty has a literary group which discusses the journalistic and literary efforts of its members. All this helps to further the students' journalistic progress.

But there is still room for improvement as regards the study of journalistic problems. At present, the subjects treated for thesis and diploma work mainly relate to the scope and dis-

tinctive characteristics of the various forms of journalism. It is essential to make a scientific analysis of each form and its special features; but it is also necessary to make a similar analysis of the work of leading journalists and publicists, and to consider such questions as information as provided by the local press and the special features of such journalistic forms as the essay, the feature article, the press survey and the review. Much work still remains to be done on the study of such subjects as 'newspaper correspondents and correspondence', 'articles in literary reviews', 'satire in local and metropolitan newspapers', etc.

As already stated, questions bearing on journalistic training are a subject of keen discussion in the Soviet press. For example, *Sovetskaja Pecat'* (The Soviet Press), the organ of the Union of Journalists of the U.S.S.R., has broached the question of establishing a scientific research institute for journalism and of making changes in the conditions for accepting trainee journalists at the faculties and departments. The practice in the U.S.S.R. has hitherto been for higher educational establishments, including the university faculties of journalism, to accept all citizens aged not more than thirty-five who have had a secondary education and who pass a competitive entrance examination. Other things being equal, preference has been given to candidates who have already worked on printed newspapers or reviews (even if only school wall-newspapers). However, it has been found that some of the students accepted under this system lack the necessary ability to master the intricate craft of journalism. It is therefore planned to improve the system of recruitting students, so as to ensure that the applicants accepted are those who have really demonstrated their journalistic capabilities.

The measures adopted by Unesco regarding the professional training of journalists, the exchange of information on the methods applied in this connexion in the different countries, the organization of exchanges of publications between universities and institutes, and — if circumstances permit — the exchange of lecturers, will all undoubtedly contribute towards improving the professional training of journalists.

Soviet experts and journalists consider that pressmen can have no nobler or loftier task than the struggle for peace and friendship between all peoples. We think that the journalist's profession makes it incumbent on him to take an active part in mankind's endeavour to reduce international tension and to find a peaceful solution for the world's main problems.

Journalists have opportunities, greater than those of any other profession, of helping to consolidate peace and friendship between the peoples. A journalist able to understand social phenomena, and the root causes of international events and of events in his own country, can, by truthful and honest exposition of the facts, contribute towards the strengthening of international co-operation.

The Soviet people has a profound respect for the press as the expression of public opinion, and regards freedom of the press as freedom to provide truthful and honest information. Whatever views a journalist may hold, his duty — if he esteems his profession and his status — is to present the facts objectively and truthfully, without concealing or distorting them.

Soviet journalists consider that the great power and influence of the press should be used in the interests of peace, democracy and international co-operation.

United Kingdom

by HOWARD C. STRICK,
Executive Officer of the National Council for the Training of Journalists in the United Kingdom

After a distinction has been drawn between the two main stages of training — for the beginner and for the experienced senior — the next step is to distinguish between the two main methods of organizing the training: training can be based within the newspaper industry itself; or upon a university or college.

The emphasis of control is bound to differ accordingly. If the university is the headquarters, control and atmosphere will be primarily academic, however many advisory committees of journalists there may be or however much time the students spend outside their colleges. Where training is built around the individual newspaper office, for example by an apprenticeship system, academicians will be the outsiders and advisers, the newspapermen themselves retaining ultimate control.

This fine distinction is nevertheless a real one. In an industry such as the press, where practical and sober realism is sought after and is frequently considered as the antithesis of the academic, the theoretical and the reflective, this distinction may well turn the balance between acceptance and rejection of any proposed training project. Without support from the harder-headed members of the industry, any such project will have to struggle for survival, if indeed it is not fore-doomed.

Fundamentally, then, there are these two possible systems. One, based on the educational institution, which concentrates on providing the potential journalist with the necessary background, leaving him to acquire most of his practical experience after his initial training and perhaps after the award of an academic qualification. The other, based within the industry, which places the emphasis on practical experience, according recognition only to those who have proved in practice that

they can hold down the job. The two extremes may be made to shade into each other; and perhaps the ideal lies somewhere between the two.

The countries of the British Commonwealth have experimented with the two 'pure' extremes and with several projects sited between them and containing elements of each.

THE MAIN COLLEGE-BASED COURSES

Relatively little is said here about schools of journalism in the United Kingdom, not because their work has been inconsiderable, but because, their organization and objectives being rather like those of schools of journalism elsewhere, a detailed description would not add much to the fund of international knowledge and experience. Hence, only those schools of journalism are mentioned which have been given a considerable degree of patronage by the newspaper industry. There have been others, more local in their reputation or less successful in capturing the support of powerful individuals or groups within the industry. The three mentioned below have made an important contribution to journalistic education in the United Kingdom.

The London School of Journalism, Limited, is a commercially run correspondence college. The inclusive fee for the full course in journalism is £ 22. There are courses in freelance journalism, in radio, in television and in other aspects of the writer's craft.

The school was founded in 1919 under the direct patronage of Lord Northcliffe. Many famous proprietors and editors gave their support, some to the extent of offering awards and prizes. This is a timely reminder that some aspects of journalism lend themselves to instruction by postal tuition.

The University of London Diploma Course for Journalism has perhaps been the major experiment in the United Kingdom in the setting up of a school of journalism. Started in 1919, primarily at the suggestion of the Institute of Journalists, a trade and professional association which has always had journalistic training very much at heart, the diploma course was attached to the university's Faculty of Arts. For the first two or three years it was mainly designed, with government support, for young men whose careers had been interrupted by war service; 99 of the initial intake of 128 were in this category. Between 1933 and 1939, the average number of students each year to receive the diploma was 22. There is no record of the total number actually placed in positions in journalism after the award of a diploma. Co-operation with the newspaper industry was close and cordial.

On the outbreak of war in 1939, the course was discontinued. After the war, efforts to restart it failed, partly because the overcrowded university could no longer offer accommodation

and partly because the newspaper industry was beginning to think about other methods of training.

The Regent Street Polytechnic, London, started its full-time course in journalism in 1949, as a result of demands by English students and of representations from the Colonial Office which sought help in establishing a course for Colonial students. In addition to the full-time day course of one year (Fee £28) there are evening classes in journalism. The total intake of 25 each year has always included 8 Colonial students. An average of 22 students complete the course; some 80 per cent receive the Polytechnic's Diploma in Journalism.

THE MAIN TRAINING SCHEMES BASED ON NEWSPAPER OFFICES

Any new journalist inevitably undergoes vocational training when he joins a newspaper office. This may vary in extent between haphazard, fragmentary advice, suggestion and abuse and a full-scale weekly training schedule.

Many firms in the United Kingdom have a reputation for the efficiency, thoroughness and enlightenment of their training. Tillotson's of Bolton, the Norfolk News Company, the Home Counties Newspaper Company, D. C. Thomson and Company of Aberdeen and others too numerous to mention are still spoken of with affection and respect by those journalists, many now prominent in the national and the provincial spheres, who received their initial training with those firms.

If only because its fame has extended internationally, the Kemsley Editorial Plan must be specifically mentioned. It started in 1947 and ran until 1952, when that part of it which still operated — the initial training of juniors — was merged with the scheme launched in that year by the National Council for the Training of Journalists. The Kemsley Editorial Plan has now virtually lost its identity in the national scheme.

The Westminster Press Provincial Newspapers, Limited, a group almost as large in staff and as numerous in provincial centres as the Kemsley organization, started a similar system in early 1951. This is now also merged with the national scheme.

LIMITED NATURE OF ALL PROJECTS

Whether based on a college, or on a newspaper or group of newspapers, all the projects so far described suffer from the obvious limitation of not being truly national systems. They could only apply to a proportion of each year's intake of new journalists or of the total number employed at any given time.

Since 1950, for example, the annual intake of new journalists by newspaper firms alone has amounted to nearly 300. The total number of newspaper journalists in employment has been

about 14,000 (including editors). There are 127 general daily and Sunday newspapers and about 450 firms producing between them roughly 1,200 weekly newspapers.

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE TRAINING OF JOURNALISTS

This council is now the accepted responsible organization for journalistic training in the United Kingdom. It is the only British training scheme organized on a national scale.

Origins of the Council

Between 1945 and 1950, several separate attempts were made to work out a national training system acceptable to the industry as a whole. These attempts were all spontaneous and free from outside pressure. It is true that between 1947 and 1949 a Royal Commission was investigating all aspects of the British press. But its report was not issued until June 1949, and although it recommended that the training of journalists should receive close attention, it laid down no detailed lines for action. In fact, the report was more concerned with the establishment of a General Council of the Press, which would have training as one of many responsibilities.

There was by then a strong, if not fully coherent, conviction among newspapermen that the British press would benefit from an organized training system; and that the moment was ripe to establish one. This emerged from the writings and statements of numerous individual members of the industry. The matter was urged and explored by the National Union of Journalists, by the Joint Editorial Committee of the Newspaper Society and the Guild of British Newspaper Editors and by the Institute of Journalists. The merits and demerits of all previous and existing training systems were extensively argued.

Finally, all these bodies joined in a series of exhaustive conferences which in 1952 resulted in the setting up of what was called the National Council for the Training of Journalists. The council's income is derived from contributions made by the trade associations concerned with the editorial side of newspaper production, from examination fees and from the sale of publications. It has not sought any government grant, preferring to remain an integral part of the industry itself. The major items of expenditure are staff, office equipment, etc., and the costs of examinations and printing.

The council is now composed as follows: The Newspaper Proprietors Association (proprietors and managers of the National Press), 3 representatives; The Newspaper Society (proprietors and managers of the provincial press), 5 representatives; The Guild of British Newspaper Editors, 4 representatives; The National Union of Journalists, 5 representatives; The

Institute of Journalists, 3 representatives; The Ministry of Education, 1 representative; The Association of Principals of Technical Institutions, 1 representative; The Scottish Training Committee, 1 representative.

In Scotland, the council works through the Scottish Training Committee, composed of one representative from each of the following associations: The Scottish Daily Newspaper Society; the Scottish Newspaper Proprietors Association; the National Union of Journalists; the Institute of Journalists; and the Guild of British Newspaper Editors (Scotland). The Scottish Committee shares the administrative staff, examination machinery and publications of the council.

Although independent of the government, the council co-operates with the Ministry of Education and the institutions providing advanced education, and is thus representative not only of the entire newspaper industry but of the national education authorities as well. It is recognized by the Ministry of Labour and National Service as the authority for employment, apprenticeship and military service problems affecting newspaper journalists.

Fundamental Principles of the Council's Training Scheme

Training is in two stages: the basic training of juniors, still restricted to newspaper juniors despite some agitation on the part of freelance, magazine and technical juniors; and the advanced training of qualified seniors, to which freelance, magazine and technical journalists are now admitted in certain circumstances.

The council's restrictions are imposed primarily because of a desire to establish and perfect the scheme for newspaper journalists before taking on additional responsibilities which would necessitate a larger council and more ambitious staffing and finance, and because of a belief that for any journalist, training as a reporter on a newspaper is the best form of early experience.

The scheme maintains the individual editor's right to select and train his own staff. New juniors still have to apply for jobs to individual editors, and their training is built around the particular newspaper on which they are employed.

The scheme is based on apprenticeship, partly by subconscious tradition and partly with intent. It seeks to establish as soon as possible a personal relationship between employer, editor and staff; to avoid disruption of training by too frequent changing of employment or by military service (which is deferred until the apprenticeship is completed); to make the responsibilities of employer and employee legally clear and binding; and to ensure, during an era of full employment and of intense demand for experienced journalists, that the employer retains the services of his juniors for a minimum period at least.

The scheme is further based on the idea that the essential theoretical education background — as opposed to the vocational training — should be provided away from the office, but in the same locality as the junior's firm and under the general supervision of his employer. Such background training, it is also felt, should be at least partly at the employer's expense and in his time. The 1944 Education Act authorized a system of 'Industrial Day Release' classes, by which young employees in all occupations are allowed one day of each week for study beyond vocational requirements at local Colleges of Further Education. This system is not yet put into practice by the whole of British industry but already it operates in most centres of population. Every Local Education Authority is obliged by statute to make available whatever demands for advanced education may be put forward by local employers. There are at present roughly 500 of these Colleges of Further Education in England and Wales alone. It was to this system based on local industrial, commercial and social needs, rather than to the relatively Olympian atmosphere of the British university, that the newspaper industry decided to entrust its junior journalists.

The scheme is also based on the feeling that after basic training the experienced senior should have a chance of developing his special potentialities, as sub-editor, sports writer, dramatic critic, foreign correspondent, or in any other branch of journalism.

Thus the training scheme is based on the many different newspaper offices scattered over the British Isles, and is not centralized in any one institution or in any small group of schools of journalism. Training is done locally in hundreds of newspaper offices and Colleges of Further Education. The concil's task is to ensure that a national set of standards is developed and maintained. This is done mainly by exchanging information between the council and the individual editors concerned and by stipulating conditions under which the council examinations may be entered and passed.

Detailed Requirements and Recommendations of the Scheme

Selection of potential journalists. This is through competition for the available jobs. The individual editor, usually in consultation with local schools, keeps an eye on potential journalists in his circulation area. He may encourage them to freelance for his paper. As vacancies arise, he fills them according to such experience, interviews and selection tests of his own, usually involving the finding and writing up of news stories.

The council advises that applicants should have achieved at least the educational level of a 16-year-old High School pupil. Those who have tried to learn shorthand and to have work published are of course viewed with favour. A proportion of

each year's new journalists — perhaps about 10 per cent — are university graduates, usually in Arts or Economics.

After initial selection, a probationary period of six months is required — a most important piece of selection machinery. The probationer is paid a proportion of the current rate, but can be dismissed at any time if his editor decides that he will not make good as a journalist. This system of selection may not necessarily ensure openings for the best of the nation's potential journalists but it should go a long way towards ensuring that resources are not wasted in training unsuitable material.

Apprenticeship and basic training. After the six-month probation, juniors are indentured to the firm for three years, at the full agreed rate for staff junior journalists. The indentures make the employer legally responsible for carrying out the junior's training in accordance with the council's requirements; and the junior for full co-operation during training. In the United Kingdom, a journalist is a junior until the age of 24 years.

The basic training covers the full three years' apprenticeship and is somewhat arbitrarily divided into vocational training and general education. The former is carried out at the place of employment whilst 'general education' is provided at a local college.

Vocational training is intended to turn the trainee into an experienced general reporter with a working knowledge of newspaper processes. It is a process of daily guidance and supervision by the editor and senior journalists, covering every aspect of a young journalist's work.

It is the direct responsibility of the editor, who may delegate the task to one of his senior staff, as either full- or part-time training adviser.

The general education requirements of the scheme are also the responsibility of the editor or his delegate, the training adviser.

These involve study, over the three years, of shorthand to a speed of 140 words per minute; typewriting; English language and literature; the organization and functions of central and local government; the law affecting journalism and the press; British life and institutions; and subjects of the junior's own choice, which usually turn out to be social and economic studies or modern languages, though some students choose dramatic criticism, musical theory, the history of art, etc. No junior has found it impossible anywhere in the United Kingdom to undertake this general education, which is modified for graduates and 'adult entrants', either at a local College of Further Education or by correspondence courses.

Assessment of basic training. As regards general education, the junior is required to take a public examination in each of the subjects. There are about fifteen public examining bodies

recognized by the council for this purpose, including the universities, the Royal Society of Arts and the various shorthand schools.

Assessment of the vocational training is more complicated and more interesting. The council had to set up its own machinery, since there was none already in existence for assessing the ability of journalists. The council is convinced that a written examination will not by itself assess journalistic ability. The ultimate assessment of the junior journalist is based upon the council's own General Proficiency Test. Successful candidates are awarded a Certificate of Training which records all awards and examination successes obtained during the training period.

The General Proficiency Test includes the following methods of assessment: Report from the candidate's editor (under such headings as conduct, attitude to the job, originality, enterprise, vocational ability, command of English, etc.); inspection of samples of the candidate's work; written examination (a three-hour paper), including questions on law, current affairs, newspaper production and journalism; exercise in interviewing a specified person for a specified purpose, with two editors or experienced newspapermen present as assessors; assessment of story written as a result of this interview; exercises in spotting potential news stories and in describing how they might be followed up. These assessments are made in 18 or 20 regional centres, where candidates attend in person for one whole day. The whole of the test is assessed by experienced editors and senior journalists.

A test of this kind obviously presents its organizers with a number of interesting problems (e.g., how to assess interviewing ability; and how to ensure uniformity among the 18 or 20 different centres, etc.) which go beyond the scope of the present document.

Advanced award — the National Diploma in Journalism. Journalists who have received a Certificate of Training — and in certain circumstances, seniors who were in employment before the scheme started — are eligible to enrol for this diploma. This involves a minimum of 18 months' personal study and research, at the end of which the candidate is assessed as follows: Inspection of samples of published work; written examination (four three-hour papers) including journalism, history of journalism, organization of the newspaper industry; thesis on a subject of the candidate's choice (typical theses so far submitted run to about 10,000 words on such topics as, 'The Development of Newspapers in North-East Scotland'; 'Production Problems of Weekly Newspapers'; 'The Mission of the Press in Home and Foreign Fields'). Assessment is carried out by a central panel of editors and senior journalists with advice from experts outside the industry if the subject of the thesis requires it.

The training of press photographers. The National Council's training scheme for journalists covers the training of press photographers at all stages.

Vocational training is, of course, in press photography instead of in general reporting. In general education juniors are required to take the theoretical examinations in photography of the Institute of British Photographers or of the City and Guilds of London Institute — both national examining bodies whose courses are available at many of the Colleges of Further Education.

For photographers, the General Proficiency Test and the National Diploma, whilst following the same pattern, are specifically concerned with press photography.

Statistics. The training scheme is a voluntary one. No compulsion from inside or outside the industry is brought to bear upon employers or their juniors to take part.

In the first four years of its history, however, the scheme has won such support that the junior who is not enrolled already belongs to a decreasing minority. Although the scheme will no doubt remain voluntary in theory, it has already become compulsory in fact for any junior who wishes to take the essential precautions for success in his career.

Of the total intake of approximately 300 new newspaper journalists in 1956, nearly 250 enrolled with the council. Since 1952, the council has awarded 474 Certificates of Training and 6 diplomas. A further 650 journalists are working for the council's awards.

The cost of training a junior is usually borne largely by the employer and only partly by the junior; some employers pay everything. Almost all the training is done in the employer's time.

It must be emphasized that the council can give no help to people either inside or outside the United Kingdom seeking to become journalists. It is only concerned with the training of those who have for themselves obtained employment in the United Kingdom as journalists.

SPECIALIZED TRAINING FOR DIFFERENT INFORMATION MEDIA

Apart from the training for newspaper journalists, including press photographers, and the very limited admission of senior magazine, technical and freelance journalists to the National Diploma, there are no recognized national training schemes in the United Kingdom for journalism of other kinds. Some organizations, however, might be able to undertake such training if called upon to do so. The National Council for the Training of Journalists is one such organization. Others are mentioned below.

Radio and Television

The Staff Training Department of the British Broadcasting Corporation runs courses for the whole range of staff. On the news side, staff attend a five-week 'general course' to enable them to understand the peculiarities, limitations and requirements of the media of radio and television. There are also occasional special courses for sub-editors and for feature-producers and 'news-casters'.

The Foreign News Service, which employs the largest number of journalists, takes on about five trainees each year, usually graduates with some specialized foreign experience, aged about 25 years. From time to time, experienced newspaper journalists are also appointed. In either case, the courses attended at the Staff Training Department are supplemented by about a year of 'training on the job'.

A number of Dominion and Colonial radio and television personnel attend these courses each year.

Similar training arrangements are effected by the components of the Independent Television Authority.

Film

The British Film Institute has an extensive lecture programme for general and for specialist audiences. It offers at least one residential course each year, on various aspects of film production and technique. Other national and regional bodies are interested in training courses in the production and use of films and other visual media in education, industry and commerce.

Public Relations and Information Services

This is an expanding and increasingly fruitful field of employment for trained journalists. The professional organizations concerned expect to develop appropriate training projects in the future.

Magazine, Periodical, Trade and Technical Journalism

Employers in these categories take on a number of untrained juniors. There is at present no systematic training; but as most of the employees are members of the Institute of Journalists or the National Union of Journalists and most employers are members of the Periodical Proprietors' Association, the organization of training on the lines of the National Council's scheme might not be difficult. Many journalists in this field have, of course, had some initial newspaper training.

Freelance Journalism

Senior freelance journalists have often had newspaper training

and experience. Where they employ juniors they are usually able to give personal attention to their vocational training, which, in effect amounts to apprenticeship even in the absence of formal articles of indenture. Discussions are now proceeding for the admission of freelance juniors into the National Council's training scheme.

EXCHANGE SCHEMES FOR COMMONWEALTH JOURNALISTS

Strange as it may seem, relatively little has been achieved in the matter of seconding journalists from one part of the Commonwealth or Empire to acquire experience of another.

The Colonial Office and the British Council in collaboration with the Newspaper Society do their best to arrange for Colonial journalists to spend some time with newspapers in the United Kingdom, but only a few such attachments are effected in a year. As previously mentioned, the Regent Street Polytechnic admits eight Colonial students each year, most of whom have already had some journalistic experience.

The Commonwealth Press Union arranged about 20 exchanges between 1918 and 1939 with the co-operation of its member newspaper proprietors in the various countries of the Commonwealth. At its conferences in 1950 and 1955, motions were adopted which urged the resumption and extension of this scheme. At the 1955 Conference, it was announced that New Zealand planned to offer one award each year for a selected British journalist to spend two months in New Zealand.

The 'Empire Scheme' run by Kemsley Newspapers since 1946, whereby four journalists annually from the Commonwealth were enabled to spend a year in the United Kingdom, ended in 1956.

Australia and New Zealand

by E. L. SOMMERLAD,
Secretary,
Australian Provincial Press Association,
Sydney, Australia

ON-THE-JOB TRAINING

In Australia the emphasis in training for journalism is on practical experience rather than theoretical study. Journalists in training undergo a four-year 'cadetship', during which they learn the techniques of newspaper reporting by receiving practical instruction from senior journalists, and by learning from the criticism and commendation of their own reports.

The Industrial Awards which lay down conditions relating to the employment of journalists on Australian newspapers stipulate that cadets shall be instructed progressively throughout their cadetship in practical journalism, and a responsible person shall supervise such training. They must be familiarized with the activities of the various departments, so as to acquire a full knowledge of the handling of news from its collection to its publication. They are expected to learn shorthand and typewriting, and are required to attend a series of lectures (by senior journalists and possibly other authorities) on the theory and practice of journalism.

Employers are obliged to allow cadets to attend classes or lectures during up to four working hours a week, and they are urged to give cadets the opportunity to 'acquire wide practical experience in reporting work'.

There are few facilities other than 'on-the-job training' in the case of country newspapers, and the Industrial Awards oblige such papers to pay particular attention to the training of their cadet reporters.

Most cadets on country newspapers are obliged to learn shorthand and typing, and although they receive little or no academic training, they progress quickly through undertaking a large variety of reporting and sub-editing work, and are given responsible assignments quite early in their cadetship.

In Sydney the Technical College conducts a course in Publication Typography, which is devoted to the mechanical side of newspaper production. It is open to cadets and practising journalists, and consists of one 2-hour lecture each week for 36 weeks. Average enrolment has been about 20 for each course.

UNIVERSITY COURSES

Only two Australian universities have special courses in journalism, and in other cases where university training is required the cadets have to attend evening lectures in the Faculties of Arts or Economics.

The University of Melbourne conducts a diploma course in journalism, which is intended to give a broad general knowledge background to students who are learning practical journalism in their day-to-day employment. The average enrolment during the last five years has been about 20 students. This is a part-time evening course, and consists of the following subjects: rhetoric or modern English; economics; political science; journalism, law affecting journalism; history or international relations; jurisprudence and constitutional law or a further course in history or English.

The University of Queensland also has a diploma course in journalism, which may be taken as a course of evening lectures, or by correspondence. The course is open to students who have matriculated or who are newspaper cadets. Passing grades are required in the following subjects: English, history (two courses), Australian history, political science, economics, legal history, journalism (two courses). The average enrolment during the last five years has been: evening lectures 20 students, correspondence course 16 students.

JOURNALISM TRAINING IN NEW ZEALAND

New Zealand newspapers rely almost exclusively on practical training. Boys appointed to cadetship have frequently already served a term in some other department of the newspaper, where they obtain a knowledge of office style. As in Australia, cadets then accompany senior reporters on assignments to observe trained men in action, and their copy is carefully scrutinized and explanations made as to reasons for changes in the copy. Some newspapers also arrange lectures to cadets by senior editorial staff.

Two New Zealand universities conducted classes in a Diploma of Journalism, but these were not well patronized and one of the universities has recently dropped the course.

Unesco Publications on the Mass Media [1]

GENERAL

Press, film, radio: reports on the facilities of mass communication

Vol. I, 1947, 189 p. Out of print
Vol. II, 1948, 307 p. Out of print
Supp. I, 1948, 39 p. Out of print
Vol. III, 1949, 295 p. Available on request from Unesco
Supp. II, 1950, 95 p. Out of print
Vol. IV, 1951, 605 p. Available on request from Unesco
Vol. V, 1952, 583 p. Out of print

Legislation for press, film and radio, by Fernand Terrou and Lucien Solal, 1951, 420 p. Available on request from Unesco.

Agreement on the importation of educational, scientific and cultural materials: a guide to its operation, 1952, 21 p. Available on request from Unesco.

The child audience, by Philippe Bauchard, 1953, 198 p. Price: $2.00; 11/6 (stg.); 550 fr.

Universal copyright convention, 1953, 24 p. Price $0.50; 2/6 (stg.); 125 fr.

Agreement for facilitating the international circulation of visual and auditory materials of an educational, scientific and cultural character: a guide to its operation, 1954, 26 p. Available on request from Unesco.

Records of the Intergovernmental Copyright Conference, Geneva, 18 August-6 September 1952, 1955, 416 p. Out of print.

Trade barriers to knowledge, 1955, 364 p. Price: $5.00; 25/- (stg.); 1,250 fr.

World communication, 1956, 262 p. Price: $8.00; 42/- (stg.); 2,000 fr.

Current mass communication research - I (Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 21), 1956, 60 p. Price: $1.00; 5/- (stg.); 250 fr.

1. Publications are listed in chronological order.

Adult education and audio-visual techniques (Tentative title) (Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 25), in preparation.

Copyright Bulletin (bi-annual). Annual subscription: $2.50; 12/6 (stg.); 600 fr.; each number: $1.25; 7/- (stg.), 350 fr.

FILM

The use of mobile cinema and radio vans in fundamental education, by Film Centre, London, 1949, 192 p. Out of print.

Films on art

1949, 1949, 72 p. Out of print.

1950, 1951, 71 p. Out of print.

Panorama 1953, by Francis Bolen, 1953, 79 p. Available on request from Unesco.

The film industry in six European countries, by Film Centre, London, 1950, 156 p. Price: $0.65; 4/- (stg.); 200 fr.

The entertainment film for juvenile audiences, by Henri Storck, 1950, 240 p. Price: $1.25; 7/6 (stg.); 375 fr.

Child welfare films, 1950, 213 p. Out of print.

Professional training of film technicians, by Jean Lods, 1951, 155 p. Available on request from Unesco.

Newsreels across the world, by Peter Baechlin and Maurice Muller-Strauss, 1952, 100 p. Available on request from Unesco.

Visual aids in fundamental education: some personal experiences, 1952, 160 p. Out of print.

Bibliography on filmology as related to the social sciences, by Jan C. Bouman (Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 9), 1954, 42 p. Out of print.

Catalogues of short films and filmstrips: selected list (Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 14), 1955, 25 p. Price: $0.40; 2/- (stg.); 100 fr.

Catalogue of French ethnographical films (Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 15), 1955, 71 p. Price: $0.40; 2/- (stg.); 100 fr.

International rules for the cataloguing of educational, scientific and cultural films and filmstrips (Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 17), 1956, 53 p. Price: $0.40; 2/- (stg.); 100 fr.

A manual for evaluators of films and filmstrips, by Mary L. Allison, Emily S. Jones, Edward T. Schofield (Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 18), 1956, 23 p. Out of print.

Films for children and adolescents: selections made in 22 countries (Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 19), 1956, 118 p. Out of print.

Catalogue of 50 popular science films, selected and appraised by the International Scientific Film Association (Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 20), 1956, 34 p. Out of print.

PRESS

Professional training of journalists, by Robert W. Desmond, 1949, 95 p. Out of print.

The problem of newsprint and other printing paper, by the Intelligence Unit, of *The Economist,* London, 1949, 111 p. Out of print.

Transmitting world news, by Francis Williams, 1953, 95 p. Out of print.

News agencies, their structure and operation, 1953, 205 p. Price: $3.50; 21/- (stg.); 1,000 fr.

One week's news, by Jacques Kayser, 1953, 102 p. Out of print.

Paper for printing today and tomorrow, by the Intelligence Unit of *The Economist,* London, 1953, 130 p. Price: $1.25; 7/- (stg.); 350 fr.

The daily press: a survey of the world situation in 1952 (Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 7), 1953, 45 p. Available on request from Unesco.

Education for journalists, 1953 (Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 8), 1954, 43 p. Price: $0.40; 2/- (stg.); 100 fr.

Newsprint trends 1928-1951 (Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 10), 1954, 63 p. Available on request from Unesco.

Paper for printing (other than newsprint) and writing, 1929-1951 trends (Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 11), 1954, 42 p. Price: $0.40; 2/- (stg.); 100 fr.

Paper for printing and writing: tentative forecast of demand in 1955, 1960 and 1965, by the Intelligence Unit of *The Economist,* London (Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 12), 1954, 105 p. Price: $0.40; 2/- (stg.); 100 fr.

Tentative international bibliography of works dealing with press problems (1900-1952) (Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 13), 1954, 96 p. Price: $0.50; 3/- (stg.); 150 fr.

Books for all, by R. E. Barker, 1956, 102 p. Price: $3.00; 15/- (stg.); 750 fr.

The problems of transmitting press messages, 1956, 95 p. Out of print.

Periodicals for new literates: editorial methods (Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 22), 1957, 35 p. Price: $0.75; 3/6 (stg.); 150 fr.

Periodicals for new literates: seven case histories (Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 24), 1957, 56 p. Price: $1.00; 5/- (stg.); 300 fr.

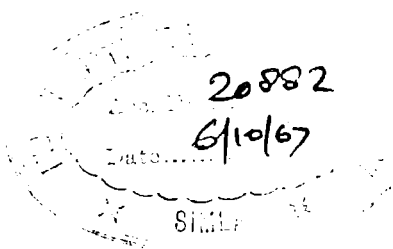
RADIO

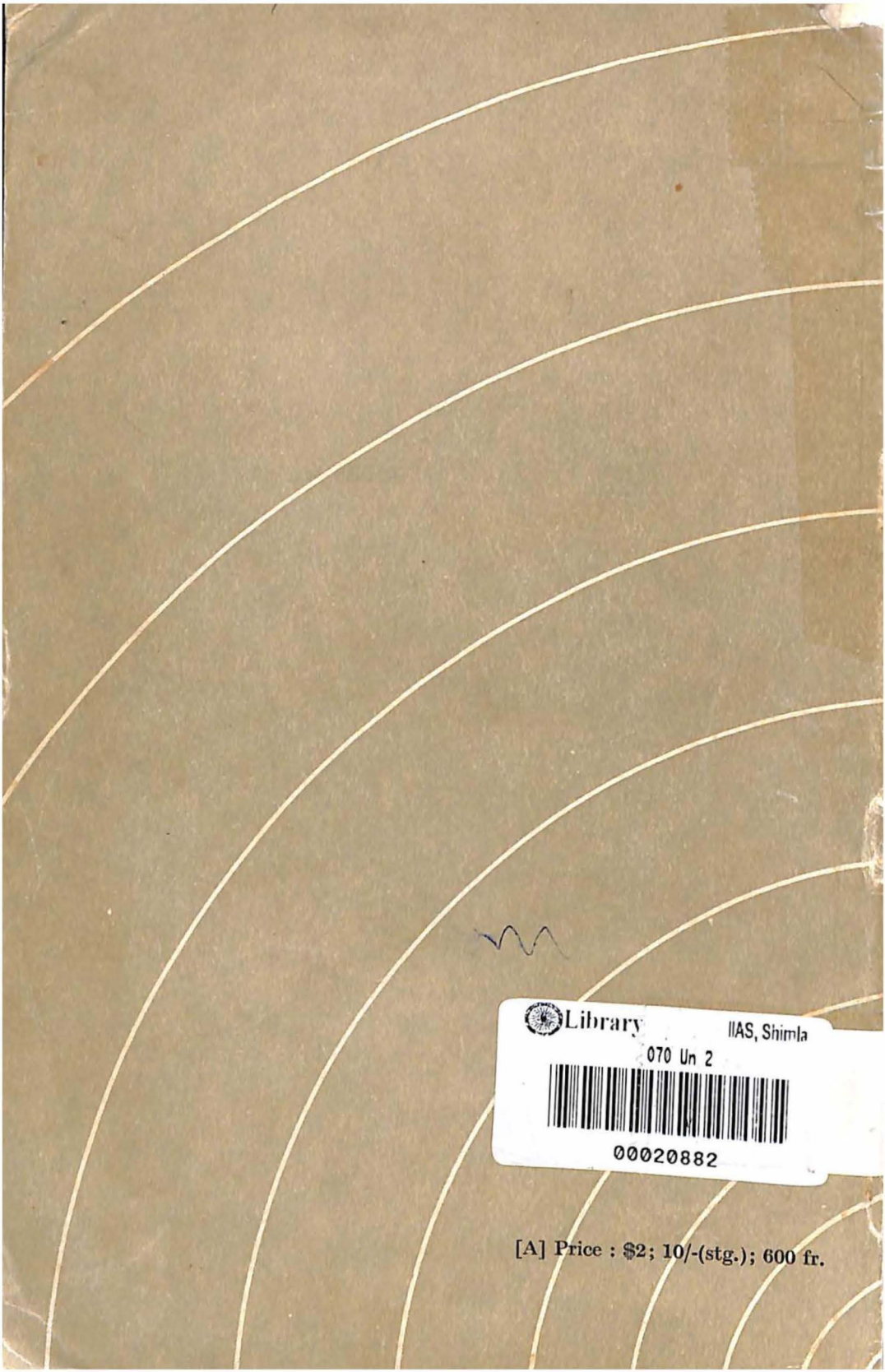
Broadcasting to schools: reports on the organization of school broadcasting services in various countries, 1949, 215 p. Out of print.

Training for radio, by Maurice Gorham, 1949, 105 p. Out of print.
Low-cost radio reception, by Claude Mercier, 1950, 118 p. Available on request from Unesco.
Education by radio, school broadcasting, by Roger Clausse, 1953, 72 p. Price: $0.40; 2/- (stg.); 100 fr.
Radio in fundamental education in undeveloped areas, by J. Grenfell Williams, 1953, 152 p. Price: $0.65; 4/- (stg.); 200 fr.
Canada's Farm Radio Forum, by John Nicol, Albert A. Shea, G. J. P. Simmins, R. Alex Sim (editor), 1954, 235 p. Price: $2.50; 14/6 (stg.); 700 fr.
Cultural radio broadcasts: some experiences (Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 23), 1956, 59 p. Price: $0.40; 2/- (stg.); 100 fr.

TELEVISION

Television and education in the United States, by Charles A. Siepmann, 1953, 131 p. Price: $1.50; 10/6 (stg.); 400 fr.
Television, a world survey: reports on the facilities of mass communication, 1953, 184 p. Price: $1.75; 9/6 (stg.); 450 fr.
Television, a world survey. Supplement 1955: reports on the facilities of mass communication, 1955, 52 p. Price: $0.50; 3/- (stg.); 150 fr.
Television and rural adult education, by Joffre Dumazedier, assisted by A. Kedros and B. Sylwan, 1955, 276 p. Price: $3.50; 21/- (stg.); 1,000 fr.
Television and tele-clubs in rural communities: an experiment in France, by Roger Louis and Joseph Rovan, 1955, 23 p. Price: $0.40; 2/- (stg.); 100 fr.
The kinescope and adult education (Tentative title) (Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 26). In preparation.





[A] Price : $2; 10/-(stg.); 600 fr.