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ABSTRACT

This collection of abstracts is part of a continuing series providing information on recent doctoral dissertations. The 13 titles deal with the following topics: publisher and journalist attitudes toward collective bargaining; editorial support for freedom of speech and press; the need for a scholarly index to collections of black newspapers published from 1880 to 1915; the daily newspaper industry in the United States; the social organization of media news production; innovations in newspaper technology; magazine journalism education in Britain, Canada, and the United States; a comparative analysis of newspaper and television coverage of the 1976 Democratic National Convention; a Q-study of the value structures and professionalism of reporters, editors, and photographers; the new printing technology and journalism education; how advanced reporting courses are taught and what they contain; gag orders and the First Amendment; and the influence of network television news on public opinion. (FL)

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**PUBLISHER AND JOURNALIST ATTITUDES TOWARD THE
CONCEPTS AND COLLECTIVE BARGAINING PROVISIONS
OF NEWSROOM DEMOCRACY** Order No. 7815091

BARWIS, Gail Lund, Ph.D. Michigan State University, 1978,
285pp.

With the 1970s has come a movement among reporters to secure greater rights in the production of news and protection of their work product. One avenue for effecting these rights--or newsroom democracy as it has come to be known--is the collective bargaining agreement between the publisher and The Newspaper Guild (TNG), the union which represents approximately half the reporters in this country.

The bargaining proposals formulated by TNG to secure newsroom democracy for editorial employees were the focus of the study. Since the adoption of these rights issues as part of its bargaining program in 1970, the Guild has achieved its demands to varying degrees but has made no assessment of its successes and failures. The study was designed to measure publisher and editorial employee attitudes toward the general concepts embodied in newsroom democracy and toward contractual agreements on newsroom democracy. Basically, three major issues are involved: (1) Voice, or greater participation in policy making; (2) Integrity, or protection of the work product and the employee's professional integrity; and (3) Privilege, or protection against forced disclosure of news sources.

Newsroom democracy challenges the traditional publisher-reporter relationship. It suggests that there should be a contractual means by which the employee can protect and improve the nature of his individual product and thereby affect the nature of the employer's overall product. But in allowing the employee greater control over his work, newsroom democracy limits the rights of management.

The study attempted to answer the following questions:

(1) To what degree do publishers and editorial employees find each of the newsroom democracy issues acceptable as general principles and as contract provisions?

(2) How do the attitudes of publishers and editorial employees differ on contractual newsroom democracy?

(3) Do certain characteristics exist among publishers and editorial employees which would suggest more favorable attitudes toward contractual newsroom democracy?

The data were collected by means of a survey questionnaire mailed to all publishers currently holding contracts with The Newspaper Guild and to a random sample of Guild members.

The hypotheses were tested by one-way analysis of variance, difference of means T-tests and Pearson correlations.

The data support the following conclusions:

(1) Editorial employees are more favorable toward the general principles of newsroom democracy than are publishers.

(2) Both editorial employees and publishers agree with the general principle of not requiring journalists to distort facts or knowingly create false impressions.

(3) Editorial employees are more favorable toward incorporating newsroom democracy provisions in contracts than are publishers.

(4) Editorial employees view corresponding newsroom democracy principles and contract provisions synonymously while publishers do not.

(5) Reporters' attitudes toward The Newspaper Guild strongly influence their attitudes toward contractual newsroom democracy: those who are strongly supportive of the Guild are highly in favor of newsroom democracy.

**NEWSPAPER EDITORIAL SUPPORT FOR FREEDOM OF
SPEECH AND PRESS, 1919-1969** Order No. 7817095

BOWLES, Dorothy Ann, Ph.D. The University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1978, 183pp. Supervisor: Professor Harold L. Nelson

This research involved a systematic study of newspaper editorial treatment of the freedom of speech and press clauses of the First Amendment. Questions investigated were as fol-

lows: (1) To what extent have newspapers editorially supported the fundamental freedoms of speech and press? (2) Has the pattern of support changed over time? (3) Are newspapers more likely to give editorial support to freedom of speech and press claims when the threatened infringement touches directly on the press rather than on individuals or other groups in society? (4) Is there a relationship between patterns of editorial support for free expression and certain demographic and economic factors? (5) To what extent have editorial writers educated their readers about values underlying the theory of the First Amendment?

The method employed was a content analysis of editorials appearing in a nationwide sample of English-language daily newspapers during the fifty-year period 1919 to 1969. A random sample of newspapers, stratified according to city size and geographical region, was used. Freedom of expression indicators were selected United States Supreme Court First Amendment decisions, divided equally between "media-related" and "nonmedia-related" cases. Editorials in sample newspapers were read for fourteen issues after each Supreme Court decision was announced, and where an editorial about the particular case was located, it was coded as "supportive," "neutral," or "non-supportive" of the claim to First Amendment protection. Writers' explanations for the positions taken in editorials were also recorded.

Evidence presented in this study shows that when newspapers took an editorial stand on claims to First Amendment protection, they were overwhelmingly supportive of the claim. However, the Supreme Court decisions were not highly salient issues for newspaper editorial writers, as in slightly more than half of the instances, no editorial was published. An analysis of editorials revealed that less than one third incorporated information concerning the underlying rationale for freedom of expression in society. Typical editorial treatment was to discuss the facts of the case, reprint passages from the Court's decision, and then paraphrase those same passages. When editors did write of the values of First Amendment theory, the press as "watchdog" over government was the most frequently cited theme.

The trend of newspaper editorial support and attentiveness to free expression issues from 1919 to 1969 appears related to three factors: (1) the degree of repression toward free expression in the nation, (2) the nature of First Amendment cases during each decade, and (3) the decision of the Supreme Court in each case. During the 1920s and 1950s newspaper support was at a lower level than during the other three decades in the study. Both the Court and sample newspapers were willing to extend First Amendment protection to religious minorities, labor unions, and students who protested peacefully, but such protections were denied to socialists during the 1920s and communists during the first half of the 1950s. Except for the 1948 Associated Press case, a majority of sample newspapers took editorial stands identical to decisions of the Supreme Court.

The idea that newspapers promote the First Amendment in self-serving fashion is not supported by data in this study. On the contrary, more editorials appeared about challenges to the free expression of individuals or groups outside the media than about cases involving media interests, and except for cases dealing with political dissidents during the '20s and '50s, newspapers were highly supportive of all who claimed First Amendment protections.

Multiple regression analysis reveals that city size was fully dominant among all economic and demographic variables. It alone accounted for nearly 44 percent of the variance in both newspaper support and salience and combined with the linear trend of geographical region to account for more than 70 percent of the variance in support levels among newspapers and nearly 72 percent of the salience levels. The effects of homogeneity of the population and the economic variables--newspaper penetration, competition, and rank among competitors--were no longer statistically significant when the effect of city size was controlled. Large-city newspapers were much more likely than small-city papers to editorialize about and to support freedom of expression claims.

EXTANT COLLECTIONS OF BLACK NEWSPAPERS 1880-1915 IN THE LIBRARIES OF THE UNITED STATES: THE NEED FOR A SCHOLARLY INDEX

Order No. 7816881

CAMPBELL, Georgetta Merrill, Ed.D. Fairleigh Dickinson University (Raritan-Hackensack Campus), 1978. 89pp.
Chairman: Professor Charles R. Kelley

This study identifies, and provides altogether in one place, most known bibliographic information on the location and availability of the extant Black newspapers of the period 1880 - 1915. Suggestions are made concerning the indexing of these titles, and an example index is included to several years of one highly regarded title of this era of Booker T. Washington, Monroe Trotter's Boston Guardian.

Included are the names and addresses of American institutions having collections of these microfilmed newspapers, together with data on sources of purchase and loan. The text, which is alphabetically arranged by state and city of origin, is prefaced by introductory materials, lists of symbols, and keys for use of the bibliographic material. An alphabetical list of titles makes its use possible by both scholars and other interested persons.

The index to the Boston Guardian is a prototype, as no previously published index has yet dealt with the problems confronting the indexer of the extant Black newspapers of this period. Social columns, photographs, cartoons, and other seeming ephemera requiring both historical knowledge and indexing skills, provide a challenge which the compiler handles with care and skill befitting her thirty year career as a librarian and student of Black history.

Used together with Dr. Armistead Scott Pride's Register and History of Negro Newspapers in the United States, 1827 - 1850, which gives the individual historic accounts of many of these newspapers, and The Black Press Handbook, an annual publication of the National Press Association, this study will provide all the currently known information on the extant Black newspapers of the period 1880 - 1915, fifteen of which survive until today.

THE DAILY NEWSPAPER INDUSTRY IN THE UNITED STATES (1977): AN ANALYSIS OF TRENDS IN PRODUCTION TECHNOLOGY, COMPETITION AND OWNERSHIP, ECONOMIC STRUCTURE, CIRCULATION, ADVERTISING, NEWSPRINT, AND LABOR

Order No. 7812196

COMPAINE, Benjamin Marshall, Ph.D. Temple University, 1978. 60pp.

This is a study of newspapers as business institutions. It is an attempt at understanding some of the paradoxes in the industry in the late 1970's, such as why, despite declining market penetration and circulation, newspaper firms are making more money than ever and are seeking to buy newspapers to build groups. This study is also an evaluation of the prospects for the daily newspaper industry over the next 23 years.

The techniques used include a review of the recent literature, with considerable emphasis on the trade press, trade association publications, and security analyst reports. Among primary sources of data are personal interviews with 43 individuals in all phases of the newspaper business, from chief executive officers of multi-media conglomerates to editorial personnel, and production equipment salesmen. Financial reports of publicly-owned companies are used extensively, as are speeches from numerous trade shows. A form of the Delphi forecasting procedure was used to assess the future of several possible developments in production technology. There are 63 tables, 10 illustrations, and over 290 bibliographic entries.

The study was designed to be of practical use as a planning document. Planning focuses on goals, expectations, and changes, allowing decision-makers to get more efficient use of their resources, promote coordination, and work toward reducing uncertainty. Thus, the constituency for the dissertation includes those in the management of newspapers and media chains, investors in newspapers and related businesses, and universities with departments of communications.

Among questions asked are: In this age of electronic media, is the ink-on-newsprint newspaper becoming obsolete? What will be the likely role of the daily newspaper in the year 2000? How, if at all, is the economic health of the newspaper industry affected by the new technology of production? What will be the form of the daily newspaper by the year 2000?

These give rise to ten hypotheses which serve as the basis for eventual organization of the data. Each is accepted or rejected based on the rational evaluation of the weight of the evidence. Two experts from the newspaper industry, both active in top management, served on the dissertation committee in addition to three professors. The industry representatives acted to help validate the findings, based on their own knowledge of the newspaper business.

Findings reject the notion that new technology has made newspapers into a truly electronic medium. It is believed that although newspaper production is changing, the final product as received by the subscriber will remain physically quite similar to the present form. Various forms of home facsimile were considered and evaluated as unable to be more than a supplementary service to the hard copy newspaper. New technology will provide publishers with opportunities for new roles and formats for information distribution. The daily newspaper has no replacement in the foreseeable future as a major vehicle for local advertisers to reach their markets.

To a greater extent than television, weekly newspapers and free "shoppers" pose a threat to the financial health of daily newspapers. The study recognized that direct newspaper competition within cities continues to diminish and more papers are owned by groups, but it can find no clear-cut evidence that either trend has had either a positive or negative effect on readers and advertisers.

The general conclusion is that the industry is economically strong and has a firm place in the media mix of advertisers and consumers. But the final product must constantly justify its existence in light of newer and developing media.

MANUFACTURING THE NEWS: THE SOCIAL ORGANIZATION OF MEDIA NEWS PRODUCTION, Order No. 7818735

FISHMAN, Mark Steven, Ph.D. University of California, Santa Barbara, 1977. 33pp.

This dissertation is concerned with the problem of how American mass media news is produced, with how journalists fashion a finished product (news) out of an amorphous world of happenings. News, like any other form of knowledge, results from the use of specific methods for knowing the world (or some part of it) under some interest. The research focuses on what these journalistic methods and interests are; what reporters do to detect occurrences, to interpret their significance, to investigate their factual character, and to formulate them as news stories.

Three kinds of participant observation data were collected. First, for six months I worked as a reporter on an "alternative" weekly newspaper covering city and county government. Second, as a researcher I then entered the Purissima Record, a medium-sized daily newspaper, to observe for three months the daily routines of reporters and editors. And third, the above data was augmented with five months of fieldnotes from another researcher who observed similar reporters and editors on the same news organization ten years prior to my study.

My findings indicate that journalists' interests are, at base, practical concerns shaped within the context of the complex organizations for whom they work. Journalists' routine methods for news detection, interpretation, investigation, and formulation inevitably lead reporters to accounts of the world which

are shaped by formally organized, legitimated institutions of society (police departments, forestry bureaus, law firms, mortuaries, city councils, etc.).

Bureaucracies, as part of their own routine works, transform everyday life into officially conceived categories of actors and events. Thus, such agencies invariably produce and provide for newworkers a "bureaucratic reality," i.e., an idealized account of what agency officials want to happen, need to happen, and continually try to make happen. Journalists and bureaucrats in this endeavor by publicizing bureaucratic reality as "hard fact." Were journalists to employ different methods of newsmaking, a different reality would emerge in news. But, in its present form, the American news production system obscures a whole range of phenomena in our society--from grass roots social movements to the underlife of institutions.

It is concluded that news is ideological because newwork includes within it not only procedures for knowing some part of the world, but also procedures for not knowing other parts of the world. These "other parts," were they routinely reported, would challenge the legitimacy of the prevailing political structure of society. News helps maintain the status quo, but not because journalists are biased, nor because the politically powerful regularly intervene to control the making of news. Such intervention is unnecessary because newwork is so organized that it already serves the interests of the status quo independently of the attitudes and intentions of reporters, editors, and news sources. Finally, this study traces the origins of news ideology to three historical dynamics in the American news production system: the bureaucratic logic, the normative logic, and the economic logic of news reporting.

NEWSPAPER INNOVATIONS: A STUDY OF PREDICTIONS OF ADOPTION BY NEWSPAPER EXECUTIVES

Order No. 7821768

MUSSER, Richard Sherman, Jr., Ph.D. Indiana University, 1978. 187pp.

A survey of 88 newspaper executives from 21 newspapers in the United States and Canada found their predictions of adoption of new technology varied significantly with the executives' stage of adoption; however, predictions of adoption of innovation failed to vary significantly when the executives were divided according to management specialty.

Executives were asked to predict the probability of widespread adoption of technological innovations for the years 1980, 1985, 1990 and 1995. Respondents were separated according to their management specialty (editorial, advertising, circulation, production and general financial) and their organization's stage of adoption for each of the 51 innovations.

Predictions of executives in each of the five management specialty areas were compared by a t-test. Forecasts by specialists for innovations in their specialty area did not vary significantly from the predictions of those executives who were not specialists in the innovations' area of impact. Editors' average predictions for newsroom innovations, for example, were not significantly different from the average predictions of widespread adoption by ad managers, circulation managers, production and financial executives.

When the predictions of those executives with an innovation operational were compared with the predictions of those executives who had an innovation in limited use or were considering the innovation or had no plans to use the innovation, significant differences in prediction were found. When stage of adoption was cross-tabulated with prediction probabilities and tested by Chi-Square, over 80 percent of the predictions varied significantly.

The results of the study indicated that forecasts by specialists defined by rank and status do not seem to vary significantly, while forecasts by specialists defined by their experience with a specific innovation do seem to exhibit significant variation.

For the few cases in which specialists defined by departmental status did vary, advertising executives seemed to demonstrate greater pessimism about the widespread use of technological innovations while financial executives appeared to demonstrate greater optimism about the rapid and wide adoption of newspaper innovations.

Those executives with an innovation operational were consistently more optimistic about the early and wide use of that innovation. Those with a particular innovation in limited use were less optimistic about its widespread adoption than those executives with the innovation operational, but more optimistic than those merely considering the innovation. Those with no plans to implement a particular innovation were consistently the most pessimistic about its adoption.

The entire group of executives appeared to predict the emergence of a new responsibility area centering around computer data processing. This new area of responsibility, according to the respondents, would cut across traditional lines of authority and be separate from existing production departments.

MAGAZINE JOURNALISM EDUCATION IN BRITAIN, CANADA, AND THE UNITED STATES Order No. 7809717

PAINE, Frederick Karl, Ph.D. University of Minnesota, 1977. 338pp.

It is generally accepted that professional standards of excellence are by-products of good journalism training. Journalism schools not only prepare future journalists but act as media critics, provide research data, and reinforce the importance of high professional standards. Re-evaluating the goals and curricula of journalism schools is a necessary step in maintaining educational programs that meet changing professional needs.

Traditionally journalism schools have offered newspaper journalism curricula. A few have always offered separate magazine coursework. The requirements of magazine journalism differ sufficiently from those of newspapering to suggest that wherever possible journalism schools should offer some coursework specifically dealing with magazines. This dissertation underlines the importance of separate magazine education and proposes a series of curricular elements useful in Britain, the United States and Canada.

Interviews and questionnaires were used to study journalism education and training in the three countries. Particular attention was paid to existing magazine journalism programs. In addition, a questionnaire survey of magazine editors in all three countries was undertaken to determine whether and in what ways editors felt magazine journalism education was worthwhile and how they felt it might be improved.

Chapters 2, 3 and 4 deal with existing journalism programs in Britain, the United States and Canada respectively. Comparisons among the three countries are made throughout.

British journalism training is controlled by the National Council for the Training of Journalists (NCTJ), a body composed of management and union representatives. Newspaper training is mandatory for all newly-hired journalists, and consists of two eight-week courses during the first three years of employment held at five technical colleges and one polytechnic. The course syllabi are designed by the NCTJ. There are also one-year courses available to a limited number of persons before employment, and one university post-graduate journalism course. Similar, but not mandatory, courses in magazine journalism are offered at the London College of Printing. British journalism training is largely concerned with practical skills, and is supplemented by on-the-job training.

Journalism education in the United States is not under industry's control and is optional, university-based, pre-employment, longer, less concerned with practical journalistic skills. There is more magazine journalism study available through single courses and multi-course sequences.

Canada offers three university-based journalism programs; however, most journalism training occurs in some twenty community colleges. While university programs resemble those of United States universities, community college courses are

highly practical, often unconcerned with liberal arts study, two to three years long and generally similar to the British courses. There are single magazine courses offered, but only one community college magazine sequence.

Editors acknowledged some value in classroom journalism training, and most believed special magazine study was beneficial. They also felt magazineists needed writing talent, broad interests and (except for British editors) broad education in the social sciences and humanities. In general, editors from all three countries agreed with each other on important curricular elements. These included developing article ideas, interviewing, researching, scheduling magazine issues, page layout, writing.

A magazine curriculum often should include courses in feature writing (one or two terms), editing, production, layout and design. Also important is a survey course covering social functions, economics, structure and diversity of the magazine industry, as well as an overview of the production, circulation and distribution processes. Optional is publishing management. Recommended are internships, laboratory magazines and other practical experience. Prerequisites are basic journalistic newswriting and background courses and typing. Allied coursework in photography, graphics and subject specialty areas is recommended.

A Q-STUDY OF THE VALUE STRUCTURES AND PROFESSIONALISM OF 35 REPORTERS, EDITORS, AND PHOTOGRAPHERS FROM FIVE DAILY NEWSPAPERS IN NEW YORK, CONNECTICUT, AND MASSACHUSETTS

Order No. 7819240

SCHWARTZ, Stuart Howard, Ph.D. Temple University, 1978. 350pp.

The major questions addressed in this study are: Can typical value structures be generated for daily newspaper newsroom personnel? And, if so, can these value structures be related interpretatively to professionalism?

Journalism researchers define the professional journalist as one who hopefully responds to the everyday professionalism. This professionalism orientation usually consists of a list of attributes against which individuals and groups of journalists are compared by researchers.

But, it is argued, this model is perhaps terminal in that little else can be done with it beyond description. By extending the study of professionalism to the values of daily newspaper gatekeepers, a broader base is provided. Professionalism can be connected more intimately with the motivations and behaviors of reporters, editors, and photographers.

In this study, a structured sample was drawn of 35 reporters, editors, and photographers from five newspapers in three northeastern states. Respondents were administered Q-sorts which consisted of the ranking of 50 personal values from least to most important. Each respondent was then asked to fill out a written schedule which contained a professionalism scale and a variety of questions asking for demographic information. The data were Q-factor analyzed, after which the value structures and mean professionalism scores of the groups were compared.

Five factor types emerged from the analysis: Factor I, the Free Spirit; Factor II, the Grim Upholder of the Social Order; Factor III, the Disciplined Independent; Factor IV, the Benevolent Responsible Hedonist, and Factor V, the Benevolent Moralist. Second-order analysis of the factors revealed that the first, third and fourth clustered together, and the second and fifth grouped together. The former were labeled high professionalism factors on the basis of their mean professionalism scores, and the latter were labeled low professionalism groupings.

The many differences between the value structures and person groupings suggest that the notion of journalism professionalism is far from monolithic. Professionalism seems not to be confined to the young; one high professionalism factor--the third--has the greatest mean age of the five groupings. However, another factor, the first, has the lowest mean age. In addition, Factor III pulled together persons with predominantly high responsibility positions, while the first included many beginning reporters, editors, and photographers.

The low and high professionalism groupings appear to divide along the lines of inner-direction and other-direction. The two low professionalism factors appear to emphasize concern for others. The second factor has a value structure dominated by the theme of an orderly society and surroundings; the fifth emphasizes altruism and the guidance of others. The high professionalism factors appear to be concerned chiefly with themselves. The fourth factor emphasizes personal pleasure and happiness, the first inner harmony, and the third ambition.

A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF NEWSPAPER AND TELEVISION COVERAGE OF THE 1976 DEMOCRATIC NATIONAL CONVENTION

Order No. 7817705

SCHNEIDER, William Joseph, Ph.D. The University of Texas at Austin, 1978. 148pp. Supervisor: Robert C. Jeffrey

Political conventions are one of the most visible components of American politics. They occur only periodically and receive extensive coverage in the mass media. Newspapers and television provide the majority of the information received by members of the public about the convention, but the style and substance of that information will vary with the individual source. Coverage of the 1976 Democratic National Convention is used to isolate similarities and differences between two national newspapers and two television networks.

The initial chapter argues that news is a legitimate subject for the rhetorical critic. News is shown to be a form of rhetoric using both an Aristotelian definition and more contemporary definitions. News coverage embodies the concept of rhetorical choice and displays numerous other rhetorical features. News coverage can, thus, be analyzed using a critical methodology based on the concept of inherent themes.

A random sample was selected from the total convention coverage provided by the New York Times and Wall Street Journal, as well as NBC and CBS television networks. When these content samples were analyzed quantitatively, the television networks were found to contain significantly more conflict than did the two newspapers, but both media relied heavily on conflictual statements.

All four news sources based their coverage on two prevailing themes: party unity and the search for a Vice-Presidential candidate. Once the themes were established, the newspapers and television networks added substance to them by developing a number of similar variations around the basic theme. The Times and the Journal provided very similar coverage, while NBC and CBS reflected a difference in editorial judgment about their approach to convention coverage. CBS was more supportive of Carter, while NBC was more adversarial in its approach. An analysis of differences between the media fails to support some of the traditional assumptions about media differences.

The final chapter summarizes inter- and intra-media differences in the convention coverage and evaluates the coverage provided by all four sources. Content selection in both media was based on personal characteristics to the exclusion of issue information.

THE NEW PRINTING TECHNOLOGY AND JOURNALISM EDUCATION: TOWARD A PARADIGM Order No. 7810180

STICKLIN, Michael Lewis, Ph.D. The University of Iowa, 1977. 199pp. Supervisor: Professor Albert D. Tallbot

A review of journalism education literature supports a notion that journalism education has not yet decided what to do with the new printing technology. No paradigm for its scholarly study nor its application in education has been established.

"New printing technology," for the purposes of this dissertation, is taken to refer to video display terminals, optical character readers, electronic and photo typesetters and any related computer systems programmed to support these devices.

The present dissertation attempts to argue that 1) a paradigm is both needed and called for; 2) the complexities of the man-machine nexus warrant the further attention to journalism educators; and 3) if journalism education is considered a profession, as interpreted by Greenwood, journalism education has positive duties to perform in regard to the new technology.

Examples from other literatures are used to show the wealth of thought and the range of disagreement concerning the nature of the relationship of man and machine already available for journalism educators' use. Three approaches are offered: a social-science approach (represented by De Fleur and Hall-Bokach); a "good vs. bad" approach (represented by Florman and those he cites); and an ideological approach (represented by Schiller, Mowshowitz and Welzenbaum).

It is suggested here that at least the relationship of man and machine is directed by motive-men's value systems and their subjectivity. The dissertation research examines motive in a functional-interactional situation. The Medill Gannett Seminar for journalism educators on the new technology was chosen for the study. It was the first seminar for journalism educators to exclusively address the new technology, although the subject had been raised in previous meetings. The study is an application of Stephenson's concourse theory of communication and of Q-methodology. Seminar participants performed Q-sorts with statements taken from a typed transcript of the seminar discussions.

Three theoretical types emerged from a centroid factor solution of the correlation matrix.

Type A is called unsophisticated trust because of its eagerness to embrace the new technology even though it has no experiential base and meager theoretical foundation for its claims.

Type B is called powerless gloom because of its almost complete belief that the new technology in the hands of non-professionals portends the end of the traditional American daily newspaper.

Type C is called a willing investor because of its inclination to accept for journalism education a broader responsibility both in teaching and in scholarly activity in regard to the new technology. Like an investor, C weighs both the risks and the opportunities the technology offers.

From an analysis of the three types, some implications for a paradigm can be drawn.

That at least two domains of concern exist is clear: the teaching of the new technology and its study. None of the three types indicates much expertise with the new technology at this time, and this is recognized by the types themselves as a handicap. The remedy seems to be at least two-fold: 1) the procuring of additional experience, perhaps with the help of the newspaper industry; 2) better theoretical underpinnings beginning with analyses of other fields' experience with new technologies. Such fields would include computer science, education, engineering, medicine and law.

Finally, as an arm of the journalism profession, journalism education would be remiss not to undertake these activities.

ADVANCED REPORTING COURSES—HOW THEY ARE TAUGHT IN ACEJ-ACCREDITED PROGRAMS AND WHAT THEY CONTAIN Order No. 7812827

WILSON, Norma Ruth Parker, Ph.D. University of Kansas, 1977. 146pp. Chairman: Professor Oscar M. Haugh

Purpose. A 1972 study of the basic news writing courses in accredited collegiate journalism programs provided much information about how news writing was taught but little about how news gathering was taught. The study, by John Hulteng of the University of Oregon, indicated that students in the basic course usually received their information for stories from handouts or some other stimulation, rarely leaving the classroom to gather information themselves.

The assumption remained that instruction and actual practice in gathering news were part of the advanced reporting course. To complement Hulteng's study of the basic reporting course and to find out about advanced reporting courses, what they contain, and how they are taught, this study was undertaken.

Procedure. The study was limited to advanced reporting courses at schools of journalism that had news-editorial sequences accredited by the American Council on Education for Journalism (ACEJ), according to the January, 1976, listing. Questionnaires were mailed to 184 instructors of advanced reporting courses, courses taken after the basic, or introductory, course by news-editorial students. Instructors were asked about the course itself, its place in the journalism program, the teacher, course content, lectures, labs, writing assignments outside class, practical experience, and course innovations.

131 Instructors, 71.19 per cent, returned the questionnaires, of which, 122, 66.30 per cent, were judged usable. Information was obtained from 50 of the 59 news-editorial sequences accredited by ACEJ in 1976.

Returned questionnaires were sorted into four categories according to course title, content, or both: (1) public affairs reporting; (2) advanced, or practical, reporting; (3) reporting of news gathering courses that offer general information on reporting and news gathering but limited practical experience; and (4) depth, or investigative, reporting.

Each category was described according to catalog and course descriptions, course content, and comments by instructors. Also, all courses were looked at in terms of the practical experience they contained and teaching methods used.

Results. Four situations were judged worthy of special mention. At Northern Illinois University, the reporting courses are tied to a news service that provides news and features to area media to help broaden their coverage. At the University of Arizona, students can report and edit for three publications and a state news bureau. At Columbia and Berkeley, the journalism program is for graduate students only. At several universities, laboratory laboids are being published as display cases for the stories and photos of students enrolled in certain courses and as live copy for students in editing courses.

Besides providing information about specific kinds of advanced reporting courses and certain special programs, the study provided information that led to five conclusions: 1. The advanced reporting course offers students more instruction in news gathering techniques than does the basic reporting course. 2. Except in the reporting or news gathering course, category 3, there is less instructor control in the advanced course than in the basic course. 3. Advanced reporting courses generally seem to emphasize practical experience. 110 Of the 122 instructors said they thought providing practical experience for the students in their courses was very important, and 92 said that more than 90 per cent of their students got some practical experience in the course. 4. Advanced reporting instructors are more likely to use community resources than basic reporting instructors. 5. Many instructors indicated that they were changing their definitions of news and were teaching new kinds of reporting methods to develop thorough, careful, thinking reporters who dig beneath the surface for news.

ZORN, Joseph, Ph.D. The University of Wisconsin-Madison,
1978. 418pp. Supervisor: Professor William A. Haston

ZUCKER, Harold Gene, Ph.D. University of California, Irvine,
1972. 107pp. Chairman: Professor McHugh Quillian

For decades, if not centuries, there have been problems with accommodating the rights of a free press and the rights to a fair trial. What is involved is the right of the press, under the First Amendment to the United States Constitution, to report freely information about the judicial system, including criminal trials, and the right of an accused person to a fair trial, under the Sixth Amendment. It has been argued that an accused person might not receive a fair trial if the press publishes information that would prejudice a person selected to serve on a jury.

Why have most news media impact studies failed to find significant media impact? This dissertation attempts to answer that question and to suggest some ways in which news media impact might better be seen. An analysis of previous research in the area of news media influence revealed that the methodology of most of these studies was, in part, based on use of both of a pair of dubious assumptions, which, if incorrect, would cause these studies to underestimate media impact.

The press, bar and others have worked to solve, of course, problems associated with publishing potentially prejudicial information. Over the years, there have been many suggestions, and some programs implemented. In the 1960s, it appeared that great progress had been made. But then the free press and fair trial issue took on a new complexity: gag orders.

The first assumption is that any media impact is largely confined to the heavy users. If this is not true, then any study based on a heavier user-lighter user contrast will underestimate media impact. A societal level impact principle was proposed which states that the media influence society as a whole, reaching the lighter users through a process of the diffusion of information and opinion to them from the heavier users.

Gag orders—also called restrictive orders—were issued by judges in an attempt to assure fair trials. The orders were used to (1) close court records and proceedings, (2) restrict court officials and defendants from talking to the press, and (3) impose restraints on what the press could publish. While there had been occasional gag orders over the years, the gag order surfaced as a major problem in the 1960s and 1970s. The press was concerned with the great number of orders issued and with infringement on what it considered its constitutional rights to gather and publish information.

The second assumption is that the media have the same degree of influence on opinion about all the different sorts of issues. In contrast to this idea, a theory of variable news media influence was proposed which states that media influence will vary from issue to issue. Two of the dimensions along which media influence will vary are the abstractness of an issue area and the length of time that area has been prominent in the news.

The gag order problem generally is traced to 1966 when the Supreme Court of the United States, in deciding Steward v. Maxwell, suggested that judges should act to "prevent" prejudice at its inception. Many judges construed this as support for various gag orders, and the number of orders increased.

The proposed theory was tested with data on network television news coverage and public opinion concerning the issues of pollution, drug abuse, energy, unemployment and the cost of living in the period 1969-76. A case was taken to evidence media influence if opinion was seen to follow, rather than lead or vary concurrently with coverage. The results were as predicted. Evidence of media influence was seen in the pollution (1968-72), drug abuse (1968-72) and energy (1972-76) cases. Prior coverage could explain between 50 and 65% of the variance in opinion in these cases.

In the late 1960s and early 1970s, the press gave more and more attention to gag orders, and in 1975 a gag order issued in a Nebraska murder case generated nationwide attention and a push to defeat gag orders. This led to a united effort by the news media, and an eventual Supreme Court decision in Nebraska Press Association v. Stuart.

The longitudinal dynamics of the time-influence relationship were also examined. The societal level impact principle leads to the prediction that there will be a time lag between a newsworthy event and its maximal influence on public opinion, since the information in the media must take time to diffuse from the heavier users to the rest of society. The three cases cited above were reexamined using the Alvin distributed lag estimation technique. All three were found to evidence a lag period of 3-9 weeks between coverage and opinion.

In its decision, the Court ruled that any order that imposed prior restraints on the press would be difficult to support under the Constitution. However, the Court did not completely rule out prior restraint—or gag orders—in transmitting prejudicial information. Further, Court members gave support for closing some court proceedings and restricting extrajudicial statements by court officials and defendants.

The same technique was applied to network coverage of Carter and Wallace during the 1976 Presidential nomination campaign and national candidate preference polls. The results again support the model with a lag of six weeks. Prior coverage could explain between 60 and 97% of the variance in candidate preference.

Since the 1976 decision, there have been few prior restraint orders, and none upheld on final appeal. On the other hand, there have been numerous orders that provide for closing proceedings and documents and for silencing extrajudicial statements.

The networks' coverage of the individual state primaries was examined in light of the mirror, organizational and ideological models of news coverage. The technique used was multiple regression. Six variables were found to account for 89% of the variance in coverage. These are, in descending order of the variance each explained: the size of the state's convention delegation, whether or not Jackson won the primary, the number of new candidates in a primary, the total number of candidates in a primary, the closeness of the Democratic race, and the week of the primary. The following variables each explained less than one percent of the variance in coverage: the closeness of the Republican race, whether the voters voted for a candidate as a delegate, and the victories of the other candidates. These results indicate that none of the three models can be safely ruled out.

In the late 1970s, it appeared that the press had seen a virtual halt to prior restraint orders, but had to be prepared to deal with other types of gag orders. Supreme Court decisions regarding these orders likely will be necessary before long.

In the meantime, many members of the press and the bar have seen a need for cooperating to resolve gag order and free press and fair trial problems, and to avoid major confrontations. Many are aware that the press must act responsibly in handling potentially prejudicial information in order to avoid gag orders, and that the judiciary must realize both the need for an ample flow of information regarding the courts and the undesirability of gag orders.

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