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History of Journalism Education: An Analysis of 100 Years of Journalism Education

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HISTORY OF JOURNALISM EDUCATION:
AN ANALYSIS OF 100 YEARS OF JOURNALISM EDUCATION

A Thesis

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Master of Mass Communication

in

The Manship School of Mass Communication

by
Hilary Akers Dunn
B.S., University of North Carolina at Pembroke, 2012
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ABSTRACT

This quantitative content analysis uses course descriptions to find changes in journalism education at the University of Missouri, Louisiana State University, and the University of North Carolina over 100 years. This study found that there are two influencing factors that are inherent to the journalism profession: advances in technology and the maturity of the profession itself. These two influencing factors produced changes in technology used in curriculum, course focus (e.g. skill, theory, general knowledge, and history), and course topics (e.g. advertising, broadcasting, public relations, etc.) This study also found that leadership is the most influential factor of change in journalism education. In this study, leaders with positive leadership traits (e.g. a professional background coupled with experience in academia, steadfast attentiveness to administrative duties, attentiveness to accreditation standards, preparation and application of vision, and an ability to raise funds) greatly influenced curriculum changes within their program.

INTRODUCTION

Before 1908, journalism was a trade learned in a newsroom or on the streets of a city. A senior editor running on deadlines and caffeine gave instruction to aspiring journalists. Early in the century, however, formal education began. In 1908 the University of Missouri opened the first college of journalism in the United States. Other universities, including Indiana, New York, Washington, Georgia, Iowa, Minnesota, Kansas, Washington, Wisconsin, Nebraska, and Ohio, followed suit developing departments or schools of journalism by 1920.¹ Since that time the approaches to educating journalists, tools of journalism, and objectives of news media have all evolved. Also, since that time accreditation bodies, their accrediting procedures and standards have been in flux. Those in academia and in mass communication organizations have consistently debated the relevance of journalism education and the content that will most adequately produce journalism professionals. This study is designed to find how the teaching of journalism has changed. By gaining an understanding of how journalism education has evolved, this study will be helpful to understand what trends journalism education might see in the future. This study may also shed light as to what influences have altered the course journalism education.

¹ Betty Houchin Winfield, introduction to *Journalism, 1908: Birth of a Profession*, ed. Betty Houchin Winfield (Columbia, MO: University of Missouri Press, 2008), 9-11.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The Beginning of the J-School

While the first school of journalism was not founded until 1908, the idea of education for journalists was a cry heard as early as a few years following the Civil War. The movement for professionalization spurred many groups into action. Lawyers, businesspeople, social workers, and journalists sought to professionalize themselves.² These groups wanted a separation from the ordinary working class to be perceived as experts, and therefore a higher authority, in their field.³ For journalists to be thought of as professionals, they would need to be trained using a “set of accepted standards.”⁴ The idea of college-educated journalists soon drew a debate from some of the most influential men of the day. Robert E. Lee, President of Washington College, encouraged journalism education to restore the southern states and progress for regional newspapers.⁵ Washington College and Cornell University were two of the first institutions to implement classes to educate journalists. During these very first years of journalism education, however, educators, newspaper owners and editors were debating whether aspiring journalists even needed education for skills that would be used in a newsroom (copy reading, editing, headline writing, etc.), or if they would be better suited to have a general knowledge based upon a liberal arts education. Many editors, including Horace Greeley who began the *New York Tribune*, refused to hire college graduates.⁶ Journalism schools continued to grow, however. In 1908, the University of Missouri founded the first journalism school, which was autonomous of other programs within

² Jean Folkerts, “History of Journalism Education.” *Journalism & Communication Monographs* 16, no. 4 (2014): 227-299.

³ Ibid.

⁴ Jean Folkerts, John Maxwell Hamilton, and Nicholas Lemann, *Educating Journalists: A Plea for the University Tradition* (Columbia, MO: Columbia Journalism School, 2013).

⁵ Folkerts, “History of Journalism Education.”

⁶ Folkerts, *Educating Journalists*.

a university. Walter Williams, the first dean of the school, developed a Journalist's Creed, which included statements such as: "I believe in the profession of journalism," and "I believe that suppression of the news, for any consideration other than the welfare of society, is indefensible."⁷ From these beginnings, journalism education has flourished.

History of Accreditation of Journalism Schools

Accreditation of journalism programs developed later than other university programs. While concentrations such as law and medicine founded their own accreditation bodies in the late 1800s and early 1900s, the first journalism accreditation bodies didn't show up until the 1940s.⁸ These accreditation bodies were the product of early journalism education organizations established between 1912 and 1944, including: the American Association of Teachers in Journalism (AATJ), the American Association of Schools and Departments of Journalism (AASDJ), and the American Society of Journalism School Administrators (ASJSA). As journalism programs grew, educators voiced the need for an accrediting body. Early councils organized to accredit journalism programs included the AASDJ founded in 1945, which later created the American Council on Education for Journalism (ACEJ) as its body responsible for accreditation.⁹ The ACEJ's name was changed to the Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (ACEJMC) in 1980.¹⁰ The ACEJMC is still the accrediting body of journalism programs today. In its infancy years the council was made up of

⁷ Walter Williams, "The Journalist's Creed," University of Missouri, Accessed September 2, 2017, <<https://journalism.missouri.edu/tabbed-content/creed-2/>>.

⁸ Folkerts, "History of Journalism Education."

⁹ Ibid.

¹⁰ "History of ACEJMC," Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism and Mass Communication, Accessed September 2017, <www.acejmc.org/about/history>.

journalism educators and heads of newspaper organizations.¹¹ In later years the council expanded to include associations that represented public relations, business journalism, photojournalism, broadcasting, and magazines.¹²

Within two years of its foundation the council had accredited 35 institutions.¹³ The ACEJMC pressed forward in the following years accrediting while fighting against federal accrediting agencies for the ability to cultivate and implement their accreditation standards without interference.¹⁴ In 1984 the council used twelve standards to determine the eligibility of a school for accreditation.¹⁵ The twelve standards had the following general categories: “1. Governance/Administration, 2. Budget, 3. Curriculum, 4. Student Records, 5. Instruction/Evaluation, 6. Faculty: Full-Time; Part-Time, 7. Internships and Work Experience, 8. Equipment/Facilities, 9. Faculty Scholarship/Research Professional Activities, 10. Public Service, 11. Graduates/Alumni, 12. Minorities and Female Representation.”¹⁶ Currently the ACEJMC uses nine standards.¹⁷ In recent years the ACEJMC has streamlined its accreditation into nine categories: 1. Mission, Governance and Administration, 2. Curriculum and Instruction, 3. Diversity and Inclusiveness, 4. Full-Time and Part-Time Faculty, 5. Scholarship: Research, Creative and Professional Activity, 6. Student Services, 7. Resources, Facilities and Equipment,

¹¹ Folkerts, “History of Journalism Education.”; Churchill L. Roberts, “ACEJMC Accreditation,” *Association for Communication Administration Bulletin* no. 66 (1988): 17-19.

¹² Roberts, “ACEJMC Accreditation.”

¹³ Folkerts, “History of Journalism Education.”

¹⁴ Ibid.

¹⁵ Roberts, “ACEJMC Accreditation.”; Ed Mullins, “The Basics of Accreditation by ACEJMC: Overview,” *Association for Communication Administration Bulletin* no. 64 (1988): 54-57.

¹⁶ Mullins, “The Basics of Accreditation by ACEJMC: Overview.”

¹⁷ “History of ACEJMC,” Accrediting Council

8. Professional and Public Services, and 9. Assessment of Learning Outcomes.¹⁸ Although the ACEJMC standards have much influence on program administration and growth areas outside of the classroom, they promote the idea that their standards do not define curriculum. According to the ACEJMC website,

[ACEJMC] recognizes that each institution has its unique situation, cultural, social or religious context, mission and resources, and this uniqueness is an asset to be safeguarded. The Council judges programs against the objectives that units and institutions set for themselves and against the standards that the Council sets forth for preparing students for professional careers in journalism and mass communications in the United States and in other nations.¹⁹

The matter of accrediting graduate degrees was altogether different for the ACEJMC. Early in the discussion of graduate degrees being accredited the council decided that as doctoral degrees were research and not professional they would be excluded.²⁰ Master's degrees that were professionally oriented, however, were creditable. In 1966, following a report presented by Fred Siebert that researched graduate programs, the ACEJMC confirmed its decision to accredit the first graduate program.²¹

Theory vs. Skill vs. General Knowledge

A recent article, found in the Nieman Reports, examined what knowledge graduates of journalism departments/schools need to have in order to become successful in a media profession.²² The article highlighted a few debates that have consistently been found in discussion of higher education journalism programs. What is the objective of journalism

¹⁸ "Nine Accrediting Standards," Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism and Mass Communication, Accessed on February 6, 2018, <www.acejmc.org/policies-process/nine-standards/>.

¹⁹ Ibid.

²⁰ Folkerts, "History of Journalism Education."

²¹ Ibid.

²² Jon Marcus, "Rewriting J-School: How journalism schools are trying to connect classrooms to newsrooms," Nieman Reports: Nieman Foundation for Journalism at Harvard. (2014).

education? What do aspiring journalists need to know? Reports from a recent Poynter survey of educators and news editors found that editors are more inclined to say that journalism graduates need a broad understanding of liberal-arts, and fundamental skills, such as problem-solving and collaboration, instead of vocational skills, such as ability to use a certain type of technology.²³

The same report found that educators were more inclined to say that journalism graduates needed vocational skills, such as multi-platform writing skills, video editing, and computer skills.²⁴

Other sources say that a well-rounded journalism education with traditional and new technology skills, as well as critical thinking abilities, are necessary for a journalism graduate to be successful.²⁵ At the same time, many universities consider producing original research their main objective. Nicholas Lemann²⁶ argues that instructors who are deeply involved in intellectual production will be better able to help students achieve complete and meaningful understanding of material than those who are not.²⁷ In the midst of these debates there are the questions: Have journalism schools become irrelevant and unnecessary? Is it time to renovate the concept of a journalism degree? Whether these questions are asked by the whole community of educators or not, they penetrate academic and opinion literature concerning journalism. Eric Newton calls to question the very fundamental lessons of journalism education in his book “Searchlights and

²³ Ibid.

²⁴ Ibid.

²⁵ Emily Bennett, “How do journalism schools measure up as training ground for newsroom innovators?” World News Publishing Focus. (2014).

²⁶ Nicholas Lemann: Joseph Pulitzer II and Edith Pulitzer Moore Professor of Journalism, Professor at Graduate School of Journalism at Columbia, Staff Writer for *The New Yorker*; Formerly Dean of Graduate School of Journalism at Columbia (2003-2013).

²⁷ Nicholas Lemann, “The Soul of the Research University,” *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, (2014): B9.

Sunglasses.”²⁸ Newton questions the definition of the reporter, the audience and the story in the time we live in where anyone with an electronic device and a social media account can be a reporter, and audiences are virtually incomprehensible with availability to information, and news stories are not the fountain of knowledge they once were when information is first sighted on a Twitter feed.²⁹ Newton argues for knowledge-based journalism education environments, where journalism schools pull from their resources throughout the whole university to assist their students in specific beats of journalism.³⁰ For example, knowledge-based journalism courses are taught under the instruction of journalism educators as well as educators from other fields (e.g. business, economy, law, science) to better equip the student to create media knowledgeably on the specific subject.

The large number of views on what journalism graduates need to know is indicative of a larger issue, the absence of a common understanding of what journalism education should generally cover (i.e. theoretical knowledge of journalism, practical application of journalism occupations, and/or knowledge-based journalism that teaches intimately on subjects that the student is interested in working in). Some of the current disagreement has been driven by the emergence of new technologies, which have disrupted schools of journalism as much as journalism itself. As broadcast journalism became relevant in education in the 1970s, new arguments of theory-based vs. skill-based vs. general knowledge courses arose. With the introduction of technologies such as radio, television and internet, the term “mass communication” also revived arguments of how programs should be structured and what types of

²⁸ Eric Newton: Innovation Chief and Professor of Practice at Walter Cronkite School of Journalism and Mass Communication; Knight Foundation Consultant; Eric Newton, *Searchlights and Sunglasses: Field Notes from the Digital Age of Journalism*. (Knight Foundation, 2013).

²⁹ Newton, *Searchlights and Sunglasses*.

³⁰ Ibid.

courses should be included in a “mass communication” and “journalism” department/school. This study puts these concerns in a historical context.

Leadership In Journalism Education

Leaders in higher education are officially recognized through positions such as: deans, presidents, chancellors, committee chairs, etc. In these roles, individuals are often conduits of change within a department or school. These changes are often related to curriculum, organization and leadership within a department. Leaders in higher education can operate in different paradigms, even with the same goal. For example some leaders consider students as scholars while others consider them as consumers of education.³¹ In a study of overlapping leadership styles within an institution, one researcher suggested that uninterrupted growth within a department is a result of leadership styles that are cooperative with those subordinate to a leader’s influence.³² There is a wide selection of research on the effectiveness of different types of leadership in higher education and how it may be improved upon. There is not, however, much research on the influences of an individual’s personal background on his or her leadership strategies and/or effectiveness. This study endeavors to study the background of individuals in leadership roles to better understand how experience, professional and/or academic, may contribute to leadership decisions.

Technology in Journalism

Journalism, a profession that is relatively young in relation to others, has come a very long way in a very short period of time. From Johann Gutenberg’s first printing press to the news feed that appears on an Apple watch, technology in communication has been a wave growing

³¹ Victor Yu Sing Ong, “Complexities of multiple paradigms in higher education leadership today,” *Journal of Global Management* 4 no. 1 (2012): 91-100.

³² Ibid.

ever larger bringing what is now a tsunami of information to consumers with one touch.

Although Gutenberg's press was only used to print bibles, because of governments that were deeply suspicious that printing of information would lead to civil unrest,"³³ his technology was the forerunner to the first printing press. Among the first newspapers in the United States were *The Boston News-Letter*, *The Boston Gazette*, *The American Weekly Mercury*, and *The New England Current*, all established early in the 1700s.

The first primitive version of a camera, invented by Arab scholar Ibn Al-Haytham (945-1040), was created to study optics.³⁴ In the 17th century this technology advanced, as artists used projected images to draw or paint, and crowds used large projected images from "magic lanterns" for entertainment.³⁵ By 1839, the first printed picture to hold its display when exposed to light was created by French scientist Joseph Nicéphore Niépce and Louis Daguerre.³⁶ Technology advanced over the next 50 years, and George Eastman, a photographer and "industrialist," invented flexible film in 1889 that could be rolled.³⁷ This invention was improved upon by Kodak and other film companies in the next few decades. Modern, simple-to-use cameras became populate in the 1930s, while Canon made the interchangeable lens camera popular over the next few years.³⁸ In the 1990s several companies began selling digital cameras, which quickly made film cameras a thing of the past.

³³ Stephen Lamb, *News as it Happens: An Introduction to Journalism* (Oxford University Press, 2011), 8.

³⁴ Mary Bellis, "The History of Photography: Pinholes and Polaroids to Digital Images," Thought Co., Published November 6, 2017, <www.thoughtco.com/history-of-photography-and-the-camera-1992331>.

³⁵ Ibid.

³⁶ Ibid.

³⁷ Ibid.

³⁸ Ibid.

The Industrial Revolution included many discoveries in the 1800s leading to the first telegraph, and eventually underwater telegraph lines that linked the world's continents. "Access to the international telegraph network meant at least as much in its day as access to the Internet, web, mobile devices and global satellite communication mean today."³⁹ In 1876, Alexander Graham Bell patented the telephone, the early forerunner to cell phones and long-distance communication technology. Early advances in radio technology were made in the late 1800s, but it wasn't until the 1920s that the first radio networks like the National Broadcast Company (NBC) and the Columbia Broadcasting System (CBS) began. In 1927, the Radio Act created the Federal Radio Commission (FRC), which would be renamed the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) in 1934. This government agency was one of the first that would contribute to what we now know as "media law." In the 1940s NBC and CBS along with the American Broadcast Company (ABC) began regular television broadcasts.

Bell Labs⁴⁰ made headway in the 1930s and 1940s with the first computers, from the "Model K" Adder in 1939 to the Complex Number Calculator (CNC) in 1940.⁴¹ On April 1, 1976, Steve Jobs and Steve Wozniak founded Apple, which would become one of the leading companies in computer technology along with International Business Machines (IBM) founded in 1911, Hewlett-Packard (HP) founded in 1939, Xerox founded in 1906, Intel founded in 1968 and others. These companies produced many upgrades of technology throughout the 1900s and into the 21st century.⁴²

³⁹ Lamble, *News as it Happens*, 18.

⁴⁰ Created by Alexander Graham Bell, now known as NOKIA Bell Labs.

⁴¹ "Timeline of Computer History," Computer History Museum, Accessed February 5, 2018, <www.computerhistory.org/timeline/computers/>.

⁴² Ibid.

The “packet network concept” created by MIT researcher Lawrence G. Roberts, titled the Advanced Research Projects Agency Network (ARPANET), which was published in 1967, was the forerunner to the Internet. Early networks like ARPANET, British JANET, and U.S. NSFNET were intended to serve smaller groups of scholars.⁴³ The World Wide Web, created by MIT researcher Tim Berners-Lee, brought a larger community with more diversity into Internet technologies, which also lead to the commercialization of the Internet.⁴⁴

In 1997, the very first social media website, SixDegrees.com, was launched. Soon to follow were companies like Friendster, LinkedIn, MySpace, Twitter, and Instagram. While the earliest social media websites were used primarily for connecting to people with similar interests or old friends, soon social media included sharing news stories from linked media websites. Today the term “citizen journalism” refers to the use of technology (e.g. Internet, digital cameras, webcast, mobile phone technology) to report events or opinions by citizens who are not necessarily employed by media outlets.

American Journalism: The Maturing of a Profession

American Journalism, in its infancy, was a result of libertarian freedoms gained in England during the Protestant Reformation.⁴⁵ The practices of journalism brought to America by the colonists, although nothing similar to the free flow of information enjoyed today, were hard won. As mentioned previously, the first consistently published American newspapers appeared in the early 1700s. Benjamin Franklin, one of the United States’ Founding Fathers and earliest

⁴³ Barry M. Leiner, Vinton G. Cerf, David D. Clark, Robert E. Kahn, Leonard Kleinrock, Daniel C. Lynch, Jon Postel, Larry G. Roberts and Stephen Wolff, “Brief History of the Internet,” Internet Society, 1997, <www.internetsociety.org/internet/history-internet/brief-history-internet/>.

⁴⁴ Ibid.

⁴⁵ Joseph Patrick McKerns, “The History of American Journalism: A Bibliographical Essay,” *American Studies International* 15 no. 1 (1976): 17-24.

publishers, helped solidify ideas that information should be free, and journalism could be used as a means to correct deficits in society. These ideas permeated society so much so that the United States Constitution's First Amendment gave the press freedom from government restriction, though sedition laws passed late in the 18th century that resulted in a number of editors being fined or jailed because of their criticism of the Adams Administration.⁴⁶

The libertarian theory of the press, presented in *Four Theories of the Press*, arose from thoughts in Europe in the 16th century. The libertarian theory promotes the idea that humans are capable of judging good ideas from bad, and because they are able of rational thought the media should not restrict content. The libertarian theory can also be seen in the roots of the social responsibility theory which arose in the mid 20th century and is considered the modern theory. In *Four Theories of the Press*, co-author Theodore Peterson introduces the social responsibility theory of the press and its tasks,

(1) [S]ervicing the political system by providing information, discussion, and debate on public affairs; (2) enlightening the public so as to make it capable of self-government; (3) safeguarding the rights of the individual by serving as a watchdog against government; (4) servicing the economic system, primarily by bringing together the buyers and sellers of goods and services through the medium of advertising; (5) providing entertainment; (6) maintaining its own financial self-sufficiency so as to be free from the pressures of special interests.⁴⁷

The social responsibility theory focuses on the responsibility of the press and These tasks of “social responsibility,” combined with the “libertarian” ideas that men are capable of well-reasoned thinking and organizing the world around them, are manifest in the historical course of American journalism.⁴⁸

⁴⁶ Correspondence with Alumni Professor Louis Day, March 22, 2018.

⁴⁷ Fred S. Siebert, Theodore Peterson, and Wilbur Schramm, *Four Theories of the Press: the Authoritarian, Libertarian, Social Responsibility, and Soviet Communist Concepts of What the Press Should Be and Do*, (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1963), 74.

⁴⁸ *Ibid.*, 40.

The number of newspapers in the United States grew rapidly in the early 1800s. This created a practice of “extensive information-gathering” to provide outstanding coverage, as there was more competition for readership.⁴⁹ The late 1880s large newspapers, such as the *New York Herald*, the *New York Times*, and the *Tribune*, were sending correspondents overseas for better news coverage.⁵⁰ During this time, the term “yellow journalism,” also became popular to describe sensational journalism with little fact used to drive up readership. Joseph Pulitzer, owner of the *New York World*, and William Randolph Hearst, owner of *The New York Journal*, were accused of using this sensationalism to compete with one another’s papers in the 1890s. Journalism also responded to the building of large corporations with “exposé” style writing. Journalist Upton Sinclair’s novel *The Jungle*, for example, shed light on harsh working and living conditions of immigrants in industrialized cities.⁵¹ In a speech on April 14 1906, President Theodore Roosevelt described these journalists as “the Man with the Muck-rack,” which was later shortened to “muckrackers.”⁵² “Muckracking” in the early 20th century, was rebranded in following years “investigative reporting.” Investigative reporters became some of the earliest war correspondents during World War I (1914-1918).

In the 1920’s the first “broadcast journalists” were heard over radio waves. Radio was the first of several subsequent technologies to change the idea of what journalism was for over 200 years. Radio became a forum for news, as well as, mass entertainment. The following decade saw the rise of photojournalism. As the Great Depression hung over the nation, ten

⁴⁹ Jean K. Chalaby, “Journalism as an Anglo-American Invention: A Comparison of the Development of French and Anglo-American Journalism, 1830s-1920s,” *European Journal of Communication* 11 no. 3 (1996): 306.

⁵⁰ *Ibid.*, 307.

⁵¹ Upton Sinclair, *The Jungle*, (New York, Doubleday: 1906).

⁵² Theodore Roosevelt, “The Man with the Muck-rake,” (Speech delivered on April 14, 1906), Accessed from <www.americanrhetoric.com/speeches/teddyrooseveltmuckrake.htm>.

photographers were commissioned by the Farm Security Administration to document the poverty of America. The resulting photos have become iconic images of the suffering during that time.

Following World War II, the transition from radio to television as the main form of electronic media began. Television dramatically impacted the value of image for companies using advertising, as well as political figures. The Kennedy-Nixon debate of 1960 perhaps best summarizes television's new influence. On September 26, 1960 presidential hopefuls John F. Kennedy and Richard Nixon participated in a televised debate that appeared on CBS. Following the debate, those who listened to it on the radio called it a draw or slightly favored Nixon, while those watching on television named Kennedy the winner.⁵³ This discovery of perception would greatly influence the practices of broadcast journalism in following decades. In 1972, *Washington Post* journalists Bob Woodward and Carl Bernstein epitomized the "watchdog" role of the media. The evidence their investigative reporting produced during the Watergate Scandal had a hand in the resignation of Richard Nixon.

In the 1980s, media mogul Rupert Murdoch was the first to compete with the "Big Three" broadcast stations (NBC, CBS, and ABC) with his Fox Television Network. Television personalities became more diverse including minorities and women like Oprah Winfrey, Connie Chung, and Barbara Walters. During this time of success in broadcasting, newspapers publishers were suffering, while large companies were consolidating smaller companies to be more cost effective. The close of the 20th century brought even more media diversity, declining newspaper readership, media corporations consolidating, new broadcasting networks like Cable News Network (CNN), and the rise of the Internet. The 1990s introduced unprecedented types of

⁵³ "The Kennedy-Nixon Debates," History.com, Accessed February 8, 2018. <www.history.com/topics/us-president/kennedy-nixon-debates>.

voices into journalism, including the staunch conservative Rush Limbaugh, the offensive Howard Stern, and the Internet “gossip columnist” Matt Drudge.

Twenty-first century journalism represents a new generation of readers and writers who use technology effortlessly as if it was an appendage of their own body. Digital journalism has revitalized community journalism, which some forecasted would become extinct. The digital platform has also introduced the merging of different forms of media (e.g. text, photo, and video) and mediums (e.g. newspaper, radio broadcast, and television broadcast) to one platform. This process has been dubbed “convergence.”

A Content Analysis of Historical Documents

The use of content analysis in mass communication research has become a standard in recent years. Lovejoy, Watson, Lacy and Riffe found that 23% of articles published in *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, *Journal of Communication*, and *Communication Monographs* between 1985 and 2010 used content analysis as a method of research. Content analysis is a systematic way of finding patterns by coding and interpreting material.⁵⁴ There are two types of content analysis methods: qualitative and quantitative. Qualitative content analyses use descriptive measures to determine the characteristics of a document, experience, etc. Quantitative content analyses use coding to categorized data into a numerical format, which the researcher can then use to find patterns and draw inferences. Spillman, Kuban and Smith⁵⁵ used a quantitative method of coding course titles and descriptions found in course catalogs from 2013-

⁵⁴ Jennette Lovejoy, Brendan R. Watson, Stephan Lacy, and Daniel Riffe, “Assessing the reporting of reliability in published content analyses: 1985-2010,” *Communication Methods and Measures* no. 8 (2014): 207-221.

⁵⁵ Mary Spillman, Adam J. Kuban, and Suzy J. Smith, “Words Du Jour: An Analysis of Traditional and Transitional Course Descriptors at Select J-Schools,” *Journalism and Mass Communication Educator* 72 no. 2 (2017): 198-211.

2014 at 68 universities to determine what trends were found in journalism schools' curriculum. Using a quantitative content analysis to study large volumes of course descriptions allows the researcher to quantify how trends in curriculum (e.g. theory and skill-based courses, new technologies) are implemented in the journalism schools overtime. For this study, the quantitative content analysis method will allow the researcher to find patterns in three journalism programs from 1910 to 2010 by coding course descriptions.

There are some limitations to using a content analysis in this type of research. Findings of content analysis research cannot necessarily be applied to all similar categories. For example, this study will use a content analysis to find how journalism curriculum has changed over time at three institutions. However, the results of this study cannot be assumed at other institutions that have not been tested in the same way. Another limitation of content analysis is the variance of approaches that can be used. For example, a content analysis with the same goals (e.g. finding the changes of curriculum over time) but differences in approach (e.g. how "change" is quantified) cannot be compared. Content analyses can only be compared when the approaches are all the same. Reliability can also be a limitation of content analyses. Reliability of any content analysis must be tested to quantify the probability that if the researcher's methods are repeated, the same results will be found from the data.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

RQ1: How have journalism curricula changed over the past 100 years in three public higher education institutions?

RQ2: How has leadership changed in journalism curriculum over time in three public higher education institutions?

RQ3: Have factors inside and outside of journalism programs influenced curriculum change? If so, what are these factors and how have they influenced curriculum change?

METHODS

Selection of Content

This content analysis will focus on three universities: The University of Missouri, Louisiana State University, and the University of North Carolina. All three universities have accessible databases with the relevant information. Each university also contains a journalism school that is representative of the top programs in the journalism/mass communication discipline. Using these three universities, this study will analyze course descriptions found in general university catalogs and leadership in journalism education. The unit of analysis in this study is a single course description. The researcher notes that while syllabi would be a more accurate tool to determine the focus, topic, and use of technology in each course, the course description is a more available tool. The researcher will analyze every 10th catalog in chronological order (e.g. 1910, 1920, 1930...). For each year the researcher will apply the same criteria to each course description listed to determine: 1. Is the course is required? 2. Is the course theory-based, skill-based, historical, general knowledge or a mixture of one or more of these? 3. What topic(s) does the course cover? 4. What is/are the major technology/technologies addressed in the course?

Coding Procedures

To determine if each course is required the researcher will find course requirements within the department/school. The coding options for requirement are the following: required, elective, choice of two or more courses to meet requirement, required for specific track, or choice of two or more to meet requirement in specific track. Coding for course requirement will help the researcher determine which courses were important enough in the administration's opinion to be necessary for every student to enroll in. The categories in this section are mutually

exclusive (e.g. a course cannot be coded as more than one) and mutually exhaustive (e.g. courses that do not fall into any category the researcher has outlined will be coded as “other”).

To determine the focus of the course (theory, skill, history or general) the researcher will use key words in each category to code. Key words for theory-based courses include: theory and theories. Key words for skill-based courses include: skill, practice, practicum, internship, and action words (e.g. writing, story-telling, etc.). Key words for history courses include: history and historical. Courses will be coded as general overview when the course description includes the student gaining knowledge of the subject without the practical application of skill, theories about the subject, or the history of the subject. The researcher will identify when key words are used out of context of the researcher’s operationalized code. The purpose is to understand the core goal of the course. Example theory-based courses include: Theories of Mass Communication, Mass Communication Philosophies and Principles, Media Management and Leadership Theory, and Foundations of Media Persuasion. Example skill-based courses include: Newswriting, Photojournalism, and Long-Format Video Production. Example history courses include: American Media History, American Magazine History, and The Black Press and United States History. Example general overview courses include: Current Issues in Mass Communication, The Literature of Journalism, and Media and the Military. Codes for the focus of the course (theory-based, skill-based, historical, and general overview) are not mutually exclusive. The focus code is used to determine how many courses, out of the total number of courses offered, include focus in each of the categories. For example, a course may be coded as theory-based and skill-based if the course description uses key words from both categories. The categories in this section are *not* mutually exclusive (e.g. a course can be coded as more than one), but they are

mutually exhaustive (e.g. courses that do not fall into any category the researcher has outlined will be coded as “other”).

The researcher operationalizes the question “What topics does the course cover?” by looking for key words that describe topics that may be discussed in the course. These key words are types of mass communication (newspaper, magazine, radio, television, advertising, Internet and social media), groups of people (minorities, women and corporations) and categories of study/research (social responsibility, public opinion, law and ethics). The researcher will use this coding to draw conclusions about how the journalism departments incorporated these sections of curriculum over time. The categories in this section are *not* mutually exclusive (e.g. a course can be coded as more than one), but they are mutually exhaustive (e.g. courses that do not fall into any category the researcher has outlined will be coded as “other”).

To determine which technologies are addressed in each course the researcher will look for key words (television, radio, internet, photography, software). Coding for what technologies are addressed in each course will allow the researcher to draw conclusions about how and when each school adopted/incorporated new technologies relating to mass communication. The categories in this section are *not* mutually exclusive (e.g. a course can be coded as more than one), but they are mutually exhaustive (e.g. courses that do not fall into any category the researcher has outlined will be coded as “other”).

To analyze the leadership of each school the researcher will compile a list of each “leader” (i.e. dean, chair, president, etc.) in the journalism schools’ histories from 1910 to 2010. The researcher will study the history of the schools in conjunction with the qualities (e.g. degrees held, professional experience, academic experience, beliefs and values) that the leader had. The

researcher will draw conclusions of the leaders' impact on the school and curriculum changes based on the information gathered.

Operationalization of Variables

In order to better understand the data, results and conclusions the variables measured are operationalized below. The operationalization of each variable will explain what researcher is referring to when using specific terms.

Theory-based learning: The class objectives include understanding theories, ideas, values, principles or philosophies of the subject matter.

Skill-based learning: The class objectives include learning skills relevant to the subject matter that the student may use in a profession relating to the subject matter. Includes practicums, internships, etc.

Historical Knowledge: The class objectives include becoming familiar with the historical facts of a person, subject or collection of people or organizations.

General Knowledge: The course objectives include the student obtaining a general knowledge of the subject, which can include: facts, current events, problems, systems, operations, etc.

Intercoder Reliability

The researcher tested for the reliability of these methods using a second coder. The second coder was trained in the terms and codes used in the code sheets for a total of 3 hours. The second coder reanalyzed 10% of the total units (course descriptions). In this study the total number of units is 1,686 course descriptions. The second coder analyzed 170 course descriptions. The researcher used a random number generator to select the course descriptions to be reanalyzed by the second coder.⁵⁶ Then, the researcher calculated intercoder reliability using

⁵⁶ Random.org. <<https://www.random.org/integers/>>.

Holsti's⁵⁷ formula. The intercoder reliability coefficient calculate by the researcher was 0.964. As the coefficient is greater than .90, the results can be considered reliable.⁵⁸

⁵⁷ Ole R. Holsti, *Content analysis for the social sciences and humanities*, (Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1969).

⁵⁸ Roger D. Wimmer and Joseph R. Dominick, *Mass Media Research: An Introduction*, Tenth ed. (Boston, MA: Wadsworth, Cengage Learning, 2014), 179-180.

RESULTS

Total Course Offerings

The growth of each program can most simply be quantified by how many courses were offered in the sampled years. As represented in Figure 1, each program increased the total number of courses offered. This can be attributed to a few things, including: the popularity of the subject/program, the growth of the mass communication industry, the need of trained professionals, and the maturity of the profession. The data show that all three programs had similar rates of growth, while the MU School of Journalism began with more course offerings and maintained more through the 2000 sample. The LSU and UNC programs began with less course offerings than MU's program, but maintained steady growth over the sampled years. The data also show that while the LSU and UNC programs increased course offerings from 2000 to 2010, the MU program decreased. The data also show the relationship between UNC's School of Journalism and UNC's Department of Radio, Television, and Motion Pictures (RTVMP), which was dissolved in 1993.

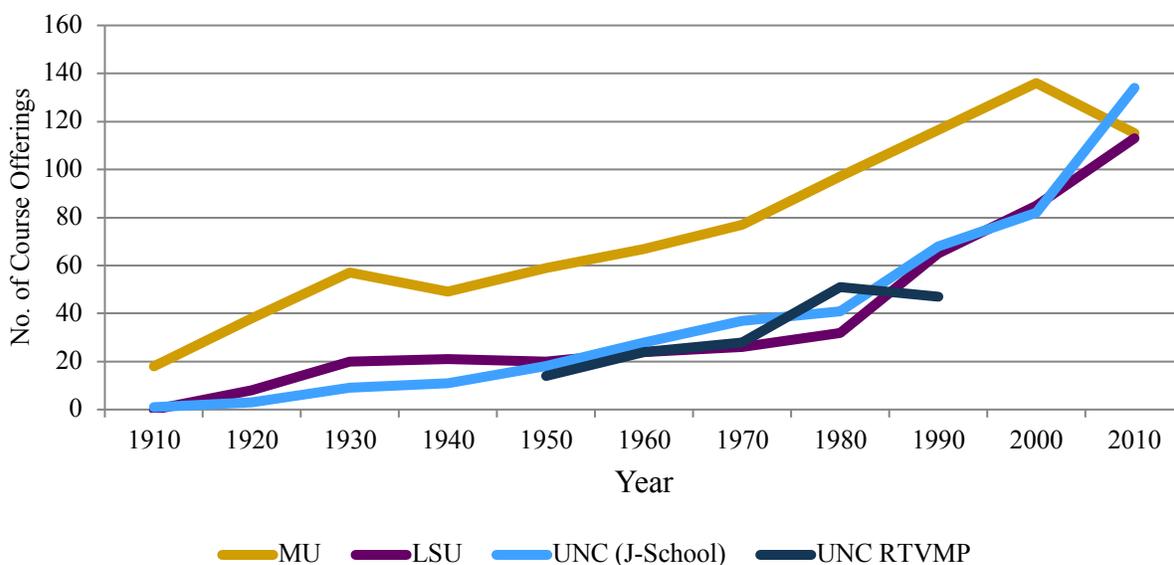


Figure 1. Total Course Offerings 1910-2010

The increase in total course offerings can also be used as a reference to understand why a decrease in the percent of a specific code does not mean that courses representing that code were removed from the course catalog, but rather that the courses in another category may have been added. For example, while Figure 1 shows all of the programs increased the total number of courses over the sampled time, the following research will show that the *percentage* of a specific type of course (i.e. theory-based) may decrease. This does not necessarily mean that the number of total types of this course decreased. The rate of increased offerings for one type of course may be slower than for another type of course. To prevent confusion, the total number of course offerings is displayed below the year in each table.

Course Focus: Theory, Skill, Historical, and General

When coding for the focus of each course, the data show that each program is different in balancing the four types (theory-based, skill-based, historical and general knowledge) of course. However, in coding the 1,686 course descriptions the researcher did find some similarities.

Tables 1, 2, and 3 show the data gathered from each university.

Table 1. Course Focus at MU

Values are expressed as the percent of the total number of offered courses.⁵⁹

YEAR	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2010
<i>No. of courses</i>	<i>18</i>	<i>38</i>	<i>57</i>	<i>49</i>	<i>59</i>	<i>67</i>	<i>77</i>	<i>97</i>	<i>-</i>	<i>136</i>	<i>115</i>
Theory			1.75			2.99	9.09	8.25		11.76	5.22
Skill	72.22	78.95	61.4	67.35	59.32	71.64	61.04	53.61		48.53	62.61
General	27.78	15.79	36.84	34.69	38.98	32.84	29.87	37.11		36.03	31.3
Historical	5.56	5.52	3.51	2.04	3.39	2.99	3.9	4.12		2.94	1.74

⁵⁹ Categories for course focus are not mutually exclusive and therefore will not always equal 100% in each year.

Table 2. Course Focus at LSU

Values are expressed as the percent of the total number of offered courses.

YEAR	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2010
<i>No. of courses</i>	0	8	20	21	20	24	26	32	65	85	113
Theory			10			4.17	7.69	18.75	7.69	15.29	26.55
Skill		100	45	61.9	35	41.7	34.62	37.5	47.69	48.24	43.36
General			45	42.86	65	58.33	42.31	40.63	41.54	29.41	24.78
Historical			5	9.52	5	4.17	3.85	3.13	4.62	1.18	3.54

Table 3. Course Focus at UNC

Values are expressed as the percent of the total number of offered courses.

YEAR	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2010
J-School	1	3	9	11	18	28	37	41	68	82	134
RTVMP					14	24	28	51	47		
Total Courses					32	51	74	90	115		
Theory						3.57	2.70	4.88	5.88	3.66	10.45
						12.5	10.53	5.88	10.64		
						7.84	6.76	5.56	7.83		
Skill	100.00	100.00	100.00	90.91	100.00	50.00	45.33	43.9	44.12	43.9	55.97
					92.86	45.83	55.26	39.22	34.04		
					96.88	49.02	45.94	41.11	40.00		
General						28.57	37.84	31.71	42.65	36.59	30.6
						41.67	31.58	47.06	55.32		
						33.33	33.78	40	47.83		
Historical				9.09	0	7.14	8.11	9.76	7.35	8.54	4.48
					7.14	0	0	3.92	2.13		
					3.13	3.92	4.05	6.67	5.22		

All universities had a larger percent of skill-based courses in the 1910 and 1920 samples, and all universities decreased in the percent of skill-based courses from 1920 to 1980. The larger percent of skill-based courses and the lack of theory-based, historical and general courses in the very early years of journalism can be attributed to the lack of study in the area. Much of the research that exists today in mass communication was developed as new technologies were invented and incorporated (e.g. radio, television, internet and digital media). In the earliest years of journalism researchers were just beginning to realize the need for the formation of theories about mass communication. The data does not show that any theory-based courses were

implemented continuously until the 1960 sample, though it is possible that theory based-courses were included in the years between the samples (1951-1959).

The large percent of skill-based courses in early years of mass communication education can also be attributed to the need for specific writing styles in newspaper copy. Students exiting the university and entering the journalism profession would need a diverse skill set to write and edit copy for all types of assignments. From the 1910 sample to the 1950 sample skills courses were almost exclusively writing based courses. The course descriptions mention several newspaper skills, including: newsgathering, copy reading, reporting, editing, newspaper illustration, headline writing and page layout. Also, during this time advanced classes were available in these categories (e.g. Newspaper Illustration I, Newspaper Illustration II, Newspaper Illustration III, etc.)

As percent of skill-based courses decreased the percent of general knowledge courses increased. This decrease in percent of skill-based courses is not a result of removal of skill-based courses in these programs. On the contrary, skill-based courses continued to be added in each program. However, general knowledge courses were added in larger amounts. The surge of general knowledge courses could be attributed to the maturity of the industry and the need of graduates to be well versed in courses that addressed mass communication law, special problems in mass communication, public opinion, etc. The data show that general knowledge classes were incorporated by MU in their beginning years, while the data give no evidence that UNC incorporated general knowledge classes until the 1960 sample, although general knowledge courses may have been included in years not sampled (1951-1959).

The percent of historical knowledge courses declined over time as well. Again, this does not mean that historical knowledge courses were removed from course offerings. Historical

classes were added in each school, but in much lower quantities than theory-based, skill-based and general knowledge classes. This result may be explained by the ability for students to gain a comprehensive knowledge of mass communication history through few courses.

Degree Requirements: Required or Elective

In the coding process, degree requirements were used to determine which of the following categories courses were in: required for all students, elective, choice of two or more courses to meet requirement, required only for specific track, required for graduate students, choice of two or more courses to meet requirement in specific track. In the required for all students category, each program had different trends for which types of courses (theory-based, skill-based, historical or general knowledge) were required each year. At MU, theory-based courses were not consistently required of all students in the sampled years, while skill-based and general knowledge courses of some kind were a requirement for all students through the years. Historical knowledge courses were generally required until the 2010 sample. At LSU, skill-based and general knowledge courses were consistently required throughout the sampled years. Historical knowledge courses were only required from the 1930 sample to the 1970 sample, while an increasing percent of theory-based courses were required from 1990 to 2010. At UNC, skill-based and general knowledge courses were consistently required throughout the sampled years. Historical knowledge courses were required irregularly, while theory courses were only required two out of the eleven sampled years. The only consistency seen in all three programs is the consistent requirement of skill-based and general knowledge courses.

Course Topics

Tables 4, 5 and 6 represent the percentage of course descriptions in each sampled year which include key words relating to the following topics: newspaper, writing, report, magazine,

advertising, law, public opinion, public relations, social responsibility, ethics, women, minorities. There are some similar trends among the programs and some dissimilarity. Looking at the 1,686 course descriptions from the three programs, there are overlapping trends of greater percentages of courses related to “newspaper” in earlier years, and topics like “social responsibility,” “women,” and “minorities” in later years. These trends speak mostly to the maturity and progression in the journalism profession overtime. In its infancy the only medium for the journalist was a newspaper, which draws the conclusion that early journalism programs would be saturated with newspaper courses. Overall, MU has a wider variety of topics in early years, followed by LSU, then by UNC.

Table 4. Course Topics at MU
 Values are expressed as the percent of the total number of offered courses.⁶⁰

YEAR	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2010
No. of courses	18	38	57	49	59	67	77	97	-	136	115
Newspaper	50.00	52.63	31.58	28.57	27.12	23.88	15.58	12.37		8.09	8.70
Writing	22.22	15.79	26.32	20.41	13.56	11.94	11.69	12.37		11.76	19.13
Report	5.56	7.89	7.02	8.16	5.08	4.48	7.79	11.34		9.56	16.52
Magazine	5.56		5.26	6.12	5.08	7.46	10.39	11.34		6.62	6.96
Advertising	5.56	21.05	42.11	32.65	20.34	20.90	11.69	13.40		14.71	7.83
Law	5.56	2.63	1.75	2.04	1.69	0.74	1.30	5.15		4.41	3.48
Public Opinion	5.56		1.75	2.04	1.69						
Broadcast				2.04	3.39	1.49	2.60	7.22		6.62	11.30
Investigative					5.08	1.49		1.03			1.74
Public Relations					1.69	1.49	1.30	2.06			3.48
Photojournalism							2.60	1.03		4.41	5.22
Social Responsibility								1.03		0.74	
Ethics								3.09		5.15	5.22
Convergence											4.35
Social Media											0.87
Women										0.74	0.87
Minorities											

⁶⁰ Categories for course topics are not mutually exclusive and therefore will not always equal 100% in each year.

Table 5. Course Topics at LSU

Values are expressed as the percent of the total number of offered courses.

YEAR	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2010
No. of courses	0	8	20	21	20	24	26	32	65	85	113
Newspaper		75.00	45.00	33.33	35.00	29.17	11.54	15.63	10.77	3.53	3.54
Writing		37.50	35.00	19.05	15.00		19.23	6.25	10.77	7.06	8.85
Report		25.00	15.00	9.52	10.00	8.33	7.69	6.25	9.23	4.71	4.42
Magazine		25.00	5.00	4.76	5.00	4.17	3.85	3.13	3.08	3.53	2.65
Advertising		12.50	35.00	23.81	20.00	12.50	15.38	18.75	16.92	15.29	11.50
Law			5.00	4.76	5.00	4.17	3.85	6.25	6.15	4.71	4.42
Public Opinion				4.76	5.00	4.17	3.85	3.13	1.54	2.35	3.54
Broadcast							3.85	9.38	12.31	3.53	2.65
Investigative											0.88
Public Relations						4.17		3.13	10.77	12.94	8.85
Photojournalism							3.85	3.13	1.54	1.18	0.88
Social Responsibility										1.18	1.77
Ethics			5.00	4.76	5.00			6.25	4.62	4.71	4.42
Convergence										1.18	0.88
Social Media											
Women											
Minorities											0.88

Table 6. Course Topics at UNC

Values are expressed as the percent of the total number of offered courses.

UNC	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2010
J-School	1	3	9	11	18	28	37	41	68	82	134
RTVMP					14	24	28	51	47		
Total Courses					32	51	74	90	115		
Newspaper		33.33	11.11	9.09	33.33	7.14	8.11	9.76	9.76	4.88	3.73
					0	0	0	0	0		
					18.75	3.92	4.05	4.44	5.77		
Writing	100.00	100.00	55.56	45.45	38.89	14.29	8.11	14.63	24.39	13.41	15.67
					57.14	20.83	10.53	9.8	10.64		
					46.88	17.65	9.46	12.22	18.77		
Report			11.11	9.09	5.56	7.14	8.11	9.76	6.32	6.10	8.21
					0	0	0	1.96	2.13		
					3.13	3.92	4.05	4.44	4.61		
Magazine							5.41	4.88	7.32	3.66	2.99
							0	0	0		
							2.7	2.22	4.33		

(Table cont'd)

UNC	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2010
J-School	1	3	9	11	18	28	37	41	68	82	134
RTVMP					14	24	28	51	47		
Total Courses					32	51	74	90	115		
Advertising					16.67	14.29	10.81	14.63	21.95	17.07	9.70
					0	0	0	0	2.13		
					9.38	7.84	5.41	6.67	13.85		
Law						3.57	5.41	4.88	2.44	4.88	2.99
						0	0	3.92	4.26		
						1.96	2.7	4.44	3.18		
Public Opinion						0	0	0			
						4.17	2.63	1.96			
						1.96	1.35	1.11			
Broadcasting					0	0	2.7	4.88	2.44	6.10	5.22
					7.14	12.5	13.16	33.33	17.02		
					3.13	5.88	8.11	20	8.40		
Investigative						0	0	4.88	2.44	2.44	0.75
						4.17	5.26	5.88	4.26		
						1.96	2.7	4.44	3.18		
Public Relations					0				7.32	6.10	2.24
					7.14				0		
					3.13				4.33		
Photojournalism								2.44	7.32	3.66	2.99
								0	0		
								1.11	4.33		
Social Responsibility								2.44	2.44		0.75
								1.96	0		
								2.22	1.44		
Ethics							5.41	4.88	2.44	4.88	4.48
							0	0	2.13		
							2.7	2.22	2.31		
Convergence											
Women								0		1.22	
								1.96			
								1.11			
Minorities								0	0	2.44	1.49
								1.96	2.13		
								1.11	0.87		

Technology: Camera, Radio, Television, Software, and Digital

The incorporation of new technology in mass communication education is represented in tables 7, 8, and 9. The technologies are separated into five categories: camera⁶¹, radio, television, software⁶² and digital.⁶³ Comparing the three programs, MU is the quickest to adopt new technology into curriculum. The data show that MU was the first to incorporate the following technologies: “camera” in the 1920 sample, “radio” in the 1930 sample, “software” in the 1960 sample, and “digital” in the 1970 sample. LSU was also quick to adopt some technologies like “camera” in the 1940 sample, “radio” in the 1940 sample, and “TV” in the 1950 sample. LSU, however incorporated newer technologies like “software” and “digital” in later samples than the other programs. UNC’s adoption of most technology was later than MU and LSU, however, the Department of Radio, Television and Motion Pictures at UNC was the first of the programs to adopt “television” technology. The researcher notes that there are cases when the courses may use technologies in class that are not mentioned in the course description. This is a limitation of the study.

Table 7. Technology at MU

Values are expressed as the percent of the total number of offered courses.⁶⁴

YEAR	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2010
No. of courses	18	38	57	49	59	67	77	97	-	136	115
Camera		5.26	5.26	4.08	6.78	8.96	6.49	4.12		5.15	5.22
Radio			1.75	4.08	8.47	8.96	7.79	6.19		4.41	2.61
Television						14.93	11.69	10.31		7.35	4.35
Software						1.49		2.06		0.74	6.09
Digital							1.3			4.41	7.83

⁶¹ The “camera” category is specifically related to cameras used in photography and not those used for video recordings.

⁶² The “software” category is specific to computer software used in editing and design.

⁶³ The researcher did code for “typewriter” as a technology but because course descriptions did not specify use of a typewriter or other instruments of writing the data were not conclusive.

⁶⁴ Categories for technology are not mutually exclusive and therefore will not always equal 100% in each year.

Table 8. Technology at LSU

Values are expressed as the percent of the total number of offered courses.

YEAR	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2010
No. of courses	0	8	20	21	20	24	26	32	65	85	113
Camera				4.76	5	4.17	3.85	3.13	1.54	1.18	0.88
Radio				4.76	10	4.17	3.85	3.13	7.69		
Television						4.17	3.85	6.25	9.23	1.18	1.77
Software										3.53	2.65
Digital										1.18	

Table 9. Technology at UNC

Values are expressed as the percent of the total number of offered courses.

YEAR	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2010
J-School	1	3	9	11	18	28	37	41	68	82	134
RTVMP					14	24	28	51	47		
Total Courses					32	51	74	90	115		
CAMERA					5.56	3.57	2.70	4.88	7.32	4.88	1.49
					0	12.5	7.89	0	0		
					3.13	7.84	5.41	2.22	4.33		
Radio				9.09	5.56	3.57	2.7	4.88	0		2.24
					57.14	29.17	24.32	27.45	27.66		
					25	15.69	13.51	16.67	11.30		
Television					0	3.57	5.41	4.88	0	1.22	4.48
					7.14	37.5	13.51	41.18	40.43		
					3.13	19.61	14.86	24.44	16.52		
Software								2.44	9.76	9.76	9.7
								0	0		
								1.11	5.77		
Digital									0	1.22	10.45
									4.26		
									1.74		

University of Missouri Journalism Program Leadership

Table 10 represents the leaders of the University of Missouri's Journalism Program, the position the leaders held, the unit the position was held in, the year they were appointed, the year they retired from the position, and the total number of years they served in the position.

Table 10. Leadership in Journalism at MU 1910-2010

NAME	POSITION	UNIT	BEGIN	END	NO. OF YEARS
Walter Williams	Dean	School of Journalism	1908	1935	27
Frank Lee Martin	Dean	School of Journalism	1935	1941	6
James E. Gerald	Acting Dean	School of Journalism	1941	1942	1
Frank Luther Mott	Dean	School of Journalism	1942	1951	9
Earl F English	Dean	School of Journalism	1951	1970	19
Milton Gross	Acting Dean	School of Journalism	1970	1971	1
Roy M. Fisher	Dean	School of Journalism	1971	1982	11
Elmer Lower	Interim Dean	School of Journalism	1982	1983	1
James Atwater	Dean	School of Journalism	1983	1989	6
Dean Mills	Dean	School of Journalism	1989	2010	21

In 1908, Walter Williams became the first ever founding dean of the first school of journalism in the United States. Williams, who is known as the “Father of Journalism Education,”⁶⁵ became the dean of the School of Journalism at the University of Missouri (MU) having no higher education himself. Williams began his career in journalism at 14-years-old, following the death of both his parents, working for the *Booneville Topic* in his hometown of Booneville, Missouri.⁶⁶ By age 22, Williams was co-owner of the *Boonville Advertiser* (merged with the *Topic* in 1884) and president of the Missouri Press Association (MPA).⁶⁷ Prior to coming to MU, Williams wrote press releases for the Missouri State Penitentiary, was an editor at the *Columbia Herald*, an editor for the *Daily State Tribune*, founder of *The Country Editor*, and a free-lance writer for several other papers in Missouri.⁶⁸ In 1895 Williams was made

⁶⁵ John W. Brown, *Missouri Legends: Famous people from the Show-Me State* (St Louis: Ready Press, 2008), 221-222.

⁶⁶ Ronald T. Farrar, *A Creed for My Profession: Walter Williams, Journalist to the World* (Columbia, MO: University of Missouri Press, 1998), 36-38.

⁶⁷ Brown, *Missouri Legends*, 221-222.

⁶⁸ Farrar, *A Creed for My Profession*, 59.; Douglass W. Miller, “Walter Williams, 1864-1935,” *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly* 12, no. 3, 278-281.

president of the National Editorial Association.⁶⁹ Williams was known nationally for traveling abroad to publicize the 1904 World Fair in St. Louis.⁷⁰

In the early 1900s, after campaigning for journalism education for years, Williams became chair of the Executive Board of the University of Missouri Curators, which recommended that MU establish a school for the education of young journalists.⁷¹ Williams agreed to become the School's first dean. Walter Williams, known for many successes in journalism, is perhaps best known for his "Journalist's Creed," a code of professional and ethical standards developed and published by Williams and adopted by many journalism departments and associations, including the National Press Club (NPC).⁷² Williams' Creed, which includes ideas such as "the public journal is a public trust," "accuracy and fairness are fundamental to good journalism," "suppression of the news...is indefensible," "best interest of readers," and "promoting international good will," became the foundation of the School of Journalism.⁷³

During Williams' 27 years of leadership, the School of Journalism grew in size and international prominence. In his first year as dean, Williams established the *University Missourian* (later renamed the *Columbia Missourian*) student newspaper, which gave students experience writing and publishing news stories. This approach, later dubbed the "Missouri Method," included a fully functioning daily newspaper that served the university as well as the city of Columbia, staffed with faculty editors to guide students in information gathering, story preparation, and newspaper production. Author Steve Weinberg said,

Williams borrowed what made sense from professional schools in other fields. Schools of law, medicine, agriculture, engineering, and teacher education had become realities

⁶⁹ Miller, "Walter Williams."

⁷⁰ Winfield, Introduction to *Journalism 1908*, 10.

⁷¹ *Ibid.*, 9.

⁷² *Ibid.*, 12.

⁷³ Williams, *The Journalist's Creed*.

within his lifetime, in some instances replacing apprenticeships. Furthermore, each of those professional schools combined the lecture/classroom method with hands-on practicums in real-world settings – such as hospitals, courtrooms, factories, and schoolhouses. So why not journalism?⁷⁴

The *Missourian* was not without its challenges. Within the first year, Williams realized the need for an association outside of the university to house the financial, legal and administrative duties of the newspaper. In 1909, Williams created the University Missourian Association to serve this purpose.⁷⁵ In an interview with *Editor & Publisher*, Williams explained his method of journalism education

My theory has been, and is, that the successful school of journalism should do three things. First, it should afford an opportunity for the pursuit of those subjects every man aspiring to a liberal education should be grounded in; second, it should emphasize special subjects that are of most value to the journalist – say, an emphasis on the study of politics over the study of geology – and, third, it should instruct in the practical side of newspaper making. Let it teach the student how to write and present in print (and there is the crucial point: *in print*) the principles learned in those other courses.⁷⁶

In 1908, the School's inaugural year, eleven courses were offered: "History and Principles of Journalism," "Newspaper Administration," "Newspaper Jurisprudence," "News Gathering," "Newspaper Making," "Reporting," "Copy-Reading and Newspaper Correspondence," "Advertising and Publishing," "Magazine Making," "Professional Terminology," and "Comparative Journalism."⁷⁷ In 1910, Williams instituted the School's first Journalism Week, where distinguished media professionals lectured throughout the week in an

⁷⁴ Steve Weinberg, *A Journalism of Humanity: A Candid History of the World's First Journalism School* (Columbia, MO: University of Columbia Press, 2008), 14-15.

⁷⁵ Weinberg, *A Journalism of Humanity*, 18-19.

⁷⁶ (As quoted in) Miller, "Walter Williams."

⁷⁷ *1908-1909 University of Missouri Catalogue*, (Columbia, MO: 1908), 334-335.

open forum.⁷⁸ Needing teaching resources, Williams co-authored a book with fellow professor Frank Lee Martin in 1911, titled *The Practice of Journalism: A Treatise on Newspaper Making*.⁷⁹

Williams was also active in leadership outside of MU. In 1915, Williams was appointed as the first director of the International Press Conference (later the Press Congress of the World).⁸⁰ Williams also became the first president of the American Association of Schools and Departments of Journalism (AASDJ) in 1916.⁸¹ In 1921 the School of Journalism offered the world's first master's degree in journalism, and thirteen years later offered the world's first Ph.D. in journalism. The school gained further notoriety in 1930, when the first Missouri Honor Medal for Distinguished Service in Journalism was awarded.⁸²

In 1931 Walter Williams was named the president of the University of Missouri, while maintaining his role as dean of the School of Journalism. Williams held both offices until his death in 1935. In his 27 years as dean, Williams directed the instruction of almost 2,000 graduates⁸³ and grew the curriculum of the School of Journalism from eleven courses in the 1908-1909 academic year, to 61 courses in the 1945-1935 academic year including concentrations such as "Advertising," "Illustration," "Editorial Direction," "Special Writing," "Rural Journalism," "High School Publications," and "Religious Journalism."⁸⁴ Williams' impact on the Missouri School of Journalism, as well as the journalism profession as a whole, is immeasurable.

⁷⁸ "History of the Missouri School of Journalism," University of Missouri, Accessed on February 20, 2018, <www.missouri.edu/about/history/journalism.php>.

⁷⁹ Walter Williams and Frank L. Martin, *The Practice of Journalism: A Treatise on Newspaper Making* (Columbia, MO: E. W. Stephens Publishing Co., 1911).

⁸⁰ Miller, "Walter Williams."

⁸¹ Ibid.

⁸² "History of the Missouri School of Journalism," University of Missouri.

⁸³ Miller, "Walter Williams."

⁸⁴ *University of Missouri Bulletin, Catalog 1934-1935* (Columbia, MO: 1934), 320-324.

Frank Lee Martin succeeded Williams as dean in 1935. Martin had fulfilled the administrative duties of the dean as the associate dean since Williams was named president of the university in 1931.⁸⁵ Frank Martin had shared a close personal and professional relationship with Williams and even served as a pallbearer at his funeral.⁸⁶ Martin joined the school's faculty after befriending Williams during an interview for the *Kansas City Star*, where Martin was a staff writer.⁸⁷ In many ways, Martin's years as dean of the School of Journalism were a continuation of Williams'. Following Martin's death in 1941, James Edward Gerald served as acting dean of the School of Journalism for the 1941-1942 academic year.

In 1942, Frank Luther Mott was named dean of the School of Journalism. Mott was the first dean to come from outside of the existing faculty. Mott was the son of a newspaper publisher and spent most of his time in his father's newsrooms as a child.⁸⁸ Mott received his bachelor's and master's degrees from the University of Chicago and his Ph.D. from Columbia University. While at Columbia, he taught at Simpson College and at the State University of Iowa. Frank Mott became director School of Journalism there in 1921 and held the position for 20 years. In 1939, Mott received a Pulitzer Prize for volumes two and three of his five-volume *History of American Magazines*. Mott published his *American Journalism: A History of Newspapers in the United States Through 250 Years, 1690-1940* in 1941, which remained a leading textbook in journalism education for many years.⁸⁹

⁸⁵ Miller, "Walter Williams."

⁸⁶ Farrar, *A Creed for My Profession*, 171.

⁸⁷ Betty Houchin Winfield, Chapter 1 to *Journalism, 1908: Birth of a Profession*, 17-31. Edited by Betty Houchin Winfield. Columbia, MO: University of Missouri Press, 2008): 21.

⁸⁸ John D. Buenker, "Mott, Frank Luther," *The Biographical Dictionary of Iowa*, (University of Iowa Press, 2009) Accessed February 21, 2018,

<uiopress.lib.uiowa.edu/bdi/DetailsPage.aspx?id=279>.

⁸⁹ Ibid.

While dean at MU's School of Journalism, Mott was faced with many challenges due to World War II. By January of 1945, eight of the Journalism School's faculty had taken leaves of absence to assist in war efforts.⁹⁰ Mott also participated in World War II efforts teaching journalism courses to military personnel at the army school in Biarritz, France and in Shrivenham, England.⁹¹ Following his teaching at the army school, Mott served as a consultant to the Press and Publications Department of the Civil Information and Education Division of the Supreme Command, Allies of the Pacific in 1947 in Japan. Mott described the state of the School of Journalism during the war in his memoir.

The war and its aftermath brought startling changes in our courses and requirements, in our student body, and in the atmosphere of the school. We had to shift quickly to an accelerated curriculum to enable boys going into the service to finish, whenever possible, before the army called them. And then suddenly we found our classes made up of more than three-fourths girls, instead of the customary one-fourth... But as soon as the war was over, the men came flooding in, hundreds upon hundreds of them, eager and in a hurry to make up for lost time, waving the GI Bill of Rights in their hands. Our two modest buildings and our struggling laboratories were crammed to their limits and past... These were busy, harried moths when we were doing the best we could for twice as many students as we had facilities for.⁹²

Also, during Mott's deanship, the accreditation of journalism programs became common. MU was a part of the American Association of Schools and Departments of Journalism (AASDJ) and was accredited within two years of the formation of the American Council on Education for Journalism (ACEJ). In 1948, the School of Journalism had six accredited sequences, which was more than any other journalism program.⁹³ Key to the formation of accreditation standards was Mott's successor, Earl English.

⁹⁰ Weinberg, *A Journalism of Humanity*, 62.

⁹¹ *Ibid.*, 63.

⁹² Frank Luther Mott (As quoted in) Weinberg, *A Journalism of Humanity*, 61-62.

⁹³ Weinberg, *A Journalism of Humanity*, 79.

English received his bachelor's degree from Western Michigan University. After receiving his degree, English taught journalism in public school for seven years. He then earned his master's degree and Ph.D. from the University of Iowa, while teaching courses from 1937 to 1945.⁹⁴ In 1945, Earl English followed Frank Mott to the University of Missouri when he became dean of the school. In 1946, English served as the executive secretary of the ACEJ. While serving the ACEJ, English built the system of accreditation that all journalism programs would be subjected to, the basis of which is still used today.

Earl English succeeded Frank Mott as dean in 1951. English was well known and well thought of in journalism's academic circles, as well as, the states' newspaper industry with newspaper publishers and editors. English was known as a professor of semantics and was called upon to discuss the word usage in communication.⁹⁵ English is quoted in Steve Weinberg's history of the School of Journalism saying, "[administrators] should teach in the classroom, if at all possible, in order to keep in touch with faculty-student problems."⁹⁶ Faculty and students knew Dean English as fair and attentive to personal situations and problems.⁹⁷

English, though well known for his scholarly work and unprecedented influence on accreditation standards for journalism education, still maintained the School of Journalism's key principles found in the "Missouri Method." English continued the school's hands-on approach to learning and sought to give students access to new technologies such as television. English played a key role in the establishment of a television station on campus. While it seemed other Journalism School faculty were uninterested in the opportunities of establishing a television

⁹⁴ Ibid., 142-144.

⁹⁵ Ibid.

⁹⁶ Ibid.

⁹⁷ Ibid., 145-146.

station on campus, English made it his personal mission to do just that, reaching out to Allen B. DuMont, founder of the first television programming network, and Chester Burger, assistant news editor at CBS Television Station in New York City.⁹⁸

In 1970, Earl English retired from his position as dean. Steve Weinberg described Earl in his history of the school saying, “he was a vigorous sixty-five and would live another thirty years, but the University of Missouri regulations mandated retirement.”⁹⁹ From 1970 to 1971, longtime advertising professor and associate dean of the School of Journalism, Milton Gross, served as Acting Dean of the School of Journalism. Frank Mott hired Gross in 1942 though he had no doctorate degree.¹⁰⁰ Gross was an alumnus of the School of Journalism and had taught in the Department of Journalism and Publicity at the University of Texas in El Paso.

In 1971, Roy M. Fisher was named dean of MU’s School of Journalism. Fisher received his undergraduate degree from Kansas State University in 1940. Following his graduation, Fisher worked for newspapers in Kansas and Nebraska before serving in World War II. After returning from the war, Fisher began working for the *Chicago Daily News* in 1945 as a reporter, then editor. In 1959, Fisher became the editorial director for the *World Book Encyclopedia* publishing company, which was owned by the same family that owned the *Daily News*. After working at the publishing company for six years, Fisher returned to the *Daily News* as editor-in-chief. With only an undergraduate degree and a one-year stint at Harvard University as a Nieman Fellow, Fisher’s name was on the short list of deans for Missouri’s School of Journalism.

In 1971, Fisher was appointed as dean of the school. Although Fisher’s lack of a Ph.D. was criticized by some, other’s approved of his extensive newspaper and publishing

⁹⁸ Weinberg, *A Journalism of Humanity*, 99-100.

⁹⁹ *Ibid.*, 158-159.

¹⁰⁰ *Ibid.*, 156-158.

experience.¹⁰¹ Showing his commitment to the advancement of graduate programs at MU's School of Journalism, Fisher appointed professor William Taft as the School's first associate dean for graduate programs and research.¹⁰² Along with this appointment, Fisher continued to raise academic standards and requirements for the school's graduate students. Fisher was also responsible for the fundraising for and construction of Gannett Hall, an attachment to Neff Hall, which would house the university's broadcasting facilities. Fisher described Gannett Hall as the "scientific machine with electronic marvels of modern education and modern broadcast communications – the most sophisticated film, videotape and sound equipment, new concepts of lecture hall construction."¹⁰³

Although Fisher made many contributions to the School of Journalism in his eleven years as dean, his time was marked with several upsets among faculty and university administration. During a visit by the ACEJ accrediting committee in the 1980s, the advertising curriculum was only given a probationary accreditation. Though Fisher rectified some of the problems within the advertising department, including the hiring of faculty members, and the program received full accreditation the next year, the damage to faculty morale was done.¹⁰⁴ Despite Fisher's seeming inadequacy in some areas of the school's administration, faculty in the advertising and public relations departments promoted the "Missouri Method" even further in their departments with campaigns courses that implemented real-world practice with brands like Duncan Hines, the Missouri Lottery, and Nokia.¹⁰⁵

¹⁰¹ Ibid., 160-161.

¹⁰² Ibid.

¹⁰³ Ibid.

¹⁰⁴ Weinberg, *A Journalism of Humanity*, 162-163.

¹⁰⁵ Ibid., 163-165.

In 1982, Fisher stepped down from the deanship position and was replaced by Interim Dean Elmer Lower for the 1982-1983 academic year. Lower, who had received his bachelor's degree from the University of Missouri in 1933, was a photojournalist for many years working for several newspapers and eventually *Life* magazine.¹⁰⁶ Lower also served as ABC News president from 1963 to 1974. As president, Lower grew the news division from 250 employees to 750, expanded the evening broadcast from a 15-minute segment to a 30-minute segment, and was responsible for the hiring of Peter Jennings, Ted Koppel, Frank Reynolds, and Sam Donaldson.¹⁰⁷ In 1978 Lower began teaching broadcasting courses each fall semester.

During Lower's one-year term as dean, a search for the new dean led to the hiring of James D. Atwater in 1983. Atwater received his bachelor's degree from Yale University in 1950 and in 1953 went to work at *Time* magazine as an editorial trainee.¹⁰⁸ Atwater wrote for the *Evening Saturday Post*, *Sports Illustrated*, *Esquire*, *Smithsonian*, and *Reader's Digest*.¹⁰⁹ Atwater also worked on drug information programs in the Richard Nixon White House. Similar to Fisher, Atwater assumed the deanship with some criticism for his lack of graduate academic experience.¹¹⁰ Atwater's appointment in 1983 also happened to coincide with the schools seventy-fifth anniversary celebration. During his six years as dean, Atwater was faced with many challenges, including openly critical alumni, unhappy faculty, a lack of proper funding, and serious health problems.¹¹¹ Atwater did however find success in the hiring of multiple faculty

¹⁰⁶ "Elmer Lower," *The Washington Post*, Published July 28, 2011, Accessed February 22, 2018, <www.washingtonpost.com/local/obituaries/of-note-elmer-lower-joe-arroyo-gilbert-maguljan/2011/07/27/g1QAelwefl_story.htm?utm_term=.f2c7d8035d8e>.

¹⁰⁷ Ibid.

¹⁰⁸ "James Atwater, Journalist and Dean, 67," *The New York Times*, (March 11, 1996) Accessed February 22, 2018, <www.nytimes.com/1996/03/11/us/james-atwater-journalist-dean-67.html>.

¹⁰⁹ Weinberg, *A Journalism of Humanity*, 166-167.

¹¹⁰ Ibid.

¹¹¹ Ibid., 168-172.

members with Ph.Ds. and professional experience. After facing faculty criticism for multiple years, Atwater stepped down from the dean position in 1989 and remained on staff as a well-admired writing professor.¹¹²

Rilla Dean Mills' (widely known as Dean Mills) name was at the top of the list of candidates for the dean position in 1989. Mills was offered and accepted the position that he would remain in for 24 years, just a few years shy of Walter Williams. Mills received his bachelor's degree in 1965 from the University of Iowa and his master's degree in 1967 from the University of Michigan. Following his graduation, Mills was a journalist at the *Baltimore Sun* first covering Baltimore County politics, then the Moscow bureau, and finally the Washington bureau.¹¹³ During his time at the Washington bureau, Mills covered high profile events, such as the Watergate scandal, the resignation of Vice President Spiro T. Agnew, and the Roe vs. Wade Supreme Court decision.¹¹⁴ Dean Mills began his academic career as a lecturer at the University of Mississippi in 1976. Mills then taught at the University of Illinois while pursuing his doctorate degree, which he received in 1981. Mills also taught at California State University – Fullerton for four years before accepting director position at Pennsylvania State University School of Journalism in 1983. After three years as director at Pennsylvania State, Mills returned to Fullerton as a professor and coordinator of graduate studies.

Dean Mills' entrance to the School of Journalism was not received well by all faculty members. Some faculty members were convinced that Edmund Lambeth, associate dean for the graduate studies and research at MU, should have been appointed. Although Steve Weinberg,

¹¹² Ibid., 172-174.

¹¹³ Ibid., 222-223.

¹¹⁴ "Dean Mills," School of Journalism: University of Missouri, Accessed February 22, 2018 <www.journalism.missouri.edu/staff/dean-mills/>.

director of Investigative Reporters and Editors 1983 to 1990 said the appointment, “ripped the school apart,”¹¹⁵ after 25 years as dean, Mills undeniably left the school as prominent as it was in its infancy in 1908.

In Mills’ first few years as dean, he hired multiple women and minority faculty members with doctorate degrees and strength in academic research for leadership positions.¹¹⁶ This dramatically changed the dynamic of existing faculty, which had been mostly males with more professional experience than academic. Mills also revitalized overseas opportunities for students through study abroad programs and faculty teaching opportunities.¹¹⁷ The School of Journalism’s international presence grew even larger in 1999, when Mills secured the move of the International Press Institute magazine *IPI Report*, later renamed *Global Journalist*, to Columbia, Missouri.

In terms of curriculum, Mills led the School of Journalism into the 21st century introducing computers for newspaper production, the Internet for dissemination and news-gathering, photo and video editing software and course topics like cross-cultural journalism, convergence, and multimedia journalism. With these advances came more financial struggle, and Mills was tasked with finding the budget to update and maintain new equipment. Mills hired tech-savvy faculty to teach and support the technological advances. One of Mills’ hires, Clyde Bentley, would play a major role in the creation of MyMissourian.com.¹¹⁸ Mills, understanding the tides of media, pushed all students to become efficient in convergence. Although Mills made

¹¹⁵ Steve Weinberg (As quoted in) Molly Duffy, “Dean Mills: A Lifetime in Journalism, a Legacy as School of Journalism Dean,” *Columbia Missourian* Published May 20, 2015, <www.journalism.missouri.edu/2015/05/dean-mills-a-lifetime-in-journalism-a-legacy-as-school-of-journalism-dean/>.

¹¹⁶ Duffy, “Dean Mills.”

¹¹⁷ Weinberg, *A Journalism of Humanity*, 230-231.

¹¹⁸ *Ibid.*, 238-239.

many changes in the school of journalism, he remained true to the school founder Walter Williams' beliefs in laboratory learning environments and the "Missouri Method." Mills continued to advocate for university funding and support for the *Columbia Missourian*.

Mills also became known for his success in raising funds for the School of Journalism. In his tenure as dean, Mills helped raise over \$200 million, which is seven times more than all of the journalism deans before him had raised combined.¹¹⁹ As part of his fund-raising efforts, Mills grew the fund-raising staff to include three full-time field professionals and one office assistant.¹²⁰ The largest of contributions made to the school was that of the Reynolds Foundation. In total to date the Reynolds Foundation has gifted the school with over \$100 million, leading to the establishment of the Donald J. Reynolds Journalism Institute, which houses resources to "test and demonstrate new technologies, experiment with new approaches to producing, designing and delivering news, information and advertising, and to host conferences that can be live-steamed around the world."¹²¹ Dean Mills remained active in the administration of RJI during the remainder of his tenure, even taking a leave of absence from the deanship in 2007 to focus more on the institute.

Louisiana State University Journalism Program Leadership: 1910 – 2010

Table 11 represents the leaders of the Journalism Program at Louisiana State University, the position the leaders held, the unit the position was held in, the year they were appointed, the year they retired from the position, and the total number of years they served in the position.

¹¹⁹ Duffy, "Dean Mills."

¹²⁰ Weinberg, *A Journalism of Humanity*, 252-253.

¹²¹ "About RJI," Reynolds Journalism Institute, Accessed on February 22, 2018, <www.rjionline.org/about>.

Table 11. Leadership in Journalism at LSU 1910-2010

NAME	POSITION	UNIT	BEGIN	END	NO. OF YEARS
Hugh Blain	Professor	ENG Dept. (A/S)*	1912	1920	8
Marvin Osborn	Chairman	JRN Dept. (A/S)	1920	1931	11
	Director	School of JRN (A/S)	1931	1955	24
A.O. Goldsmith	Interim Director	School of JRN (A/S)	1955	1956	1
Frank J. Price	Director	School of JRN (A/S)	1956	1969	13
A.O. Goldsmith	Director	School of JRN (A/S)	1969	1975	6
Ronald Hicks	Director	School of JRN (A/S)	1975	1980	5
John Merrill	Director	School of JRN (A/S)	1980	1983	3
William Click	Director	School of JRN (A/S)	1983	1987	4
William E. Giles	Director	School of JRN (A/S)	1987	1991	4
Louis Day	Interim Director	School of JRN (A/S)	1991	1992	1
Jack Hamilton	Director	School of JRN (A/S)	1992	1994	2
	Dean	School of JRN**	1994	2010	16

*Within the College of Arts & Sciences

** Freestanding School of Journalism, renamed Manship School of Mass Communication in 1994

The journalism department at LSU began, as many others have, in the English Department with the instruction of “Advanced Composition: The Newspaper” taught by Hugh Blain in the 1912-1913 academic year.¹²² Blain, while never an official department chair, can be considered the first leader in LSU’s journalism program. Blain received his bachelor’s and master’s degrees from Washington and Lee University and shortly after began working in LSU’s English department. Blain’s journalistic teaching was first manifested in his role as faculty advisor to *The Reveille*, LSU’s student newspaper.¹²³ Blain was known for producing excellent quality of writing in the students he mentored. “More than anything,” noted author of *The Manship School: A History of Journalism Education at LSU* Ronald Garay, “[Blain] seemed a man on a mission, and he was intent on building a journalism curriculum that would be recognized for excellence.”¹²⁴ Blain utilized local newspapers as classrooms for his students and

¹²² *LSU General Catalog, 1912-1913*, (Baton Rouge, LA: Louisiana State University Press, 1912).

¹²³ Ronald Garay, *The Manship School: A History of Journalism Education at LSU* (Baton Rouge, LA: Louisiana State University Press, 2009), 28.

¹²⁴ *Ibid.*, 31.

created internship opportunities by building relationships with publishers like Charles Manship, which proved vital to the growth of the program for years to come. Blain's influence also reached outside the LSU grounds. He was elected the secretary-treasurer of the American Association of Teachers of Journalism (AATJ) in 1914. In his role as secretary-treasurer, Blain created the *News-Letter*, a monthly publication of news in journalism education. Blain continued to be the voice of the *News-Letter* until his term was up in 1916. The *News-Letter*, created by Blain, is known today as *Journalism and Mass Communication Quarterly*.

In 1920 Marvin G. Osborn became the program's first chairman, a position that he was promoted in until his retirement in 1955. Garay notes in his history of the school:

Hugh Blain may have created the LSU Department of Journalism but Marvin Osborn would carry that creation to its next plateau. In the thirty-five years he served as director of what would eventually become the LSU School of Journalism, Osborn would carry the School to a level of excellence on par with any other college journalism program in the nation and certainly unequaled by any other such program in the South.¹²⁵

Osborn received both his bachelor's and master's degrees from LSU and worked as a campus correspondent for multiple newspapers. Osborn also assisted in the initial set up of LSU's Agricultural Extension Division, which became the Bureau of Public Relations.

Marvin Osborn led LSU's journalism program to many important accomplishments in his 35 years. In the years closely following Osborn's appointment as chairman, the LSU Department of Journalism began to offer a bachelor's degree in journalism education.¹²⁶ In 1927 the department was one of the first of its kind to become accredited and in 1931 was elevated from the Department of Journalism to the School of Journalism within the College of Arts and

¹²⁵ Ibid., 59.

¹²⁶ Garay, *The Manship School*, 61.

Sciences.¹²⁷ With this change, Osborn was promoted from chairman to director.¹²⁸ In the following 24 years of his leadership, Osborn repeatedly and fiercely campaigned for the journalism school's autonomy from the College of Arts and Sciences. Osborn's first proposal appeared in a memo, most likely addressed to the Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences or the LSU President, in 1937.¹²⁹ Although Osborn's requests were not immediately met with rejections, time and circumstance did not favor the move, as the school saw several changes in administration and the country's mind focused on World War II. In his history of the school, Ronald Garay concludes, "It well could have been that Marvin Osborn realized enough about the inclinations of each of these presidents not to bother taking the autonomy issue to any of them."¹³⁰

Marvin Osborn's contributions to the School of Journalism in his 35 years as chairman and director are very evident in the foundation of curriculum. Many of the courses that were added in the first 10 years of Osborn's leadership are still staple courses in the program today. Osborn and the faculty he established created courses with forethought to the shape that the journalism industry would take in the following decades. Courses in law, public opinion and problems in journalism would take students past skill-based learning into the beginnings of early mass communication theories and ethical considerations. Osborn also continued and grew the relationships Hugh Blain had created with the surrounding newspapers and publishers like Charles Manship. In April of 1922, selected students from the Department of Journalism replaced staff at the Baton Rouge *State-Times* and published the entire issue themselves with

¹²⁷ "History of Manship," Louisiana State University, Accessed January 4, 2018, <<http://www.lsu.edu/manship/about/overview/history.php>>.

¹²⁸ Garay, *The Manship School*, 61.

¹²⁹ *Ibid.*, 101.

¹³⁰ *Ibid.*, 123.

Marvin Osborn as acting manager. The issue was a huge success and led to several opportunities for the students at other publications such as the *Morning Advocate* and the *State-Times*.¹³¹

These arrangements foreshadow a long and mutually-beneficial relationship between the School of Journalism and local newspapers.

Marvin Osborn also followed his predecessor's footsteps with his involvement in the American Association of Teachers in Journalism (AATJ). He was elected the AATJ's vice president in 1925 and president in 1926. In 1926 Osborn shed light on some of his views about the difficulties of directing a school of journalism at the AATJ Convention.

[T]here is a real danger in getting too far away from the practicalities in the teaching of any technical subject, and it doesn't take a discerning editor very long to sense this, specially as he is likely to be looking for it. To avoid such a danger a constant conscious endeavor should be made by the department to "keep its feet on the ground" by constantly testing against the practicalities its methods and ideas. These ideals in journalism, as we all know, constantly tend to take wings and soar so far above the practical things that our graduates upon trying to put into practice theories thus gained are likely to find themselves misfits and unable to hold their positions in the newspaper office long enough even to begin to make their good influences felt. While if they knew more about newspaper practices as they are, the students would be better able to fit into the scheme of things, and finally have the opportunity to put into successful practice the sound theories they have learned in the classroom.¹³²

In these comments, Marvin Osborn illuminates the skill vs. theory discussion as it related in the 1920s when journalism programs were just beginning to pick up steam in academia.

Osborn notes that without skill-based learning, graduates would be unable to hold their jobs long enough to make use of the theory-based learning. Osborn, in the same speech, stressed the importance of journalism departments maintaining good relationships with local editors to expand the skill-based learning by having professionals come into classrooms to lecture and

¹³¹ Ibid., 66-67.

¹³² Marvin G. Osborn, "Administrative Problems," *Journalism Bulletin* 2 no. 4 (1926): 17-20.

taking students to newspaper plants. He noted that these types of good relationships would likely ensure that graduates have jobs when they completed their degrees.

After only seven years in his leadership position, Marvin Osborn saw the Department of Journalism receive a Class A of Schools and Departments of Journalism (AASDJ), a high merit which was only given to 20 of the approximately 250 programs offering journalism courses at the time.¹³³ Osborn continued to lead the program to new heights of excellence until his retirement in 1955. No other director has come close to the 35 years that Marvin Osborn served as director. He put the school on a trajectory that if followed would have certainly made it one of the top in the country.

In 1956, Frank (“Jim”) Price assumed the director position, after a one-year term by Adolph (“A. O.”) Goldsmith. Price is the third-longest running director of the school, holding the position for 13 years. He was the first director to assume the position with a Ph.D. Price received his bachelor’s degree from Louisiana Tech, his master’s degree from LSU and his Ph.D. from the University of Iowa. Before coming to LSU Jim Price was a reporter and editorial writer at the Baton Rouge *State Times* and *Morning Advocate*.¹³⁴ Price began his teaching career at LSU in 1942 as a teaching assistant but quickly was elevated to instructor, then to assistant professor. Price taught at LSU 16 years before becoming director and rejoined the faculty for seven years following 13 years as director, for a total of 34 years in the School of Journalism. During Price’s directorship LSU’s courses were designed to cope with advances in broadcast journalism in radio and television. Price also recruited Elsie Herbert, one of his former students with professional advertising experience, to the faculty to teach advertising courses.¹³⁵

¹³³ Garay, *The Manship School*, 71.

¹³⁴ *Ibid.*, 138.

¹³⁵ *Ibid.*, 134.

Following Jim Price's resignation in 1969, A.O. Goldsmith was named director of the School of Journalism. Goldsmith worked for the *Dunklin Democrat* eleven years as a printer, editorial writer and columnist, and then worked as a linotype operator for the *Arkansas Democrat*.¹³⁶ Following three years of military service during World War II, Goldsmith began studying for his undergraduate degree at LSU. He received his bachelor's and master's degrees from LSU in 1949 and 1951 respectively. During this time Goldsmith worked for the *Morning Advocate*, the *Daily Reveille*, the LSU printing plant, and the University Press.¹³⁷ Goldsmith earned his Ph.D. from the University of Iowa in 1967, two years before he would take the directorship position at the School of Journalism at LSU. Goldsmith served as director of the school for six years (not including his one year as interim director prior to Jim Price). Goldsmith was one of the first to suggest that the school develop a Ph.D. program in collaboration with the English or History departments. As Ronald Garay notes in his history of the school, "The idea for an interdepartmental doctorate program had little traction from the start, so the Ph.D. program would have to wait for more than a quarter century. But give A. O. Goldsmith credit for looking into the future."¹³⁸

During his directorship A.O. Goldsmith promoted ideas that the core of courses for journalism students should be skill-based where the student learns basic principles of newsgathering, analyzing and writing, an idea that at the time was not shared by all journalism educators.¹³⁹ Competing ideas of journalism offered by educators such as Theodore Peterson co-author of *Four Theories of the Press*, suggested that journalism education should include more

¹³⁶ "Dr. A.O. Goldsmith, journalist, educator, dies at 97," *Delta Dunklin Democrat*, December 27, 2005, < <http://www.dddnews.com/story/1133015.html>>.

¹³⁷ Ibid.

¹³⁸ Garay, *The Manship School*, 138.

¹³⁹ Ibid., 154.

theory-based components.¹⁴⁰ Whether altered by Peterson’s ideas or following the natural tides of journalism education, the School of Journalism did see an increase of theory-based courses from 1960 to 1980.

Following Goldsmith’s departure from the directorship in 1975, Ronald (“Ron”) Hicks took up the position. Hicks, like his predecessors, was an LSU graduate. Ron Hicks joined the Journalism School faculty in 1963 and served there for twelve years while also serving as manager for the Louisiana Press Association (LPA).¹⁴¹ During his time as director, Hicks handled budget restraints with unprecedented volumes of students and new technologies, while also assuring that the school met accreditation standards. Hicks also established the School of Journalism Hall of Fame in his first year as director, which would celebrate the successes of the school’s alumni and contributors.¹⁴²

When Hicks stepped down from the director position in 1980, the School of Journalism entered into what Ronald Garay titles the “Uncertain Times.”¹⁴³ From 1980 to 1992 the school directorship would change hands five times passing from Hicks to John Merrill (1980-1983), to John William (“Bill”) Click (1983-1987), to William E. Giles (1987-1991), to Louis (“Lou”) Day (1991-1992), and finally to John Maxwell (“Jack”) Hamilton (1992-2010). In 1980, John Merrill’s aggressively blunt nature shook the halls of the Journalism School. Merrill’s opinion of the school was that it was mediocre at best. In short, “It was a program that needed fixing, and he was the fixer.”¹⁴⁴ As a man of great academic and professional experience Merrill quickly put into action his plans to raise the academic status of the School. Autonomy from the College of

¹⁴⁰Siebert, et al., *Four Theories of the Press*.

¹⁴¹ Garay, *The Manship School*, 138.

¹⁴² *Ibid.*, 152.

¹⁴³ *Ibid.*, 162.

¹⁴⁴ *Ibid.*, 163.

Arts and Sciences was one goal that John Merrill never reached, though he did keep the program out of a merger with the Speech Department, which Dean Henry Snyder was pushing at the time.¹⁴⁵ Also during this time the broadcast production program from the speech department was moved to the Journalism program, which laid a foundation for the Journalism program to advance its focus on electronic new production.¹⁴⁶ Merrill can also be credited for bringing more diverse faculty into the School of Journalism, including faculty with backgrounds in many areas of mass communication, with academic backgrounds outside of LSU, and with professional and scholarly experience. One of Merrill's biggest contributions, however, came after he stepped down from the directorship position. Merrill, along with Dean Snyder, had set into motion a multimillion-dollar grant from the Manship family of Baton Rouge. Following this grant, Merrill proposed the school's name be changed to the Manship School of Mass Communication. Following his resignation, Merrill left the academic world and the Manship School with these sentiments:

Every faculty member, to deserve his or her place in the university community, should recognize that the journalism school is not a trade school and that "journalism education" is not "journalism training." To deserve a place on a university campus, a school like the journalism school should be a part of the scholarly community and should win and keep the respect of faculty members in other university departments.¹⁴⁷

Following Merrill's resignation in 1983, John William ("Bill") Click was appointed director of what would soon be known as the Manship School of Journalism. In October of 1984, the Manship School faculty along with director Bill Click, developed a Five-Year Plan. The plan included many goals, chief of which was maintaining the school's accreditation. In November of

¹⁴⁵ Ibid., 164.

¹⁴⁶ Correspondence with Alumni Professor Louis Day, March 22, 2018.

¹⁴⁷ John Merrill (As quoted in) Garay, *The Manship School*, 171.

1984, this goal would be tested when Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (ACEJMC) would visit the school. The results of this visit were mostly positive. With additional advertising faculty hired, the Manship School was fully accredited in May of 1986.¹⁴⁸ Bill Click also saw success in acquiring the use of Hodges Hall, located next to the journalism building, to house *The Daily Reveille*, the *Gumbo* (student yearbook), and KLSU (student radio station).¹⁴⁹ Click resigned as director unexpectedly in June of 1987 to return to full-time teaching.

William (“Bill”) Giles, who was already serving as the Manship Chair, was selected to fill the vacated position. Giles had an extensive professional and academic background, having worked at *The Wall Street Journal*, *The National Observer*, *The Detroit News*, *The Singapore Monitor*, and the Dow Jones publishing company and having been on faculty at Baylor and Michigan State universities. Upon Giles’s appointment, one of his first concerns was the preparation for another visit by the ACEJMC accreditation committee in the fall of 1989. Though the accreditation seemed to be assured with the Manship School’s recent successes, Giles and the faculty still sought a higher distinction: autonomy from the College of Arts and Sciences. In 1988 the faculty once again voted in favor of this autonomy.¹⁵⁰ The accreditation council, however, did not agree with the faculty’s opinion that the school would have better successes on its own. At the end of a positive site visit in 1990, the ACEJMC accreditation council recommended the full reaccreditation of the Manship School, also noting that the school had room for growth within the College of Arts and Sciences.¹⁵¹ This, understandably, did not sit

¹⁴⁸ Garay, *The Manship School*, 177.

¹⁴⁹ *Ibid.*, 179.

¹⁵⁰ *Ibid.*, 185.

¹⁵¹ *Ibid.*, 184.

well with Giles, who stepped down from the directorship position in 1991. As a result of this resignation and contention among the professional and academic faculty, the ACEJMC gave the Manship School a provisional accreditation in 1991. This was a blow to the morale of the School, as Chancellor Davis set about a Fact-finding committee to determine what problems faced the school and what solutions might be employed.¹⁵²

Luckily for the Manship School, Louis (“Lou”) Day was appointed as interim director. Lou Day “was a full professor, and, thus, a senior member of the faculty. He had maximum credibility among his colleagues. He was a teacher and scholar first and foremost and harbored no ambition whatsoever to become full-time director. Most important, though, Day had the demeanor that fit the School’s needs at the moment.”¹⁵³ In Day’s year as director he stabilized many of the problems Davis’s committee found and brought the faculty into a sense of community that would be primed for the changes that would soon come.

In 1992 John Maxwell (“Jack”) Hamilton began what was to be the second-longest term of leadership in the Manship School. Hamilton came to the Manship School as a long-time journalist and public servant. He began his career at the *Milwaukee Journal* while attending Marquette University. He then worked as a freelance journalist in the United States and abroad for news organizations including the *Christian Science Monitor* and ABC Radio and was a commentator for the MarketPlace national radiobroadcast. Hamilton also served on the U.S. House Foreign Affairs Subcommittee on Economic Policy and Trade, the U.S. Agency for International Development during the Carter Administration, and at the World Bank in Washington D.C. His experience in academia was somewhat limited, however, having only

¹⁵² Ibid., 188.

¹⁵³ Ibid., 188.

taught as an adjunct professor at American University, and for a short time, as a visiting professor at Northwestern University's School of Journalism. This lack of academic experience proved to be of no consequence however. After accepting the director position in late 1991, which he would officially take in June of 1992, Jack Hamilton became very involved in learning all he could about the Manship School and LSU as a whole. Hamilton's head start in leadership paid off in a major way. In a letter addressed to the ACEJMC President John M. Lavine, Hamilton gave his evaluation of the Manship School and his intentions for improvements.¹⁵⁴ In response to this letter and the impression Hamilton left on the Committee, the Manship School was given full accreditation by the ACEJMC.¹⁵⁵

Although Jack Hamilton entered the Manship School in 1992 with no experience as a university administrator, his view of the mass communication and business savvy mind would change the course of the School in a way no other director had.

Jack Hamilton would be a very different kind of leader than any of his predecessors. In so many ways he was of a newer generation. He viewed journalism from the perspective of a successful scholar and media practitioner, but he also possessed organizational skills learned in the business world. Above all, Jack Hamilton loved the clarity of purpose that planning – practical, aggressive, and effective planning – provided. And his lead-by-example nature would fashion an effective consensus-building management style.¹⁵⁶

In his first four months as director, Jack Hamilton successfully lobbied the School's official name change to the Manship School of Mass Communication and degree name changes to the Bachelor of Arts in Mass Communication and Master of Mass Communication. Next, he turned his attention to the immediate future with the formation of the Manship School's Five-Year Plan for Excellence; and an excellent five years it was. At the top of the plan's objectives

¹⁵⁴ Ibid., 190.

¹⁵⁵ Ibid., 190.

¹⁵⁶ Ibid., 192.

was the School's long sought-after autonomy from the College of Arts and Sciences. Despite serious budget-cuts across LSU, and the expenses associated with creation of a new independent college, Hamilton was able to get Chancellor William ("Bud") Davis's approval for the School's autonomy. After almost 50 years since Marvin Osborn first requested the school's autonomy, the Manship School of Mass Communication would be a freestanding school within LSU on July 1, 1994. With the School's autonomy granted, Jack Hamilton became the first dean of the Manship School two years after his appointment as director.

In the new dean's next years, the Manship School would continue pursuing the objectives set in place in the Five-Year Plan. One of these objectives was an overhaul of the School's curriculum. A common core of six courses were introduced to all students: "Media Writing," "Visual Communication," "Foundations of Advertising and Public Relations," "Foundations of Media Research," "Mass Media Law," and Media Ethics and Social Responsibility."¹⁵⁷ Other courses were categorized into concentrations, such as "Advertising," "Journalism," and the newly established concentrations, "Public Relations," and "Political Communications."¹⁵⁸ This curriculum overhaul also introduced the idea of convergence (the use of multiple technologies in the newsgathering process). Jack Hamilton also set to work to raise funds for the school to permit the purchase of new equipment and teaching materials need for the new curriculum. In an interview with author Ronald Garay, Hamilton said, "I had a choice. I could sit there and complain... Or I could go out and raise the money... So I worked like crazy to raise the money."¹⁵⁹ Hamilton's hard work paid off in 1997, when the Manship School was again awarded

¹⁵⁷ *LSU General Catalog, 2000-2001*, (Baton Rouge, LA: Louisiana State University Press, 2001).

¹⁵⁸ *Ibid.*

¹⁵⁹ John Maxwell Hamilton (As quoted in) Garay, *The Manship School*, 201.

full accreditation by the ACEJMC committee. Closing out the Five-Year plan, there was no doubt that Hamilton's administration of the school was quickly turning things around, as each goal listed in the plan had either been met or was in the process of being met, including the creation of a doctoral program.¹⁶⁰

So, it seemed, it was time for a new plan. The Manship School's next plan developed under Hamilton's leadership was titled "Excellence in the Age of Information, A Strategic Plan: 1998-2003." The aims of this new plan were the "implementation of undergraduate admission standards, approval of the doctoral program, inauguration of a Center for Media and Public Affairs, completion of a new television studio, and renovation of Hodges Hall and the Journalism Building."¹⁶¹ Hamilton and the faculty wasted no time in implementing these standards. Undergraduate admission standards included completion of 30 semester hours of coursework, completion of "Media Writing," and at least a 3.00 grade point average.¹⁶² The School's doctoral program was also approved, and exceptional administrators, such as Ralph Izard and Margaret ("Peggy") DeFleur, were recruited to insure its success. In 1999, the Manship School saw another of the Five-Year Plan's aims met, when the Kevin P. Reilly, Sr. Center for Media and Public Affairs was approved, and funds raised to support the new endeavor. The renovations of Hodges Hall and the Journalism Building, beginning as the 1990s came to an end, meant that the Manship School had once again checked off each of the Five-Year Plan's aims under Hamilton's leadership. In 2003, Jack Hamilton's administrative successes were acknowledged when the Freedom Forum named him 2003 Administrator of the Year. In response to this honor, Hamilton shared these thoughts:

¹⁶⁰ Garay, *The Manship School*, 206.

¹⁶¹ *Ibid.*, 207.

¹⁶² *LSU General Catalog, 2000-2001*.

What is most meaningful is what the award says about our school. In the last decade faculty and staff, students, and senior administrators on campus – in league with alumni and others from business, government, and media – have reshaped and energized the Manship School... Deans can get in the way of the progress. But if progress is to be made, they must harness themselves to a wide collection of bright, energetic, committed colleagues inside and outside the university. These people must not only do the pulling, but also read the compass to set direction.¹⁶³

In the next year, LSU was once again faced with a visit from the ACEJMC accreditation committee. This visit took place in October of 2003, amidst renovations in the Journalism Building and Hodges Hall. The results of the visit left none questioning whether the School would again receive a full accreditation from the ACEJMC. For the next few years in the Manship School continued its course of excellence; a course, unknown to them, that would soon be tested by the most devastating natural disaster in American history, Hurricane Katrina.

On August 29, 2005, Hurricane Katrina devastated New Orleans and surrounding areas leading to a call for assistance answered by LSU. The Manship School, by prior arrangements made for such a situation, was inundated with nearly two hundred station employees from New Orleans television station WWL-TV.¹⁶⁴ After a call to Jack Hamilton from *Times-Picayune* editor Jim Amoss, the Journalism Building's first floor became the center of operation for the newspaper staff.¹⁶⁵ Manship faculty, staff and students proved their skill and dedication to the entire country in the following weeks with their quick reaction, selflessness and ability to house the production of these media outlets.

¹⁶³ John Maxwell Hamilton, "2003 Journalism Administrator of the Year Remarks," Accessed on January 4, 2018, <asjmc.org/publications/special_pubs/hamilton.php>.

¹⁶⁴ Garay, *The Manship School*, 224-225.

¹⁶⁵ *Ibid.*, 225.

University of North Carolina Journalism Program Leadership

Table 12 represents the leaders of the Journalism Program at the University of North Carolina, the position the leaders held, the unit the position was held in, the year they were appointed, the year they retired from the position, and the total number of years they served in the position.

Table 12. Leadership in Journalism at the UNC 1910-2010

NAME	POSITION	UNIT	BEGIN	END	NO. OF YEARS
Edward Kidder Graham	Dean	College of L.A.	1909	1913	4
	Head	ENG Dept.			
James Finch Royster	Professor	ENG Dept.	1913	1915	2
Richard Hurt Thornton	Professor	ENG Dept.	1915	1917	2
Edwin A. Greenlaw	Chairman	ENG Dept.	1917	1919	2
Clarence Addison Hibbard	Professor	ENG Dept.	1919	1921	2
Louis Graves	Professor of JRN	ENG Dept.	1921	1924	3
Gerald W. Johnson	Professor	JRN Dept.	1924	1926	2
O. J. Coffin	Professor	JRN Dept.	1926	1950	27
	Dean	School of JRN	1950	1953	
Norval Neil Luxon	Dean	School of JRN	1953	1964	11
Wayne A. Danielson	Dean	School of JRN	1964	1969	5
Jack Adams	Dean	School of JRN	1969	1979	10
Richard R. Cole	Dean	School of JRN	1979	2005	26
Tom Bowers	Interium Dean	School of JRN	2005	2006	1
Jean Folkerts	Dean	School of JRN	2006	2010	4

The first journalism class taught at UNC in 1909 was tucked away in the English Department of the College of Arts and Sciences.¹⁶⁶ Edward Kidder Graham, who had been the faculty editor of the *Tar Heel* student newspaper and dean of the College of Liberal Arts, taught the course.¹⁶⁷ Graham graduated from UNC, second in his class, in 1898 and became a part of the English Department faculty in 1902.¹⁶⁸ In 1903 Graham received his Masters of Arts degree

¹⁶⁶ *UNC General Catalog, 1909-1910* (Chapel Hill, NC: University of North Carolina Press, 1909), 47.

¹⁶⁷ Tom Bowers, *Making News: One Hundred Years of Journalism and Mass Communication at Carolina* (School of Journalism and Mass Communication of the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, 2009), 1.

¹⁶⁸ "Edward Kidder Graham Papers," UNC University Libraries, Accessed on February 14, 2018, <finding aids.lib.unc.edu/00282>.

in English from Columbia University, and was made a full professor in the UNC English Department in 1907.¹⁶⁹ Two years later, Graham was appointed head of the Department of English and dean of the College of Liberal Arts. Edward Graham satisfied the mounting call for journalism courses from students, especially those working on the *Tar Heel*. The following remarks made by Graham at the Journalists' Banquet in 1907 exemplify Graham's visionary mindset and wishes for prosperity in his students.

The beginning of journalism is just coming in the South. For rapid advancement and attainment of power and fame, no calling offers such opportunities as does journalism in this state. Prior to five years ago, there was no interest in college journalism, and the number is steadily growing. These men have seen the opportunity that college journalism work offers for preparing to make good in life and for developing individual culture.¹⁷⁰

Graham, a proven visionary, served as acting president of the university in 1913, and was named president one year later. Graham's years as president of the university were marked with an upswing in public opinion of the university achieved through the development of extension services (public services) to the surrounding communities and state, which were often promoted by the *Tar Heel*.¹⁷¹ In 1918 tragedy struck the university in the form of the Spanish influenza epidemic, which brought about the untimely death of UNC's beloved president, Edward Graham.

From Graham's appointment as acting president in 1913 to 1926, leadership in the journalism program changed hands seven times. English Professor James Finch Royster was the next to influence the journalism program. Royster began teaching journalism courses intermittently with Graham in 1910, before becoming the lead journalism professor in 1913. James Royster received his bachelor's degree from Wake Forest and his doctorate degree from

¹⁶⁹ Helen Dennis, "Graham, Edward," *Dictionary of North Carolina Biography* (University of North Carolina Press, 1996) <www.ncpedia.org/biography/graham-edward-kidder>.

¹⁷⁰ Edward Kidder Graham, (As quoted in) Bowers, *Making News*, 1.

¹⁷¹ Ibid.

the University of Chicago before joining the UNC English Department faculty in 1907.¹⁷²

Royster was known to take a practical approach in teaching journalism, taking students on field trips to the *News and Observer* and the *Daily Times*.¹⁷³

In 1915 Richard Hurt Thornton was hired as part of the English Department and began teaching primarily journalism courses. Following Thornton's hiring the journalism courses offered increased in the English Department increased to four. Over the next few years, Thornton made many significant advances in growing the journalism program at UNC. He spent time studying the successful journalism programs at the University of Wisconsin and the University of Missouri to get inspiration for UNC's program.¹⁷⁴ In 1916, Thornton began working with the North Carolina Press Association (NCPA) as well as the North Carolina Association of Afternoon Newspapers to develop the Newspaper Institute, a forum for the state's newspapers to discuss their difficulties and strategies for improvement.¹⁷⁵ Thornton was also instrumental in the formation of the North Carolina College Press Association and lobbied for students to receive course credit for work on college publications.¹⁷⁶

In 1917 Richard Thornton left the university to serve in the U.S. Navy, and as a result journalism courses were minimized from 1917-1919. Edwin A. Greenlaw, chairman of the Department of English, taught the few students that were enrolled in journalism courses during this time. In 1919, Greenlaw hired Clarence Addison Hibbard to teach three journalism courses. Hibbard taught for the next two years, revitalizing the North Carolina Student Press Association

¹⁷² Ibid., 11.

¹⁷³ Ibid., 12.

¹⁷⁴ Ibid., 14.

¹⁷⁵ Ibid., 15.

¹⁷⁶ Ibid., 17.

and encouraging students to create news that was vital for newspaper readers, such as stories about policy or human-interest stories.¹⁷⁷

Louis Graves was hired in 1921 as the head of the New Bureau and first official Professor of Journalism within the English Department. Graves was also the first journalism professor hired with substantial newspaper experience. Graves graduated from UNC in 1902 and went to work as a staff writer at the *New York Times* for three years. Following his employment at the *New York Times*, Graves worked for a public relations firm, and wrote free-lance articles.¹⁷⁸ Louis Graves also spent time working in government in New York city as part of the Mitchell-McAneny administration, assistant to the president of the Borough of Manhattan and the Board of Aldermen, and member of the Mayor's Committee on National Defense.¹⁷⁹ In 1917 Graves served as a captain in the U.S. Army, where a few years later his unpublished memoirs suggest he thought to return to Chapel Hill.¹⁸⁰ In 1921, Graves became the Professor of Journalism within the English Department and reworked the existing journalism curriculum into three courses: "News Writing," "News Writing and News Editing," and "News Writing, News Editing, Feature Writing."¹⁸¹ In Graves first year as a professor, he seemed to call on his newspaper experience, teaching practical application of writing and editing skills. Although, Graves influence on the school at first seemed promising with his years of experience, it soon became obvious that his focus was on the creation of his own newspaper the *Chapel Hill Weekly* instead of teaching journalism courses. By the 1923-1924 academic year, there were no journalism

¹⁷⁷ Ibid., 21.

¹⁷⁸ Martha B. Caldwell "Graves, Louis," *Dictionary of North Carolina Biography*, (University of North Carolina Press, 1986) <www.ncpedia.org/biography/graves-louis>.

¹⁷⁹ Ibid.

¹⁸⁰ Ibid.

¹⁸¹ *The University of North Carolina Catalog, 1921-1922* (Chapel Hill, NC: University of North Carolina Press, 1921): 266.

courses actively being taught, although students were working on the *Tar Heel* and writing for the News Bureau.¹⁸²

In 1924 three things happened to change the course of the journalism program. First, Louis Graves left the faculty to dedicate his energies to the *Chapel Hill Weekly*, the Department of Journalism was officially established within the College of Liberal Arts, and Gerald W. Johnson was hired as the department's first chairman. Johnson like his successor was a leader with newspaper experience. Johnson was a graduate of Wake Forest University (1911), had experience working for the *Dispatch* in Lexington N.C., and had started his own newspaper, the *Davidsonian*, in Thomasville N.C. Although Johnson only remained at the university for two years, he reinstated skill-based journalism courses, personally teaching two courses each semester.

In 1926 Oscar Jackson Coffin, known also as "O.J." or "Skipper", succeeded Johnson. Coffin, who is known as a legendary figure in the journalism program at UNC, is the longest running leader in the program's history. Coffin was chairman of the Department of Journalism for 24 years and dean of the School of Journalism for three years. Coffin's leadership at UNC has been recorded with great fondness by his students for his boisterous personality and lament from others for the stagnation of the program under his leadership. His influence on the program, good or bad or somewhere in between, left its mark on the school in more ways than one.

Coffin graduated from UNC in 1909. During his years of study at the university, Coffin had been a typesetter for the University Press and the editor of the *Tar Heel*. Following his graduation, Coffin worked for several North Carolina newspapers, including the *Courier* in Asheboro, the *Charlotte Observer*, and the *Raleigh Times* as editor. Coffin joined the faculty in

¹⁸² Bowers, *Making News*, 26.

1926 with no prior teaching experience. Coffin did not regard the term “journalist” with high esteem, preferring the term newspaperman. Coffin said, “A journalist is a man who comes into your office, claims to work on a newspaper in another town, and borrows five dollars from you. We train people to work on newspapers, not to be journalists.”¹⁸³ Coffin’s students quickly came to admire his charisma, casual manner, jovial attitude, and quick-witted corrections. Coffin’s classrooms resembled a newsroom more than the traditional academic atmosphere. Students learned basic skills, such as news writing, headline writing and copy reading, though Coffin’s students reminisce that normal academic standards were not necessarily applied to grading. Coffin was known for meeting students for a drink at the local bar *The Shack*, which his wife nicknamed “Skipper’s Iron Lung,” because it seemed he couldn’t live long away from the place.¹⁸⁴ This casual leadership style was also reflected in Coffin’s administrative decisions.

In his years as an administrator, Skipper Coffin faced many hurdles of happenstance, including very little funding for the program due to economic depression during wartime and influx of students in the years following World War II. Coffin unabashedly shared his disdain for administration duties, as well as the increasing of the program’s academic clout through involvement with educational associations, seeking accreditation for the program, or offering master’s or doctoral degrees within the program.¹⁸⁵ This attitude put Coffin at odds with university leaders, such as UNC president Frank Porter Graham, and alumni like Holt McPherson. McPherson, a graduate of the Department of Journalism become editor of the *High Point Enterprise*, became a significant influencer of change in the Department of Journalism.¹⁸⁶

¹⁸³ Skipper Coffin (as quoted in) Bowers, *Making News*, 38.

¹⁸⁴ Bowers, *Making News*, 42.

¹⁸⁵ *Ibid.*, 53-55.

¹⁸⁶ *Ibid.*, 63.

It seemed in Coffin's early administration years that the program would have no chance of being reviewed by an accrediting body. However, through the interference of McPherson and Graham, Coffin was forced to accept the inevitable in 1946, twenty years after his appointment as chairman, when McPherson and the North Carolina Press Association (NCPA) contacted university president Graham directly concerning the matter.¹⁸⁷ McPherson, in correspondence with President Graham, indicated that if UNC's journalism program did not become accredited he would begin supporting the accreditation of Duke University's program.¹⁸⁸ Soon after, Coffin took what seemed to be his first forced steps toward the program's accreditation. Coffin contacted executive secretary to the Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism (ACEJ) Earl English to request the questionnaire that all schools seeking accreditation were required to fill out.¹⁸⁹ While Coffin's actions began the accreditation process, his correspondences showed his disdain for the process and his belief that his program was accredited more through its alumni's success in finding employment after graduation than by the approval of an accrediting council.¹⁹⁰

Despite the efforts of McPherson and Graham, the journalism program failed to receive accreditation from the ACEJ committee in 1948. The rejection, though definitely a blow to the morale of the school's faculty and students, served as a catalyst for several changes within the program. Graham initiated the first of these changes in September of 1950, when he announced that the Department of Journalism would now become the School of Journalism, an autonomous unit within the university. With this change, Skipper Coffin became the school's first dean, a

¹⁸⁷ Ibid., 65.

¹⁸⁸ Ibid., 66.

¹⁸⁹ Ibid., 67.

¹⁹⁰ Ibid.

position that did not impress him anymore than chairman. “This is not much of a school and I’m no dean to write home about,” Coffin said of his new position.¹⁹¹ Although Coffin did not believe the school’s autonomy would make much difference in the quality of education and resources, he did not see much of the impact himself as he resigned from his post in 1953 because of health concerns.

Because of Coffin’s unforeseen resignation, a committee was quickly formed to review and select a candidate for the deanship. Within a few weeks the committee had two final candidates for the position: Walter Spearman, a faculty member in the program since 1935 who had worked closely with Coffin, and Norval Neil Luxon, an assistant to the president of Ohio State University. Luxon, who quietly campaigned for the position with the assistance of Holt McPherson¹⁹², was appointed to dean of the school in October of 1953.

Luxon was the complete opposite of Coffin in philosophy and manner. Luxon received his undergraduate degree in journalism and master’s degree in history from Ohio State where he had been the editor of the school newspaper, the *Lantern*. Luxon received his Ph.D. from the University of California at Los Angeles. Outside of the university, Luxon worked for newspapers for three years before teaching on the journalism faculty for 14 years, and then serving in various administrative positions at Ohio State. Luxon had also been the president of the American Association of Schools and Departments of Journalism (AASDJ) and served as one of the first educator members of the ACEJ’s Accrediting Committee, serving during UNC’s failed accreditation submission.¹⁹³

¹⁹¹ Skipper Coffin (as quoted in) Bowers, *Making News*, 84.

¹⁹² *Ibid.*, 123.

¹⁹³ Bowers, *Making News*, 96.

Three years after Luxon was appointed as dean his predecessor, the legendary Skipper Coffin, died. Published articles and works of fiction characterized Coffin as the height of positive influence on journalism in North Carolina, while private correspondence between McPherson and Luxon testified of the negative impact of Coffin's long run as a leader of the UNC's journalism program.¹⁹⁴ There is no doubt that Coffin, who continued in his role as a professor until May of 1956 (five months before his death), represented an era of administration at the Journalism School that came to a swift end with the appointment of Norval Luxon.

Luxon's vision for the Journalism School was to become a hub for research and teaching by scholars who also had practical experience in journalism. Due to a university policy requiring faculty members to relinquish administrative positions at age 65, Luxon knew he would only have a little over 10 years to see his vision realized.¹⁹⁵ Key to achieving the school status he desired, Luxon began working to hire "men of distinction"¹⁹⁶ to the faculty, begin a graduate program, update existing courses, raise funds and bolster school alumni, update the schools facilities and equipment, and see the school accredited.¹⁹⁷

Within five years of his appointment as dean, Luxon had his "men of distinction": Jack Adams, Wayne Danielson, and Jim Mullen. All three men held doctorate degrees and had developed specialized disciplines in the mass communication field. Luxon was quick to propose his ideas for a graduate program. In 1957 the first master's degree was awarded from the school. Luxon also took the opportunity to implement changes in curriculum, lobbying to add more advertising courses to cover areas such as copy-writing, media planning, and advertising

¹⁹⁴ Ibid., 123.

¹⁹⁵ Ibid., 125.

¹⁹⁶ Norval Neil Luxon (as quoted in) Bowers, *Making News*, 129.

¹⁹⁷ Bowers, *Making News*, 129-142.

campaigns.¹⁹⁸ These new additions did not sit well with other programs on campus including the School of Business Administration and The Department of Radio, Television and Motion Pictures (RTVMP). Regardless, the advertising courses were approved in 1960.

As a past leader of the ACEJ, Luxon believed that the school was not ready to apply for accreditation in his first few years as dean. However, in 1958 the School of Journalism welcomed the ACEJ accreditation committee onto campus. The accrediting committee approved of Luxon's many changes in the School and gave its recommendation for full accreditation. The committee also addressed the inadequacy of the School's current quarters and facilities, a belief that Luxon had shared for the past five years.¹⁹⁹

Upon Luxon's appointment as dean, university officials had promised that the School of Journalism would soon be moved to Howell Hall, which at the time housed the School of Pharmacy. With lobbying help from Holt McPherson, Luxon finally saw the School moved to Howell Hall in 1960.²⁰⁰ Following this move, Luxon submitted a proposal for the School of Journalism to offer a Doctor of Philosophy degree, which would focus on mass communication research. Again, the RTVMP raised objections about the degree's encroachment upon their area, but the new degree was approved. The program accepted its first Ph.D. student in 1964.²⁰¹ That same year, after achieving many of the goals he set in place, Luxon stepped down as dean of the School in accordance with the age policy.

In July of 1964, Wayne Danielson took the vacant dean position with the support of Neil Luxon and his fellow faculty members. Danielson, who had been hired by Luxon because of his

¹⁹⁸ Ibid., 136.

¹⁹⁹ Ibid., 142.

²⁰⁰ Ibid., 144.

²⁰¹ Ibid., 140.

academic experience and specialization in computers, was Luxon's top pick to fill his place. Unlike the change from Coffin to Luxon, Danielson's appointment was a smooth progression of one scholar to another. Danielson, at only 34-years-old, was the youngest dean in the history of the UNC when he took the position. Danielson's administrative techniques were in many ways modeled after Luxon, and Danielson endeavored to continue Luxon's path to a more research-driven program with a reputation for producing scholarly work.²⁰² Danielson's was a visionary in regard to computers and their uses in journalism. Linking up with John W. Carr III, the director of the UNC's Computer Center, and other computer experts, Danielson worked on ways to produce a newspaper with a computer.²⁰³ Although some mocked Danielson, his predictions would soon be realized as newspapers began using computers in the 1960s to set type in the production of newspapers.

In 1965, the Journalism School was again fully accredited. Morale at the Journalism School was high, but this did not stop Danielson seeking opportunities elsewhere. In the 1967-1968 academic year Danielson took a leave of absence to join the faculty at the University of Texas. Although he declared that he only wanted to help the university to develop a new doctoral program and give his family an experience of living in a different part of the country, Danielson stepped down from his position in 1969 to become dean of the College of Communication at the University of Texas. Part of the lure for Danielson was the combination of departments of radio, television and film, advertising, journalism, and speech in one college.²⁰⁴

In March of 1969 John B. ("Jack") Adams was named as Danielson's successor. Neil Luxon had hired Adams, like his predecessor, into the Journalism School's faculty in 1958. Jack

²⁰² Ibid., 158.

²⁰³ Ibid., 163.

²⁰⁴ Ibid., 170.

Adams served in the Army Air Forces in World War II. He received his bachelor's degree from the University of California, and his master's and doctorate degrees from the University of Wisconsin. Adams served as a reporter and editor for the *Wisconsin State Journal* during his graduate education and taught at Michigan State University for one year before coming to UNC. Similar to his Luxon and Danielson, Adams wanted to increase the School of Journalism's scholarly prestige while also strengthening ties with the NCPA.²⁰⁵

During his 10 years of leadership, Jack Adams saw the number of majors increase 79%. While Adams saw the programs popularity in a positive light, it was up to him to solve the problems that came with it, including lack of faculty and space. To increase the number of classrooms in Howell Hall, Adams decreased the size of the dean's office as well as the student lounge. Adams was also responsible for hiring several new faculty members during his tenure. Hiring four white women and one black man, the Adams' faculty became much more diverse than it was at his beginning (consisting of ten white men).

In 1975, the School of Journalism set a precedent for journalism schools all over the nation, when it implemented a spelling and grammar test as a requirement for graduation. In the same year the School created a sequence of broadcast journalism courses in conjunction with the Department of Radio, Television and Motion Pictures (RTVMP). Adams, however, warned his staff that the School of Journalism should continue to focus exclusively on newspaper journalism. During this time, the journalism school saw the addition of electric typewriters and computer editing software. In 1978 the School was once again fully accredited, although the accrediting committee did include concerns about the broadcast journalism program saying it

²⁰⁵ Ibid., 174.

belonged fully in the School of Journalism.²⁰⁶ In 1979, after serving 10 years as dean of the School of Journalism, Adams resigned the post to once more be a professor and researcher.

In 1979, Richard Cole was appointed as the Journalism School's new dean, a position he would keep for 26 years (just one year less than Skipper Coffin). Cole received his bachelor's and master's degrees from the University of Texas and his Ph.D. from the University of Minnesota. Cole worked in newspapers in Mexico City and in London. Before joining the UNC faculty in 1971, Cole taught at West Virginia University for one year. In an interview in 2012, Cole recalled his first days as dean saying, "[My priority was to] make it the best school of journalism and mass communication that I could ... So you have to move forward on all fronts."²⁰⁷

In the early 90s many things happened that would catapult the Journalism School into the 21st century as one of the leading programs in the country. In 1990, the faculty voted to change the name of the school to the School of Journalism and Mass Communication (JOMC). The change, not surprisingly, met with disapproval from the Department of Radio, Television and Motion Pictures (RTVMP). University administrators did, however, begin questioning the future of RTVMP. In 1993, an external review committee recommended that RTVMP be dissolved, and that courses relating to broadcast journalism be solely taught in JOMC.²⁰⁸

Due to these changes JOMC incorporated new faculty members and curriculum to enhance their broadcast journalism section. Other sections of the school's curriculum flourished during this time as well, including public relations and visual communications. Student

²⁰⁶ Ibid., 187.

²⁰⁷ Richard Cole, Interviewed by Melissa Tolentio, Accessed on February 16, 2018 <newstories.mj.unc.edu/interview-of-dean-richard-cole/#one>.

²⁰⁸ Bowers, *Making News*, 196.

enrollment grew from 294 majors in 1980 to 912 majors in 2000.²⁰⁹ During this time, to help curb the enrollment figures, admission standards increased significantly. To accommodate for the surge of students, the number of faculty also increased from 14 in 1980 to 28 in 2000.²¹⁰

Richard Cole's leadership also included the expansion of special programs and international activities. In 1979 the Journalism Alumni and Friends Association (JAFA) held their first reception at the school, and in 1981 the first North Carolina Journalism Hall of Fame banquet honored individuals who had made contributions to journalism in North Carolina.²¹¹ Prior to coming to UNC, Cole's interests in international communication had developed in his newspaper jobs in Mexico and London and in his studies as a Ph.D. student at the University of Minnesota.²¹² As an administrator, Cole's interests were put into action through exchange programs and co-op efforts between JOMC and other journalism programs around the world. Through these international programs, JOMC began to gain worldwide recognition as a top journalism program.

Although recognized worldwide as one of the best schools of journalism, JOMC definitely did not have the best quarters to house its faculty and classrooms. Shortly after his appointment as dean, Cole began his campaign for a new home for the school. It would take Cole 20 years appealing to five provosts, three chancellors, two vice-chancellors, and many other administrators and raising \$7 million private donations to see this vision realized.²¹³ In 1999, JOMC was finally moved into Carroll Hall, which was three times the size of their old

²⁰⁹ Ibid., 208.

²¹⁰ Ibid.

²¹¹ Ibid., 204.

²¹² Cole, Interviewed by Melissa Tolentio.

²¹³ Bowers, *Making News*, 211-220.

quarters.²¹⁴ Author Tom Bowers notes, “Cole’s approach to raising money brought in millions of dollars and fundamentally changed the school. Instead of waiting for donors to make gifts on their own initiative, Cole actively sought funding from corporations and individuals to create new programs, honor individuals with professorships, and help fund the renovation of Carroll Hall.”²¹⁵ In 2003, Richard Cole announced that he would be stepping down as dean, which led to the search for his successor. After two years, however, a replacement was not found and Tom Bowers, who had announced that he would retire in 2006, was named interim dean of JOMC for the 2005-2006 academic year.²¹⁶

Bowers, who had joined the faculty in 1971 the same year as Cole, had received his bachelor’s, master’s and doctoral degrees from Indiana University. In 1979, Cole had named Bowers the first associate dean of the school following his appointment. Along with his reputation for excellence in teaching, Bowers had been highly useful to the school for many years in his administrative duties in influencing curriculum, course scheduling, and student advising.²¹⁷ During his time as interim dean, Bowers continued Cole’s international efforts and created the “vision initiative” program in which faculty members came together many times throughout the school year to discuss the current state of the school, their beliefs, and where the school might be headed in the changing media environment.²¹⁸ This program proved beneficial in the next few years as the newly appointed dean began making adjustments to the school’s curriculum.

²¹⁴ Ibid., 220.

²¹⁵ Ibid., 221.

²¹⁶ Ibid., 230.

²¹⁷ Ibid., 230.

²¹⁸ Ibid., 232.

In 2006, Jean Folkerts assumed the position of dean at JOMC. Folkerts received her bachelor's and master's degrees from Kansas State University and her Ph.D. from the University of Kansas. Folkerts was the first female student reporter in Vietnam and was assistant press secretary to the Governor of Kansas.²¹⁹ Prior to coming to UNC, Folkerts taught at Washburn University, the University of Texas at Austin, Mount Vernon College, and served at George Washington University as Director of the School of Media and Public Affairs, Professor of Honors, Associate Vice President for Special Academic Initiatives, and Interim Dean of Columbian College of Arts and Sciences.²²⁰ Folkerts was named the Freedom Forum's Teacher of the Year in 2001,²²¹ and had served on the editorial board of *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*.

One of Folkerts' first actions as dean was an overhaul of the existing curriculum. To keep up with the changing trends in mass communication, the new curriculum focused less on traditional forms of media (e.g. television, radio, newspaper, public relations) and more on the techniques of gathering information and packaging it for multiple platforms.²²² Folkerts also revised the master's program curriculum to include four core courses: "Research Methods," "Mass Communication Law," "Reporting and Writing News," and "Multimedia Storytelling."²²³ Along with curriculum changes, Folkerts was also successful in getting the school selected as

²¹⁹ "GW's Jean Folkerts Named Journalism Teacher of the Year by the Freedom Forum," July 25, 2001, <www2.gwu.edu/~media/pressreleases/07-25-01-Folkerts/htm>.

²²⁰ "Jean Folkerts CV," Accessed February 19, 2018, <www.jomc.unc.edu/sites/default/files/people/cv/Folkerts%20CV.pdf>.

²²¹ "GW's Jean Folkerts."

²²² Bowers, *Making News*, 234.

²²³ *Ibid.*, 235.

one of twelve schools to participate in the Carnegie-Knight Initiative on the Future of Journalism Education.²²⁴

²²⁴ Ibid., 235.

CONCLUSIONS

Influencing Factors

Based on the data collected in this study, the researcher concludes the three most influential factors in journalism curriculum are technological advances, maturity of profession, and leadership. In the data collected, most significant changes are found when one of the following occurs: new communication technology is integrated into society (e.g. radio and television stations, digital photos, editing software), maturity of journalism as a profession introduces new types of journalism (e.g. investigative), theories, standards, or needs (e.g. public relations), or leadership within the school changes. Each of these is a powerful influencer, but they are most influential when working together. For example, technological advances in communication will eventually make their way into a mass communication program, but they are implemented much sooner when the leadership of school can raise necessary funds, hire appropriate faculty, and begin integration of the technology. On the other hand, maturity of the profession may bring opportunity for new topics in journalism (e.g. public relations, mass communication theory, public opinion), but these topics may not be implemented if school leadership does not see the need.

While accreditation standards do influence the schools' administration it is difficult to see any specific changes in the curriculum based on these standards. Also, as quoted in the literature review, the ACEJMC accrediting body does not seek to influence curriculum, so much as administration/faculty, diversity, scholarship opportunities, and resources. There is however evidence that accreditation standards do influence the admission requirements of students wishing to enter the program. Most notably, accreditation standards affect the requirements of general education courses.

Understanding that technological advances, maturity of profession, and leadership are the three most influencing factors, the remainder of this section will discuss how these three influencers have impacted curriculum at the University of Missouri, Louisiana State University, and the University of North Carolina.

University of Missouri Curriculum Changes and Influencing Factors

The total course offerings in the School of Journalism at MU were 18 in 1910. In the 2000 sample 136 courses were offered, the highest number in the data collected at MU. By 2010, the total courses offered had dropped to 115. The MU School of Journalism, unlike many others, did not begin as apart of another department or college. Because of its origins, and the backing of notable journalism professionals, including Joseph Pulitzer, the School of Journalism was established with a strong foundation of courses. These courses continued to increase at fairly consistent rate until the 2010 sample. This can be attributed to the growth and maturity of the journalism profession, as well as, the popularity of the School of Journalism as the first of its kind.

Table 7 shows that the School of Journalism adopted camera technology by 1920 and radio technology by 1930. These implementations of technology reflect the industry's adoption of technology. They also represent the leadership of Walter Williams, who was a leader in the journalism industry and modeled the school after other professional schools. The adoption of television technology is found in the 1960 sample, but because the data show that in the 1960 sample ten courses included television technology, the researcher concludes that the adoption of this technology was most likely closer to the 1950 sample. The maturity of the profession and influence of leadership is represented in the school's adoption of software and digital technologies. Courses including software increased from one course in 2000 to seven courses in

2010, while courses including digital technology increased from six courses in 2000 to nine courses in 2010. During this same time, courses with radio technology decrease from six courses to three, and courses with television technology decreased from ten courses to five.

The influence of Walter Williams' leadership is also found in the diversity of course topics early in the school's history. In 1910, courses included basic topics like "newspaper," "writing," and "reporting," as well as topics like, "magazine," "advertising," "law," and "public opinion." The diversity of course topics continued to keep pace with the maturity of the profession. By the 1950 sample, course topics including "broadcast," "investigative," and "public relations" were introduced. In the 1980 sample, course topics also included "social responsibility" and "ethics." The maturity of the profession is also represented in the addition of course topics like "convergence" and "social media" in the 2010 sample.

Williams' leadership is also evident in the diversity of focus in the School of Journalism's early years. In 1910, the journalism school already had courses outside of the "skill-based" category. From 1920 to 1950, skill-based courses only increased from 30 courses to 35, while general knowledge courses increased from six courses to 23. These changes represent the maturity of the profession. The increasing percentage of theory-based courses from 1960 to 2000 also shows the maturity of the profession.

Louisiana State University Curriculum Changes and Influencing Factors

The growth of the journalism profession can most simply be seen in the number of courses. The Manship School has grown from one course offering in 1912 to 113 course offerings in 2010. This growth, as seen in Graph 1, has not been linear. There have been periods of increase and periods of maintaining similar offerings. For example, 1920 to 1930 the course offering increased by 150%, and then did not grow more than 5% until the 1960 sample. The

leadership of school explains this. In 1920, Marvin Osborn was named chairman of the school. From 1920 to 1930, Osborn set in place a core curriculum of courses, many of which are still included in the program. Osborn stepped down from this post in 1955, which accounts for the continuation of the core subjects from 1930 to 1950. The Manship School also experienced an extended period of substantial growth in course offerings from 1970 to 2010. As there were a total of eight different directors during this time, the researcher concludes that this growth was influenced primarily by the maturity of the profession and increased student enrollment.

Technology is the influencing factor that is easiest to see and most simple to explain. We see that LSU's adopted both camera and radio technology between 1930 and 1940. While this makes sense for radio technology, as radio stations were in their infancy, camera technology had been available before this time. It's possible that due to budget cuts that LSU was experiencing at the time, buying the equipment to take and develop photos was not high on the list for the new department. It's also possible that the staff, which was largely made up of professors from the English Department, were not savvy in camera technology. However, in years following technology was integrated into the School as it became more widely used. Between 1950 and 1960 the Journalism School introduced television courses, and between 1990 and 2000 courses using computer software, digital images and Internet.

In the course topics code, the maturity of journalism as a profession is shown. In the 1920 sample, "newspaper" courses made up 75% of all courses. Courses also included "writing," "reporting," "magazine," and "advertising." As the profession grew, new course topics like "law," "ethics," and "public opinion" between 1920 and 1950. In 1960, a new profession within journalism became a course topic in the Journalism School, "public relations." The 21st century also brought topics like "social responsibility," "convergence," "investigative," and "minorities."

Maturity of the profession is also seen in the shift from general knowledge focus courses to theory-focused courses. As the profession of journalism, and all its technologies and components (e.g. advertising, broadcast, etc.) matured, researchers began to test and refine theories relating to the subject. From 1960 to 2010 theory-based courses increased from one course to 30, while general knowledge courses only increased from 14 courses to 28.

The data collected also indicate that changes in leadership can influence change in curriculum. While Hugh Blain's leadership resulted in courses being 100% skill-based in 1920, by 1930, after 10 years of Marvin Osborn's leadership, only nine out of the 20 courses were skill based, while nine were general knowledge and two were theory-based. The data also show many significant curriculum changes in course focus, topics and technology used in the years of Jack Hamilton's leadership. During Hamilton's leadership theory-based courses increased from five courses in 1990 to 30 courses in 2010, while general knowledge courses only increased from 27 courses to 28. During this time the school gained autonomy and added a doctorate program. It is interesting to note that in this time frame as theory-based courses increased and general knowledge courses decreased, the percent of skill-based courses did not change much. During this time, the "broadcasting" topic courses decreased from eight in 1990 to three in 2010, while the courses using "radio" technology went from five courses in 1990 to none in 2000 and 2010. The "television" technology code similarly decreased from six courses in 1990 to two in 2010. The research concludes that these changes correlated with the schools two Five-Year Plans put in place by Hamilton and the Manship faculty from 1992 to 2003. The researcher also concludes that the decrease in mentions of specific technology is a result of the teaching of convergence which incorporates multiple platforms and technologies.

University of North Carolina Curriculum Changes and Influencing Factors

In Graph 1, the data show that the UNC School of Journalism grew from 1 course in 1910 to 134 courses in 2010. This growth has not been linear. From the 1910 sample to the 1950 sample, the school increased its course offerings from one to eighteen. The leadership of the program accounts for this. In the first sixteen years of the program there were seven leaders, and the following 27 years of the program were led by O.J. Coffin. The researcher concludes that the inconsistency of leadership in the first sixteen years and Coffin's leadership style in the following 27 years explains the slower increase of courses during this time. From 1980 to 2010 the number of course offerings increased at a much faster pace. The researcher attributes this increase to three influences: the elimination of RTVMP, which left courses relating to radio and television to the School of Journalism, the maturity of the profession of journalism, and the leadership of Richard Cole and Jean Folkerts.

Table 9 shows the adoption of technology at UNC's School of Journalism and RTVMP. In some technologies, the Journalism School can be considered an early adopter, while in others it is a late adopter. Courses using camera technology were not available until the 1950 sample. Since camera technologies were available to the public for many years before this, the UNC School of Journalism is a late adopter of this technology. In 1940, the first radio courses were available. The school was not as late in adopting this technology, as the first radio stations were founded in the 1920s. Television courses were not found in the School of Journalism until 1960, although RTVMP offered them in the 1950 sample. As seen in Table 9, RTVMP consistently had a higher percentage of courses using radio and television technologies. This is understandable as the department inherently used technology as the basis for its course work. This also explains why the School of Journalism had a slower rate of adoption for new

technologies. As explained in the University of North Carolina Program Leadership section, RTVMP continuously expressed opposition to the School of Journalism incorporating new technologies and using terms like “mass communication” or “media.” Leadership can also account for the slower adoption of technology in the Journalism School. Deans Coffin and Adams both expressed reservations about the School of Journalism straying too far from newspaper production into courses relating to broadcasting. Regardless of their reservations, the School of Journalism absorbed the responsibility of radio and television broadcasting courses in 1993 when RTVMP was dissolved.

In Table 6, the data show that UNC’s School of Journalism was also slow to adopt new course topics. From 1910 to 1940 only “newspaper,” “writing,” and “reporting” courses were coded, and by 1950 the only course topic addition was “advertising.” This simple focus on newspaper production can again be attributed to the leadership of O.J. Coffin. Table 6 also shows that RTVMP incorporated topics like “investigative reporting,” and “public opinion” by the 1960 sample. From 1960 to 2000 the maturity of the profession and introduction of graduate degrees brought more course topics to the School of Journalism and RTVMP, including “law,” “ethics,” “public relations,” “social responsibility,” “women,” and “minorities.”

The influence of leadership is also found in the data representing course focus (Table 3). From 1910 to 1950, nearly all courses in the School of Journalism were skill-based, and no theory-based courses were coded. The research also reflects that while theory-based courses were found in the School of Journalism and RTVMP in the 1960 sample, RTVMP generally had higher percentages of theory-based courses and lower percentages of skill-based courses than the School of Journalism. RTVMP also generally had a higher percentage of general knowledge

courses than the School of Journalism. The leadership of Richard Cole and Jean Folkerts is represented in the increase of theory-based courses from three courses in 2000 to 14 in 2010.

Final Conclusions

When analyzing the data gathered from the three journalism programs, the researcher finds the following conclusion to be true: the adoption of new technologies, the maturity of journalism as a profession, and the increased diversity of course topics are inherent qualities of a journalism program that influence curriculum change, but positive leadership qualities and the length of service from leaders with these qualities vary from program to program while influencing curriculum changes.

The data collected show that different technologies, though adopted at each program at different times, were all eventually adopted. This finding represents the nature of the journalism profession. Journalism, which a hundred years ago was confined to a newspaper room, is now a member of every profession and a user of every technology. The definition of journalism, and its younger and further reaching relative, “mass communication,” has changed in a way that no other profession has. While lawyers still practice law in a courtroom and physicians still attend to patients in a hospital, mass communication professionals know no boundaries. They appear as public relations professionals, opinionated newscasters, newspaper editors, radio talk show hosts, and advertisement creators. This nature is reflected in the changes in curriculum at the three programs in this study, and the researcher predicts that another sample of journalism programs would yield very similar results.

The second part of the researcher’s conclusion is that positive leadership qualities found in leaders with lengthy terms of appointment influence curriculum change faster and more efficiently within a program. Positive leadership qualities include: a professional background

coupled with experience in academia, steadfast attentiveness to administrative duties, attentiveness to accreditation standards, preparation and application of vision, an ability to raise funds. The data suggest that leaders with these qualities that do not hold the leadership position for a long period of time (e.g. Edward Graham of UNC) will not generate lasting positive change. Similarly, the data show that when leadership changes hands multiple times in a short period of time (e.g. UNC program 1909-1926 and LSU program 1975-1992), the program becomes stagnant. Program stagnation is also found when leaders that lack some or all of these positive leadership qualities are appointed (e.g. Roy Fisher, James Atwater, and O. J. Coffin).

In contrast, changes in curriculum and increased status of a program are found when leaders having positive leadership qualities are appointed for lengthy terms (e.g. Walter Williams, Earl English, Dean Mills, Marvin Osborn, Jack Hamilton, Norval Luxon, and Richard Cole). These findings suggest that one of the most powerful influencing factors in a journalism program is the appointment of a leader with positive leadership qualities. The researcher expects that similar conclusions might be found in other academic disciplines.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

There are a few limitations of this research because of its method of gathering data. In this section these limitations will be addressed, and suggestions made for how future research may build upon the data collected.

Limitations

One limitation the research notes is that because general catalogs are not necessarily purged each year of classes that are no longer offered, there may be some courses listed in a given year that were not actually offered. Another limitation of coding course descriptions is that the course descriptions are written previous to the course and may not reflect the course in full accuracy like the course syllabus might. The researcher chose to code the course descriptions, however, because they are an available unit of analysis that is meant to reflect the aims of the course in a concise manner to prospective students. The researcher also notes that course descriptions do not necessarily capture program-wide beliefs or values that are impressed upon all students. For example, although there were no courses at MU with the “ethics” topic coded until the 1980 sample, Walter Williams “Journalist’s Creed,” which included many ethical standards, was memorized by all students for many years.

Another limitation of coding course descriptions is that the data do not reflect programs that are available to students outside of the courses offered. For example, students at MU had access to the Reynolds Journalism Institute, students at LSU had access to the Reilly Center for Media and Public Affairs, and students at UNC had access to the Reese News Lab. Students in each program also had access to student newspapers, radio stations, television stations, PRSSA chapters and other educational opportunities outside of the classroom.

The researcher also notes that course descriptions do not always include information about what technology is used in the course. For example, although the researcher coded for “typewriter” technology in the technology code, courses rarely included the word typewriter when that was the main medium used. Likewise, as computer technology became the main medium for newspaper production, the course descriptions did not always use the term “computer.” With these limitations the research must rely on historical accounts of when these technologies were made available for students. Another limitation of this study is that while deans, directors, and chairs of journalism programs are very influential in facilitating change, there are other leaders within the university that also facilitate change (e.g. chancellors/president, provost, and the chair of a parent department).

The researcher also notes that the selection of the course descriptions in years that mark the beginning of a decade (e.g. 1910, 1920, 1930, etc.) could be a limitation of the study as program leaders may make changes in these years that are not made in other years. Another limitation of the study is the exclusion of the 1990 sample from the University of Missouri. As this sample was not available to the researcher to code (nor the sample from the year previous or following) the data are missing from this study.

Future Research

There are several opportunities for future research based on the data presented here. One suggestion would be to select different journalism programs. The researcher does suggest that the programs share some commonalities, for example programs at private universities, programs at universities in a different country, or universities that began their journalism programs after a specific time period. Using different journalism programs will show if the influencing factors remain consistent.

Another study may somehow factor in opportunities available to students outside of courses (e.g. centers for research, student publications, etc.). Future research might also include leadership outside of the journalism program in the coding process, as well as, the diversity of faculty in the program in each sampled year.

Future research may also study other types of programs (e.g. law, medicine, education, etc.) to determine if the influence of leadership within different disciplines is as influential as it was found in this study.

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APPENDIX: CODE SHEET

1. Course Title
2. Course Number
3. Course Type
 - a. Required
 - b. Elective
 - c. Unknown/Not Clear
 - d. Choice of 2 or more to meet requirement
 - e. Required only for specific track
 - g. Choice of 2 or more to meet requirement in specific track
 - h. Unknown/Not Clear/Other
4. Course Topic(s)

Types of mass communication: newspaper, magazine, radio, television, advertising, Internet and social media

Groups of people: minorities, women and corporations

Categories of study/research: social responsibility, public opinion, law and ethics
5. Focus of Course:
 - a. Theory-Based
 - b. Skill-Based
 - c. History of Subject
 - d. Overview of Subject
 - e. Unknown/Not Clear/Other

Operationalization of theory-based and professional-skills-based:

Theory-Based: The class objectives are to understand theories, ideas, values, principles or philosophies of mass communication. Key words: theory.

Skill-Based Learning: The class objectives are to learn skills that the student may use in a profession relating to mass communication. Includes practicums, internship, etc.

History of Subject: The class objective is to become familiar with the historical facts of a person, subject, or collection of people or organizations.

Knowledge-Based Learning: The class objective is to teach specifically on a subject that the student is interested in working in (e.g. economics, medicine, etc.). At the end of the class the student will be thoroughly acquainted with the relationship with the subject they wish to work in and its relationship with mass communication/journalism.

Overview of Subject (non Skill-based): The class objective is to teach on specific subject. To overview the current knowledge of the subject, the problems facing the subject, etc.

6. Major Technology/medium used:

- a. Radio
- b. Television
- c. Digital
- d. Camera
- e. Software
- f. Other

7. Unit in which Course is offered:

- a. School of Journalism
- b. School of Journalism & Mass Communication
- c. School of Mass Communication
- d. Department of Journalism
- e. Department of Radio
- f. Department of Radio, TV & Motion Picture
- g. Department of English
- h. Unknown/Not Clear

VITA

Hillary Dunn, born in Sanford, North Carolina, received her bachelor's degree from the University of North Carolina at Pembroke where she majored in Mass Communication with a double concentration in Journalism and Broadcasting. Hillary has worked in photography and graphic design for six years and is the owner of a private photography and design business in Sanford. Hillary began studying in the Manship School of Mass Communication in August of 2013. Hillary worked as a graduate research and teaching assistant in the Manship School. She anticipates graduating with her M.M.C. degree in May 2018. Hillary plans to pursue a career in Mass Communication education in North Carolina.