# HOW HIGH SCHOOL JOURNALISM TEACHERS ARE DEVELOPING CRITICAL NEWSPAPER READING HABITS IN STUDENTS: A STUDY

Thesis for the Degree of M. A.

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

Sister M. Bernard Michael Brown, O. P.

1966

# ABSTRACT

## HOW HIGH SCHOOL JOURNALISM TEACHERS ARE DEVELOPING CRITICAL NEWSPAPER READING HABITS IN STUDENTS: A STUDY

By Sister M. Bernard Michael Brown, O. P.

The purpose of this study was to determine what methods, if any, were being used by high school journalism teachers to develop critical newspaper reading habits in their students. Relevant to this objective was information regarding the educational background of teachers of high school journalism, the nature and structure of the journalism class, and guides given students in critical reading habits. The study also indicated if developing critical newspaper reading habits is necessary for high school students.

The procedure followed in gathering data for this study was a national survey taken among 3,078 journalism teachers who had received grants from The Newspaper Fund, Incorporated, Princeton, New Jersey, to study journalism at a university summer workshop or institute. The survey was conducted on three levels: (1) journalism as a separate course for credit on the curriculum, (2) journalism as a unit study in the English program (with the school newspaper as an outside activity), and (3) journalism as an activity not for credit and not on a scheduled curriculum time. Each teacher was asked to fill in the one-page questionnaire that dealt with the status of journalism in his school, and discard the other two forms. Forty-seven states were represented by the 598 respondents, and, although all three levels of school programs were reported, three out of every four teachers reporting were teaching a separate journalism course for credit as opposed to the English unit or the extracurricular activity situations.

This study shows that the majority of teachers in the high school journalism programs believe that there is a very definite need to teach their students critical newspaper reading habits, and that the majority of the English majors who comprised fifty-one percent of the total respondents in this study said they thought this development was not the sole responsibility of the high school English teacher, rather, that it should be shared, at least in part, with the social studies teacher.

It appeared that teachers who had a journalism major or minor in college followed the same criteria as the English major and those whose majors were other than journalism or English in teaching their students how to evaluate the press. They directed their students to detect biased reporting, slanted news, and weak or faulty editorials. Few respondents gave any indication that they referred to journalism history, press theories or communications ethics when evaluating the daily press in its role in modern society.

Teachers' opinions about developing critical newspaper reading habits in their students were divided into two categories. One group thinks of journalism only as a technique of writing, and thus assumes that critical reading habits should be developed by the social studies teacher. The other group views journalism as an avenue of vital information whereby man is informed of the society in which he lives. Some teachers in each group stated that they had time only to advise and produce the school newspaper, and, consequently, they did not use a newspaper in the curriculum for purposes of developing critical newspaper reading habits.

It is the author's belief that high school journalism educators would have some comprehensive understanding of the history, philosophy and ethics of mass communications before teaching future generations how to evaluate the press and its related media.

# HOW HIGH SCHOOL JOURNALISM TEACHERS ARE DEVELOPING CRITICAL NEWSPAPER READING HABITS IN STUDENTS: A STUDY

By

Sister M. Bernard Michael Brown, O. P.

A THESIS

Submitted to
Michigan State University
In partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

School of Journalism

1966

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

To Mr. Patrick W. Kennedy, assistant to the Director, The Newspaper Fund, Incorporated, of Princeton, New Jersey, who made it possible for me to make this study, I wish to express my gratitude and appreciation.

In particular, I acknowledge the interest and encouragement rendered to me by Professors W. Cameron Meyers, and Frank B. Senger of the School of Journalism, Michigan State University, without whose assistance this thesis would not be realized.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

## LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

Journalism in the high school curriculum should be more than a mere workshop for those students who publish a school newspaper. Instruction should be broadly cultural rather than narrowly technical by emphasizing laboratory work and mechanical skill development. Ideally, journalism instruction should acquaint students with the role of the press in a free society rather than conveying impressions that journalism is little more than publishing a newspaper. After graduating from high school, most will drop their copypencils and abandon their galley proofs without even so much as having realized that journalism will become a vital part of their future. The teacher of journalism should be qualified to initiate necessary motives that will bring students within his cognizance to an essential awareness of the impact of the mass media on their daily lives.

The high school generation today is exposed to more information than ever before in the history of man. But the complexity of today's society requires that students know more than facts; they must learn to understand the relationships and meanings of those facts. Today's high school journalism student

should be taught more than news determinants and how to write a lead for a news story; he should be taught how to understand the power of interpretation and the consequences of a free and responsible press.

The high school level is the crucial area wherein the comic strip fan becomes tomorrow's editorial critic. He may well be influenced to follow a career in the field of mass communications, but, in any event, he can be both learned judge and informed jury that will keep the press free and responsible.

Regardless of the field the high school journalist will pursue, he will conduct himself in an adult society according to the knowledge he has gained through mass media. It would behoove every student, therefore, to understand the basic elements of mass communications, and in particular, the philosophy, ethics, and theories of the American press.

For these reasons, therefore, the writer believes that journalism should be taught within the framework of social studies, emphasizing critical reading of the newspapers rather than as a unit study in an English curriculum, which, in most cases, places the emphasis on writing.

A national survey determining if and how critical newspaper reading habits are being developed in journalism students was spurred, in part, by an incident that occurred in a Chicago

girls' high school in November, 1965. Aquinas-Dominican High School was the pilot school for the educational services program of the Chicago Tribune. More than 250 copies of the morning newspaper were distributed to juniors and seniors each school day.

On Friday, November 12, the Tribune published an editorial cartoon that caused immediate commotion among the students even before the first hour class had begun. The two-column cartoon depicted United States Senator Robert Kennedy carrying a placard that read: "I am willing to give my blood to the communist enemy in Viet Nam -- Bobby Kennedy." The Senator stood next to a flag-draped coffin labeled "American Casualties in Viet Nam." The caption above the cartoon read: "Others Have Already Given."

Before noon, officers of the high school press association had sent a telegram to Don Maxwell, editor of the Chicago Tribune, which read:

> YOUR PUBLICATION OF HOLLAND'S CARTOON ON TODAY'S FRONT PAGE IS INDICATIVE OF VILE DESTRUCTION TO THE AMERICAN RIGHT TO KNOW AND EXPRESS THE TRUTH. NO EDITORIAL STAND CAN USE FAIR PLAY TO MAKE FALSE OR MISLEADING CONCLUSIONS ON PUBLIC STATEMENTS IN THE INTEREST OF PARTY POLITICS. MR. KENNEDY'S "WILLING TO GIVE BLOOD TO ANYONE WHO NEEDS IT" IS FOUNDED ON CHRISTIAN PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE. WHAT YOU ARE ATTACKING IN THIS CARTOON IS NOT MR. KENNEDY BUT THE VERY BASIC DECENCY OF MAN IN HIS RELATION TO MAN. WE OBJECT TO

SUCH IRRESPONSIBILITY ON THE GROUNDS OF VIOLATION OF CODE OF ETHICS OF THE AMERICAN SOCIETY OF NEWSPAPER EDITORS. IF THE TRUTH IS TOO DIFFICULT TO PRINT ON THE FRONT PAGE OF YOUR NEWSPAPER, IT WILL BE LIKEWISE DIFFICULT FOR THIS ASSOCIATION TO EXPECT THE TRIBUNE TO CIRCULATE FREELY IN THIS AMERICAN CATHOLIC HIGH SCHOOL.

On their own, senior government students drew up several petitions objecting to the Tribune's distorted editorial coverage of Senator Kennedy's interview in Los Angeles by the press on distribution of Red Cross blood to Vietnamese.

No journalism student expected the editor to publish a retraction of any kind in the days that followed the incident. They were, however, somewhat astonished to learn that members of their families, their friends, and other student associates accepted the interpretation of the cartoon as presenting the truth. Only then did it become evident to the journalism students that an apathetic attitude toward the functions of the press could be detrimental to the right of the people to be properly informed. The critical reading habits they had developed in their studies of the nature of the press and its relationship with society gave them a greater insight into evaluating the functions of the press.

Most high school journalism textbooks today direct students to detect biased reporting, slanted news, and propaganda devices. This approach is perhaps the more familiar method followed in developing critical newspaper reading habits, but it is

the writer's belief that it falls short of the criteria needed to evaluate the conduct of the press. It fails to recognize the historical reason for the existence of the press within the framework of the American society. It is only with an understanding of the historical background that one can critically evaluate whether the mass media are fulfilling their obligations.

In The Mass Media and Modern Society, Peterson writes that in criticizing the media, "one must clearly understand the communication system in the context of its historical and contemporary setting."[1] The historical background is further explained by Curtis D. MacDougall:

> Properly to evaluate any journalistic performance, the original purpose of the freedom of the press clause in the first amendment to the Constitution must be borne in mind . . . that wide-open freedom for any and all to publish or speak as they chose, even untruthfully and unfairly, would, in the long run, serve the public interest best. Thus, freedom of the press is a means to an end (the right to be informed - ed.), not primarily an end in itself.[2]

This criterion would lead the student into the study of what the purpose of the press is in contemporary American

---

[1]Theodore B. Peterson, Jay W. Jensen, and William L. Rivers, The Mass Media and Modern Society (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965), p. 245.

[2]Curtis D. MacDougall, Interpretative Reporting, 4th ed. (New York: Macmillan Company, 1963), p. 27.

society, and to determine, accordingly, if the press is fulfilling its role. Conclusions in this kind of analysis could not be drawn by scrutinizing a newspaper for syntax, writing styles, verbiage, paragraph development, or vocabulary alone. Of far greater importance is the fact that the newspaper is a social interaction with the American mind, and therefore, should reflect the public consensus toward situations reported in the daily press.

This concept of a critical evaluation of the press is not an uncommon one, and while teachers responding to the survey may have the background to develop critical newspaper reading habits in their students with the historical and social responsibility interpretation, the lack of reference to this method seems to suggest that this is not the case.

The Aquinas High School journalism students criticized the Chicago Tribune's interpretation of Senator Kennedy's statement on blood donations to the Vietnamese because this newspaper, according to their evaluation, failed to act in a responsible way in what can be expected of the role of the press in a free society.

To help determine whether high school journalism programs are developing critical newspaper reading habits in journalism students, questionnaires were mailed to 3,078 journalism teachers throughout the United States who had been recipients

of a grant from the Newspaper Fund, Incorporated, of Princeton, New Jersey, to study journalism at university workshops and institutes. The Fund program makes its grants to assist those who have little or no formal training in their journalism backgrounds. The teacher usually has been advising school publications for at least a year; the average is probably three years.[1] It was believed that these teachers represented a particular group of journalism instructors and advisers who have had some specific credits or training in a journalism course.

The survey was conducted in three levels: (1) journalism as a separate course for credit on the curriculum, (2) journalism as a unit study in the English program (with the school newspaper as outside activity), (3) journalism as an activity not for credit and not on a scheduled curriculum time. Each teacher was asked to fill in the one-page questionnaire that dealt with the status of journalism in his school and to discard the other two forms.

The questionnaire was a combination of open and closed forms.[2] Most questions required answers in the teacher's own words. The section dealing with specific uses of a newspaper in his classes called for a check mark, although each teacher was free to add his own comments at the end of each question.

---

[1]Letter from Patrick W. Kennedy, Assistant to the Director, The Newspaper Fund, Incorporated, Princeton, N.J., July 6, 1966.

[2]See Appendix A for samples of the questionnaires sent.

The survey inquired into: (1) the educational background of the teacher, (2) the nature and structure of the journalism class, (3) the extent to which the newspaper was being used in the classroom, (4) the guides given students in critical reading habits, and (5) opinions of teachers in regard to the need of teaching critical newspaper reading habits on a high school level.

No attempt was made to define what was meant by "critical" newspaper reading habits. It was intended that the teachers' interpretations of the word be indicated in their answers to the questions proposed without being influenced by the survey author.

The survey was conducted in the final quarter of the school year so that teachers would have the immediate scholastic year from which to draw their answers. Because of the many demands usually made on educators' time at the close of the school year, each questionnaire listed only five to eight questions that could be answered briefly.

The purpose of the survey was to indicate what, if any, methods were being used to guide journalism students into developing critical newspaper reading habits in the class situation as it exists in the school. Authors of high school journalism textbooks propose similar ways to evaluate or characterize the nature of the local newspaper according to content, editorial

stand, political affiliations, etc., but few include any of the criteria suggested by Peterson and MacDougall in assessing and evaluating the performance of the mass media.

Journalism educators should be concerned about developing critical newspaper reading habits in high school students. In too many cases, however, because of lack of time or inadequate educational background, this basic training is by-passed. Journalism, in this situation, is short-lived and ineffective for adult use.

In view of the results of the study made, it may well become evident that journalism is in need of special educational programs in which teachers are brought out of mechanical muddles of press production and are given broad interpretations of the nature of the press, its theories, philosophy, and history. With a background in social studies, the instructor who teaches journalism in the high school probably will motivate students to understand the meaning and privileges of a concept so essential to the success of American democracy from the earliest beginnings of the colonies that confederated as the United States to the present: a free and responsible press.

# CHAPTER II

# EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUNDS AND GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATIONS OF RESPONDENTS

## Introduction to the Study

The analysis or conclusions drawn from the survey responses used in this study merely indicate a possible trend of what is being done at present by high school journalism teachers in the United States.

The study begins with a general picture of the background of teachers responding to the survey, and a geographical relationship of teachers and the programs they conduct throughout the country. Specific analyses are then made of each of the three programs followed in teaching journalism in high schools.

Two major factors predominate in this study. They are derived from the tabulated results of the questionnaires which indicate that first, more than half of the teachers responding are English majors; and, second, that three out of four teachers are teaching journalism in a separate course for credit, as opposed to the English unit or extracurricular activity situations.

Certain sections of the survey questionnaires were either overlooked or by-passed by some teachers completing the forms.

Questions pertaining to the teacher's major field and credits earned in journalism were unanswered by some teachers. It was intended that the survey show how many respondents teaching journalism or advising school newspapers in high school had any college credits in journalism. Teachers were asked to indicate if they had a major in journalism, a minor in journalism, or, if their major was in English or in another field, to indicate how many credits they have received in journalism courses. Whether the teacher was certified by his State Board of Education to teach journalism is a fact not relevant to this study. For the purposes of this study, "journalism majors and minors" simply means that the teacher has majored or minored in this field in the undergraduate or graduate program.

Twenty-one percent of the teachers treated the statement "Major not listed" with a check mark or by giving the name of their major field, or by simply leaving a blank. With the exception of the blank returns, the "not-listed" or major-named type of answers is still considered significant in that such answers indicate that the teacher is neither a journalism major-minor, nor an English major.

## The Teacher Background

### English Majors

It appears to be generally true that most high school teachers of journalism are English majors who, in addition to teaching English classes, are moderators or advisers for the school newspaper and teach some phase of journalism regardless of the type of school program offered, i.e., as a unit in the English curriculum, as a separate course for credit, or as an extracurricular activity not for credit. This fact is supported by the returns made in this national survey.

Figure 1 shows that 51 percent of the 598 teachers responding to the survey were English majors, the majority of whom are teaching a full credit course in journalism. How these teachers developed critical newspaper reading habits in their journalism students is explored more thoroughly in the section that discusses the separate credit course program.

There were more English majors teaching journalism in each of the three programs than there were journalism majors and minors in the same respective programs. Furthermore, in the breakdown of the distribution of journalism majors and minors (see Figure 3, page 17), 59 percent of the journalism minors were teachers with English majors. In addition to the 302 teachers tabulated as English majors, there were actually 45 more listed

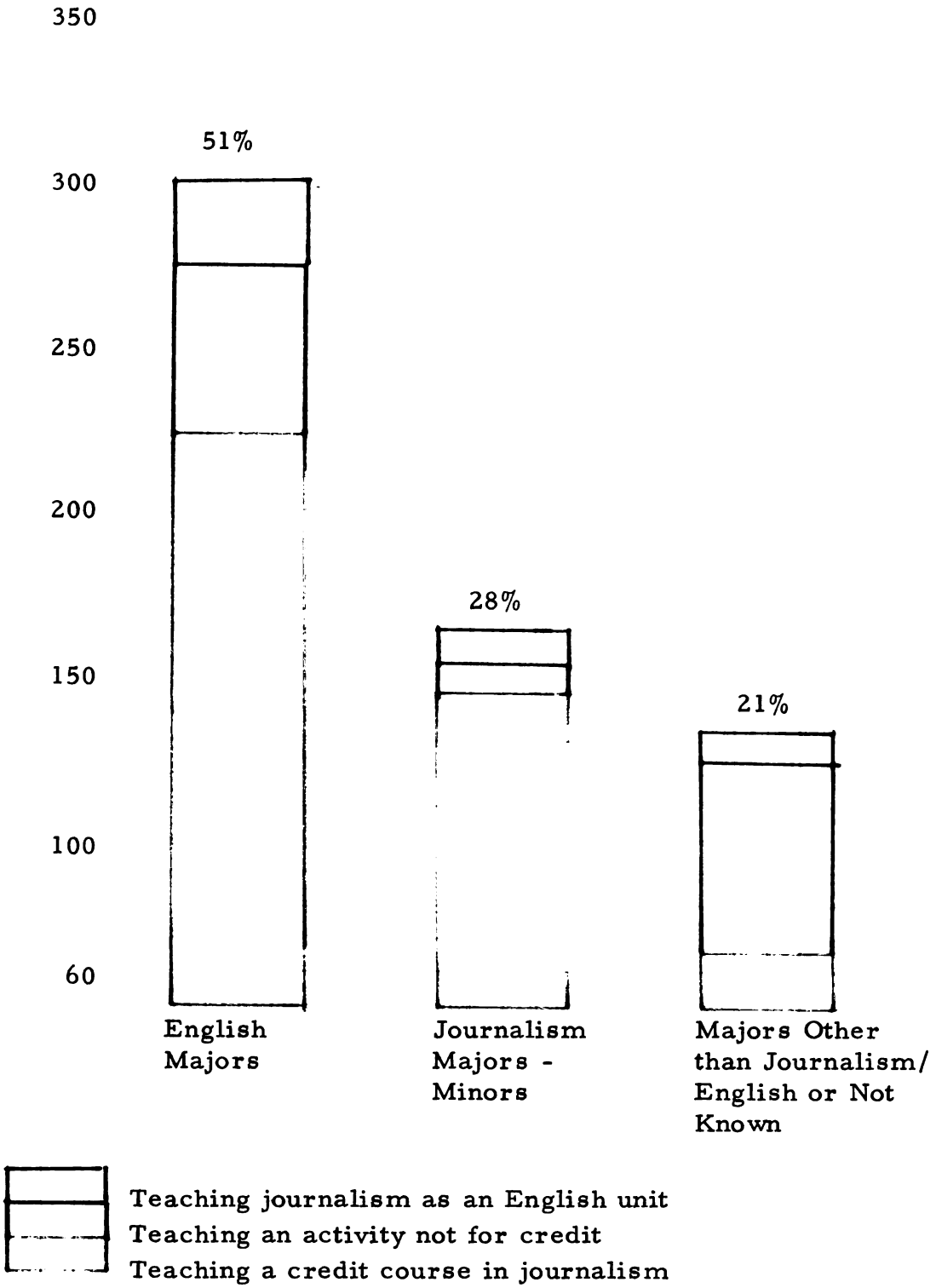


Fig. 1.--Background of 598 Teachers Responding to the Survey

in the category of journalism minors.

A closer study of each of the programs indicates that the English major differs little in procedures from the journalism major in teaching what is referred to as "critical" reading of the press. This finding, of course, says nothing about the potential of the journalism major as compared with that of the English major in teaching critical reading.

How much professional education in journalism the 347 English majors reported to have is shown in Figure 2. This graph includes the English majors who had a journalism minor. Only four percent specifically indicated they had no credits at all in journalism, but this cannot be taken to exclude the possibility that some of them might have attended non-credit journalism institutes or workshops in a summer program at a college or university. This inference also may be applicable to some of the additional 22 percent who did not indicate any credits.

Of the remaining 74 percent who had credits from professional education in journalism, 17 percent (56 teachers) had earned from 4-6 credits; 16 percent earned from 7-10 credits; 13 percent have a minor in journalism and an equal number of teachers (45) had earned only 1-3 credits. An additional 12 percent (41 teachers) had earned from 11-15 credits, and 13 more indicated they had credits totaling up to 20 in journalism. The

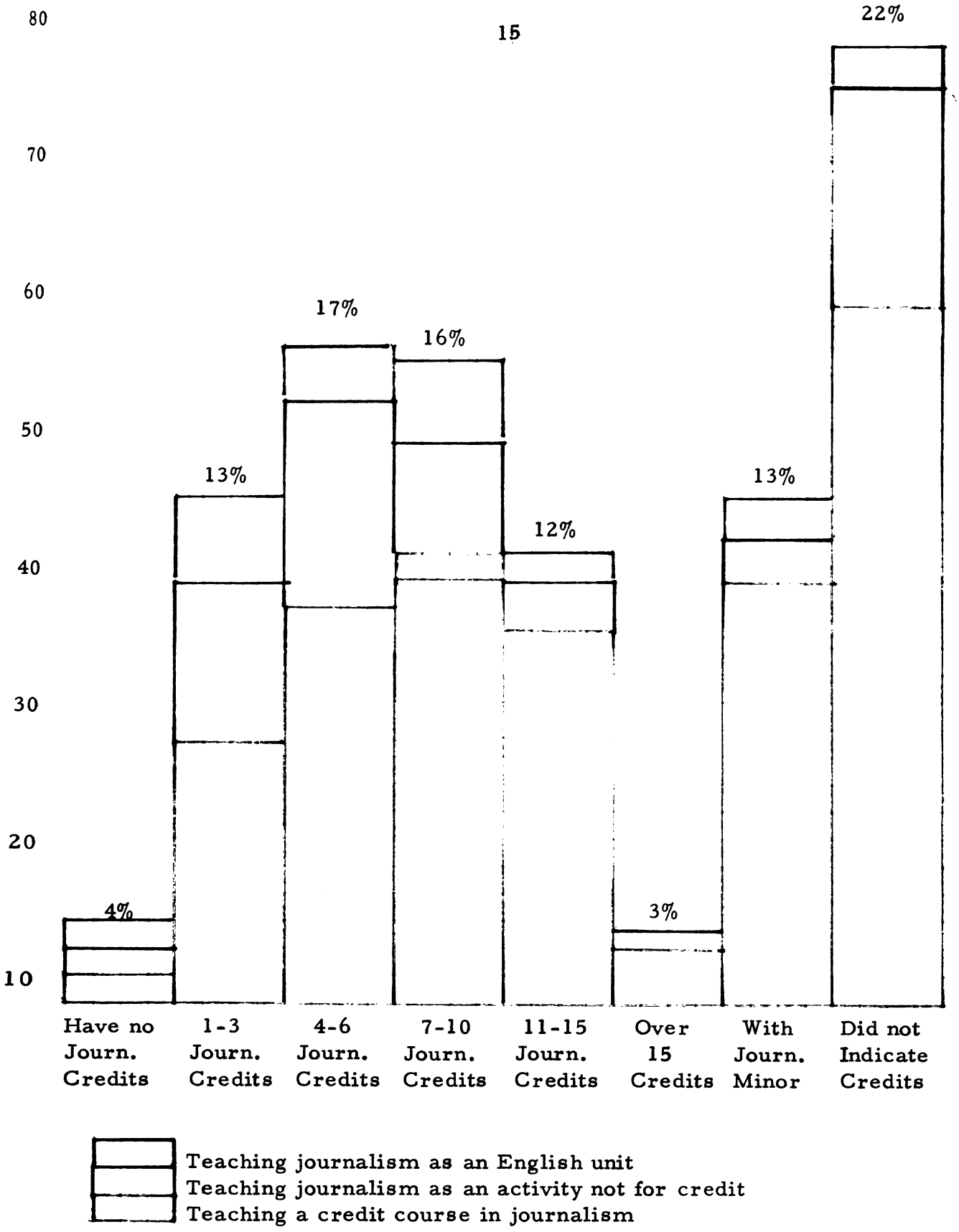


Fig. 2.--Journalism Background of 347* English majors in Journalism programs (*figure includes those with Journalism minors).

questionnaire did not differentiate between quarter or term credits and semester credits.

While 45 checked themselves as journalism minors and not in terms of credits, 54 others recorded total credits earned over 15 and did not indicate that they had journalism minors. In tabulating these figures, no attempt was made to convert any certain number of credits into a journalism minor. Therefore, it should be kept in mind that although the graph indicates only 45 English majors with a minor in journalism, 13 or more, perhaps, had as many credits in journalism as a journalism minor. Significantly, this would indicate that most of the English majors represented in this survey would be expected to have a basic background in journalism, so that the opinions they expressed in regards to this teaching situation were well-founded and valid.

In other words, the writer believes this particular group of English majors, for the most part, should be capable of developing critical newspaper reading habits in some effective way other than by way of the negative approach used in merely detecting slanted news, biased reporting, and propaganda devices.

## Journalism Majors and Minors

Distribution of 164 journalism majors and minors within the three programs is shown in Figure 3. Almost half the total number of these teachers hold a minor in journalism; and, as

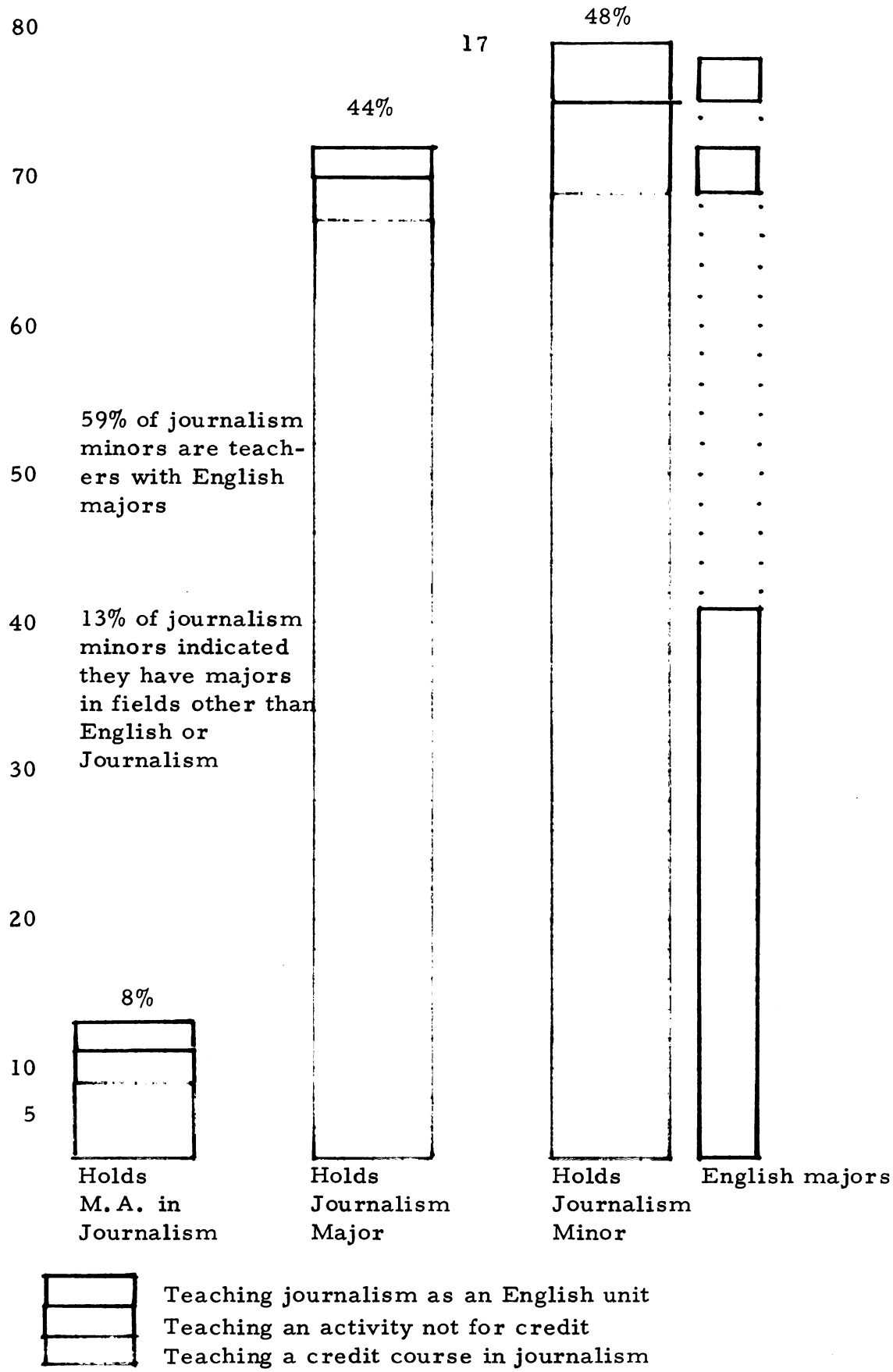


Fig. 3.--Distribution of 164 Journalism majors and minors in the three programs.

stated previously, 59 percent in this particular group were teachers with English majors.

It may not seem too significant to note that 13 percent of the journalism minors indicated they had a specific major in a field other than English or journalism. This figure added to the 94 teachers who stated that their major field, however, was not listed (see Figure 4) or who had a major in a field other than English or journalism, shows that, in all, one of every six teachers who responded to the survey was teaching journalism as a collateral field not specifically inter-related, in most cases, with his own major background. Some major fields named included music, art, mathematics, science, library science, speech, physical education, business administration, and Latin.

The few who indicated that their major field was history, economics, or social studies might be expected to have adequate background in handling the news content of the daily press. Just how effective this heterogeneous group of journalism majors and minors appeared to be in developing critical newspaper reading habits with their journalism students, is discussed in the section dealing with the specific type of programs.

The majority of teachers who had majored in journalism are teaching a full-credit course in the subject, which gives them the advantage of teaching with greater depth in the subject and

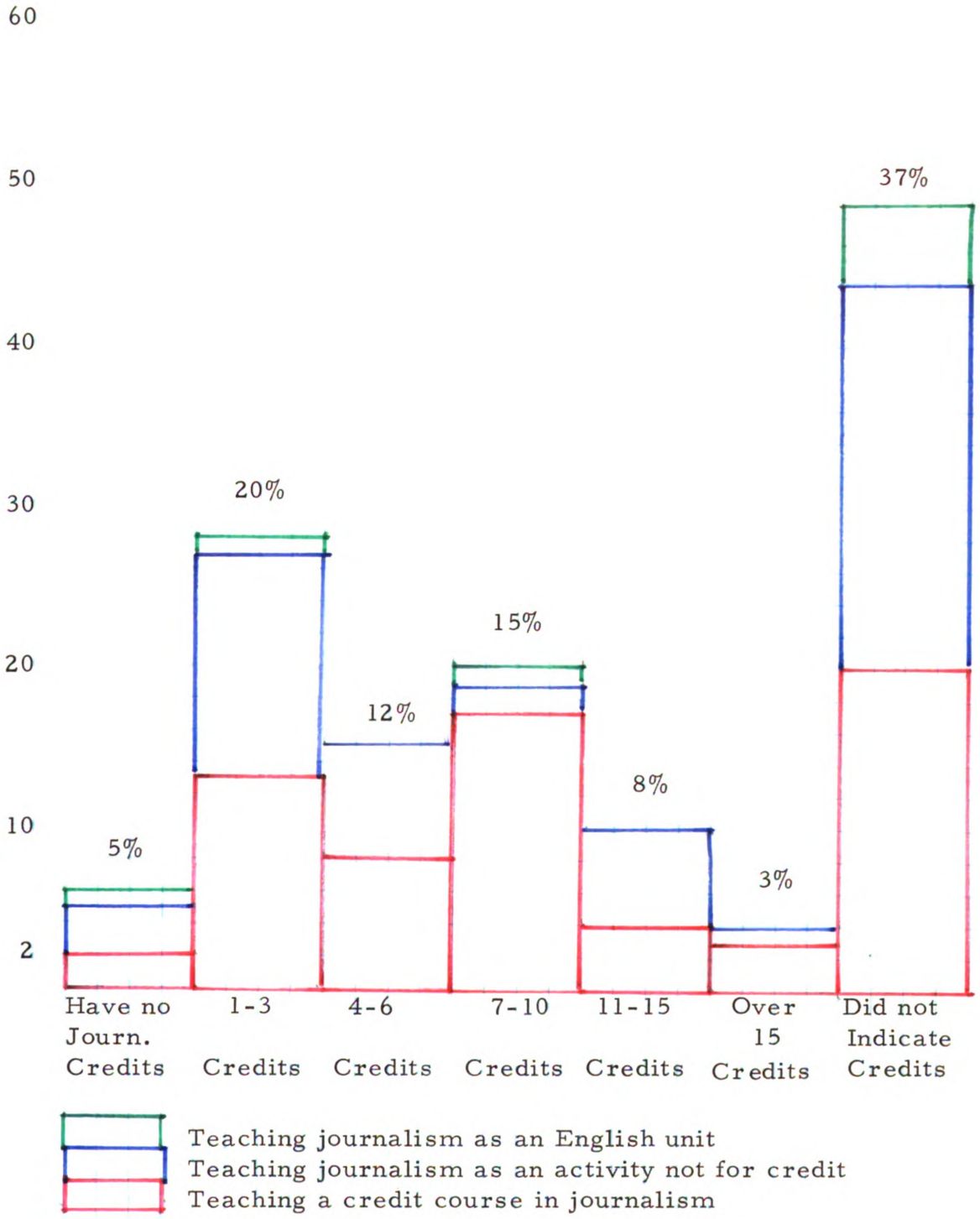


Fig. 4.--Journalism background of 132 teachers whose majors are not known or who indicated majors in fields other than English or Journalism.

with greater consistency in time than would be possible in the other two situations. The teacher who had a master's degree in journalism and who taught the subject as a nine-week unit study in English could not be using his teaching potential to the fullest capacity. This situation, fortunately, was an exception, in that only two majors out of 85 were teaching the English unit. Two respondents with master's degrees in journalism, and three respondents with majors in journalism are teaching journalism as an extracurricular activity.

### Majors Not Listed

Of the 132 teachers whose majors are not known or who indicated majors in fields other than English or journalism, 67 or 51 percent are teaching full-credit courses, as indicated in Figure 4. The majority of those teaching a credit course had earned from 4 to 10 journalism credits. Only two teachers indicated they had no credits in journalism, and seven others had from 11 to 23 credits.

A tabulation of credits of 57 teachers who conducted journalism classes as an activity and not as a scheduled class showed a similar pattern in the journalism background. With the exception of the 24 teachers who did not indicate the number of credits they had earned in journalism, the majority of the remaining number of teachers in this category had from 1 to 6 credits in

journalism. Two had accrued from 7 to 10 credits; six, as many as 15 credits; and one teacher showed he had more than 15 credits in journalism, but failed to indicate his major field.

Thirty-seven percent of the respondents did not indicate what credits they did have in journalism. Had the information been recorded, it could have shown more clearly what background these teachers may have in teaching journalism, which is relevant to this study.

## Geographical Distribution of Teachers in the Three Programs

Of the 3,078 questionnaires mailed in mid-May, 1966, 19 percent, or 598 replies, were received within the first six weeks. All states but three (Alaska, New Hampshire, and Wyoming), the District of Columbia, and the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico were represented. The geographical distribution of teachers with journalism majors and minors, English majors, and teachers whose majors were not known, or who indicated majors in fields other than English or journalism, are shown in Figures 5, 6, and 7.

Teachers from eight states -- California, Texas, Ohio, New York, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Illinois, and Wisconsin -- made the highest number of returns in the order named, accounting for 45 percent of the total number of respondents. California,

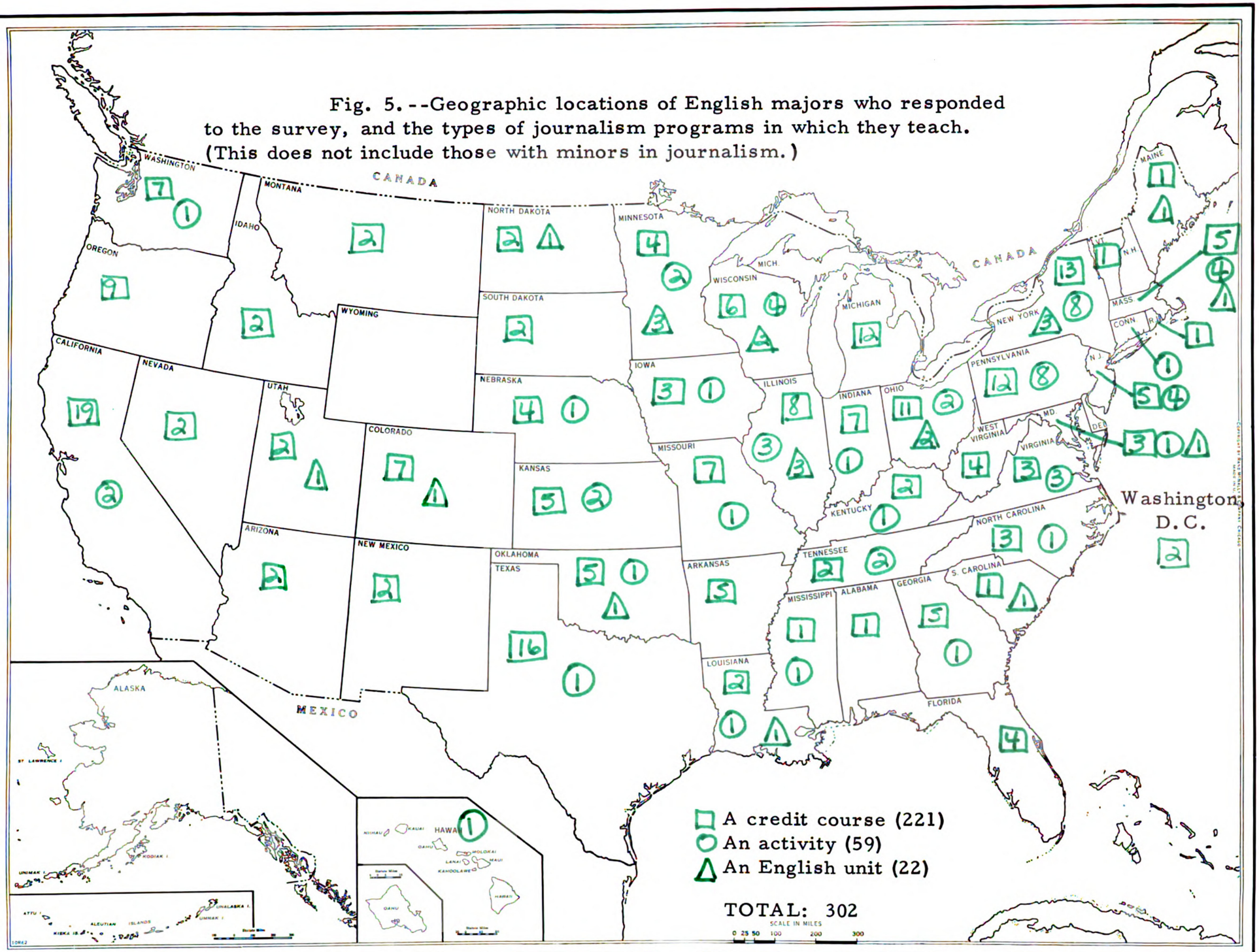


Fig. 5.--Geographic locations of English majors who responded to the survey, and the types of journalism programs in which they teach. (This does not include those with minors in journalism.)

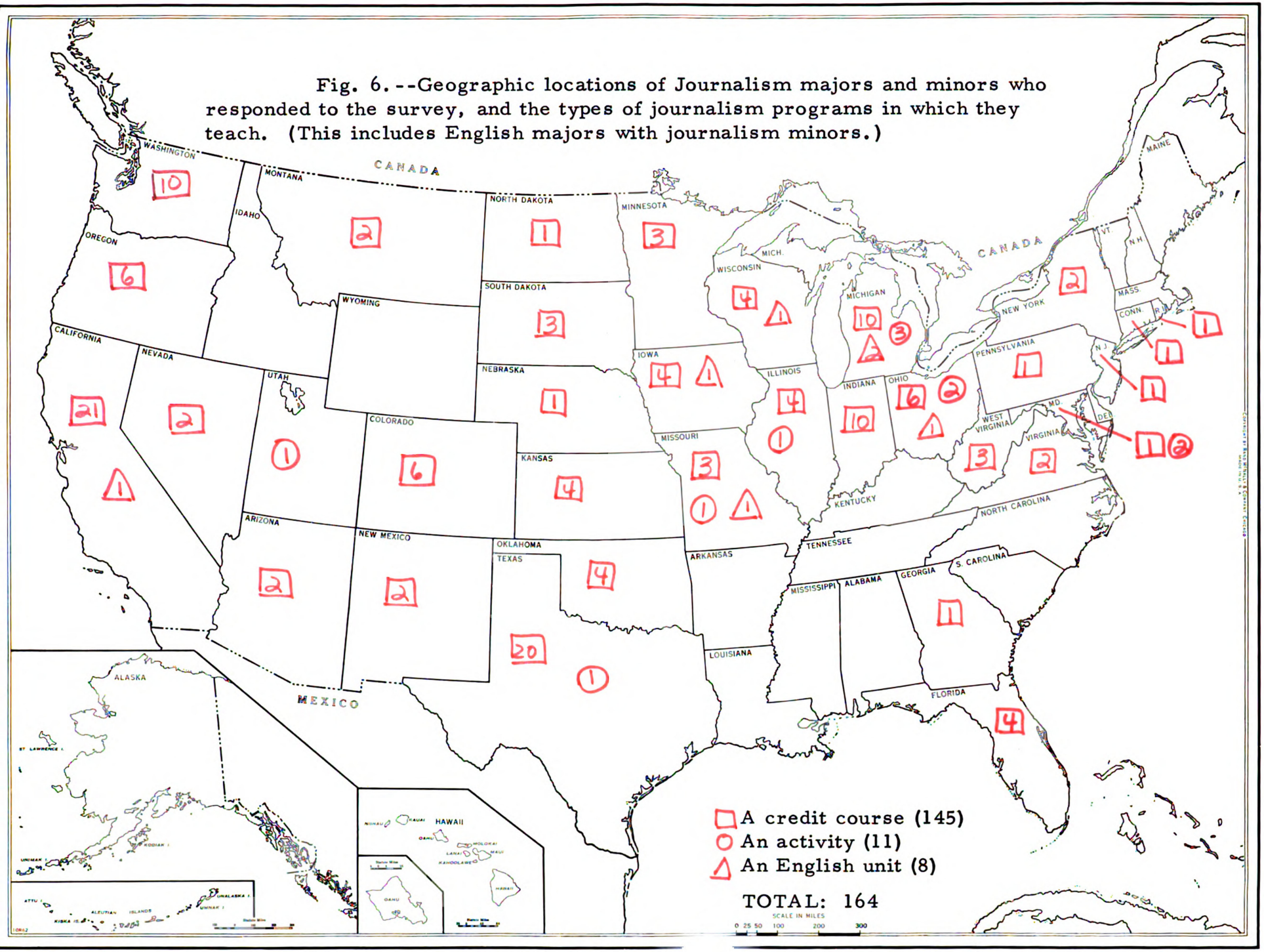


Fig. 6.--Geographic locations of Journalism majors and minors who responded to the survey, and the types of journalism programs in which they teach. (This includes English majors with journalism minors.)

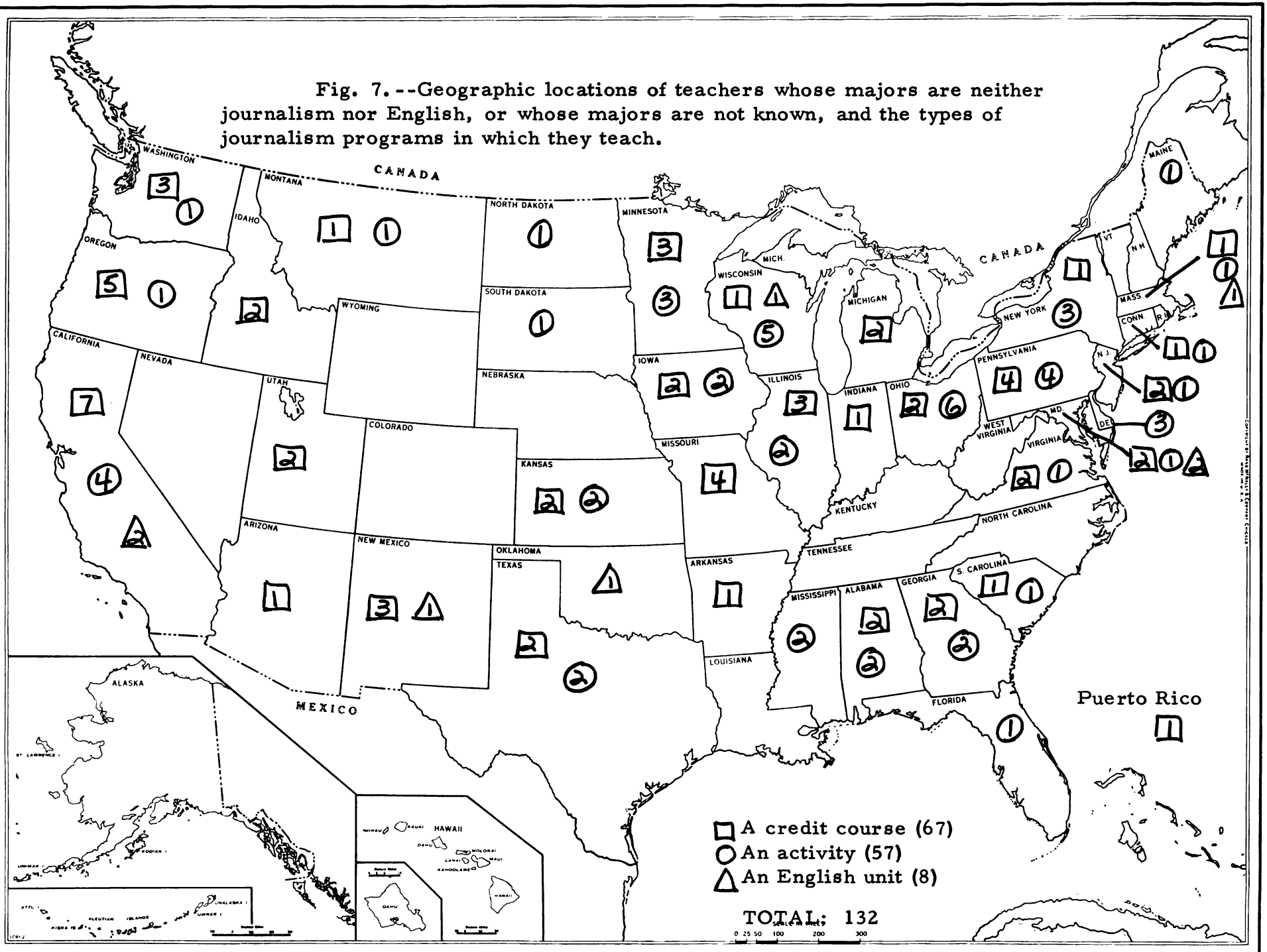


Fig. 7.--Geographic locations of teachers whose majors are neither journalism nor English, or whose majors are not known, and the types of journalism programs in which they teach.

Texas, and the other large states have a greater representation simply because so many teachers in these states have taken advantage of the opportunity for summer study.[1]

California, with 56 respondents, ranked the highest of the reporting states in the number of teachers -- 21 -- who have degrees in journalism or have minors in journalism. These respondents taught the highest number of journalism classes -- 47 -- in a full-credit course; and indicated that 13 or more were teachers whose undergraduate degrees were neither in the fields of English nor journalism; or did not provide the information. Only three respondents taught an English unit program.

Texas ranked as the second highest state with 43 respondents, 21 of whom have degrees in journalism or minors in journalism. Thirty-eight taught credit courses. None of the respondents indicated that journalism was taught as an English unit, and only three replied that they were involved in journalism as an activity not for credit. Thirty-two returns came from Ohio, and 30 from New York. Nineteen Ohio teachers are teaching a credit course in journalism; 20 Michigan teachers conduct a credit course as do 20 more in Washington. Ohio ranks fifth in reporting the number of English majors -- 15 in all.

---

[1]Letter from Patrick W. Kennedy, Assistant to the Director, The Newspaper Fund, Incorporated, Princeton, New Jersey, July 6, 1966.

Fifteen of New York's 30 teachers hold journalism classes for a separate credit but only two of the 30 have a journalism minor. New York, however, has the highest number of English majors -- twenty-four --, 13 of whom are in the credit program, eight teaching journalism in an activity situation and three teaching journalism in an English unit.

Twenty-four of Michigan's 29 teachers are in the full credit program. In the state with third highest number of journalism majors and minors, all 15 of these and all of the 12 English majors are in the credit program. Only two did not designate their majors.

Illinois and Wisconsin have an equal number of journalism majors and minors -- five each -- and have the same number of each in the respective programs. There are eight English majors in Illinois teaching a credit program and three more teaching an English unit program. Wisconsin has four English majors teaching in an activity situation. Seven teachers in Wisconsin and five in Illinois have not designated their majors.

The credit programs are the highest in numbers in all three West Coast states and Texas. Second to this region are the seven states bordering the Great Lakes, namely, Wisconsin, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New York.

While the West Coast states are high in the number of journalism majors and minors, the states bordering the Great

Lakes are high in the number of English majors, and yet, in each state in the Great Lakes region there are more English majors teaching journalism as a full credit course than in any other program in that same area.

States in the New England and southeastern areas have no journalism majors or minors represented in this study.

## Summary

If the tabulated results in this study are any indication, journalism is more readily recognized as a separate course of study than as a unit study in the English curriculum, although almost one-quarter of the total number of respondents who advise a newspaper staff as an extracurricular activity do not teach a formal class in journalism.

English majors are the key teachers of journalism. They represent 59 percent of those teaching journalism as a unit study in the English program; 46 percent of those teaching journalism as an activity not for credit; and 51 percent of those teaching journalism as a separate course for credit. Of the 79 teachers who reported having a minor degree in journalism, 47 were English majors.

Although 22 percent of the English majors did not check what credits, if any, were earned in journalism, the majority of teachers who did respond with this information have earned an average of six credits.

The West Coast states, Texas, and the states outlining the Great Lakes -- Wisconsin, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New York -- returned the highest number of responses to the questionnaires. These two areas, consequently, show the greater numbers in English majors and journalism majors and minors. In each of the Great Lakes area states, however, more English majors teach full credit courses in journalism than conduct the other two programs.

Only 20 teachers in the entire study specifically reported they did not have any credits in journalism, although it is possible that some of these may have attended non-credit summer institutes and workshops in this field. An additional 128 failed to give any information in this regard.

Factual relationship between teacher-background, in terms of credits earned, and teacher ability and willingness to help students develop critical reading skills as defined in this study is discussed in Chapter III.

# CHAPTER III

## HIGH SCHOOL JOURNALISM PROGRAMS

### Introduction

Journalism education at the university level has evolved from three periods of development, according to Edwin Emery in his interpretation of journalism history. In the first period, the emphasis was placed upon establishment of technical courses, and through the persistent effort of early leaders in the field, journalism became associated with social science studies.

"The second phase of journalism education," Emery writes, "saw emphasis placed upon the study of journalism history and of the press as a social institution; as well as widening of instructions to areas other than that of the daily and weekly newspaper."[1] Professor Willard G. Bleyer, who had begun his journalism teaching at the University of Wisconsin in 1904, assessed the growth of a free press in American democracy in a journalism history. In the early 1930's, Professor Nelson Crawford of Kansas State College published a book on newspaper ethics, and these two teachers pointed the way toward integration

---

[1]Edwin Emery, The Press and America: an Interpretative History of Journalism (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1962), p. 736.

of technical training with analysis of the social responsibility of the journalist.[1]

A fuller integration of journalism education with the social sciences was accomplished in the 1930's. It was recognized that journalism students should receive a broad liberal arts education, sound journalistic technical training, and an understanding of the social implications of the chosen profession.[2] By 1960, "the concept of integrating journalism education with the social sciences was fully recognized by leaders in both the schools and the profession."[3]

Journalism education on the high school level, however, eventually was identified with the English program, and, consequently, became a collateral field of teaching for the English major in line with speech, drama, forensics, debate, and the like.

Today, journalism takes on the characteristics of two more types of classes: one that offers journalism as a separate academic subject for credit; and one that places journalism in the category of an extracurricular activity, usually not offered for credit.

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid, p. 737.

[3] Ibid, p. 738.

Questionnaires prepared for each of these three types of classes were mailed to a selected group of high school journalism teachers to determine if and how they were teaching their students to read newspapers critically. The recipient was asked to complete the form that applied to his school situation. Basically, all three questionnaires requested the same information, namely, teacher background, nature and structure of the class, uses of a newspaper, and one question calling for the teacher's opinion in regard to the necessity and method of developing critical newspaper reading habits. Samples of these questionnaire forms are shown in Appendix A.

It was stated previously in the introduction to this study that the author's idea of "critical" newspaper reading habits was deliberately not explained in the questionnaire so that a truer evaluation could be made of what teachers thought this meant. In this chapter, as each program is discussed, it seems evident to the reader what methods are being used in accomplishing what some teachers consider critical reading habits. In most cases, the emphasis is on the negative methods found in the majority of high school journalism textbooks.

## Journalism as a Unit Study in the English Program

Although this program represents only six percent of the total returns, this fact alone is a significant one, and is a

contributing factor in the study. Almost all teachers are English majors, but these teachers are of the majority opinion that the English teacher is not the only one to develop critical newspaper reading habits.

Of the thirty-eight respondents in this program, ten teachers replied that the English teacher should not be the one to guide these students, adding that the social studies teachers, if not all teachers, should share the responsibility. Another twenty qualified their affirmative answers by indicating that social studies teachers must direct a part of this training.

One teacher in the Midwest wrote, "Unfortunately, too many English teachers don't even know what journalistic style of writing is. English majors are literature majors, and do not know how to write, let alone teach writing."

Several teachers indicated that all students should have critical newspaper reading habits, but in view of the fact that not all students want to or are allowed to take a journalism course as such, the required English classes should incorporate these skills.

A journalism major on the Pacific Coast who says she is doing a "superficial" job in using the newspaper writes, "An English teacher should not necessarily be the one but should be one of the teachers doing so. I feel it should be approached by social studies teachers as well."

Time does not seem to be a determining factor in the type of material covered in this program. Three teachers have a two-semester unit in journalism, but the majority -- thirteen -- of teachers in this program spend from two to four weeks on a study of the press. Seven teach a unit covering almost nine weeks. There appears to be little difference in the ways in which these teachers reportedly teach their students to read newspapers critically and habitually.

One teacher in the Middle West for example, taught a unit study in the press that lasted fifteen weeks. Only once in two weeks did he use the local newspaper, and then it was to show the various styles of writing, to find examples of news stories on page one, and to criticise headlines and leads. No guides were given his students to reading the daily press for current events knowledge. The history classes did this, he reported, adding that he believed the social studies classes had the obligation to develop the habit of reading newspapers. This teacher is an English major with five credits in journalism.

On the other hand, another Midwest teacher held a three-week unit-study, placed the emphasis on how a story was being written, taught his students specifically to recognize the various types of news, features and editorial writing, and assigned outside readings for news reports. This teacher has eight

semester hours in journalism. The emphasis on the material in both cases was basically the same, yet the teacher with the fifteen-week program apparently did no more extensive coverage of material than the teacher in the three-week unit.

With few exceptions, all thirty-eight teachers in this program indicated that they taught the students to read critically by recognizing propaganda devices, logically weak editorials, poorly constructed news items, and grammatical and typographical errors. Most of them used a newspaper to point out the various styles of writing. A few required reading assignments in determining what the news contained, not how it was written.

Few teachers, if any, gave any specific guides to reading the daily newspapers for current events knowledge. Most teachers replied that this is the responsibility of the history, or civics teachers. Those who did answer affirmatively qualified their answers by explaining that students need to know how to separate fact from opinion.

There were many noteworthy, yet diverse, opinions offered in discussing whether the English teacher should be the one to develop critical newspaper reading habits in students. A Midwest journalism major answered:

> . . . but the social studies teachers can perhaps do it better. They know much more about current affairs and logic. I have met few English teachers capable of regarding the newspaper as anything more than a vitiating influence on students, and if they feel that way about it,

> I certainly don't think they should be using newspapers in the classrooms. As for doing it in a journalism class or unit, that's o.k., if there's time, but, of course, one reaches far fewer students.

Another teacher expressed the opinion that the English teacher should develop critical newspaper reading habits because "journalism is a writing skill." A New England teacher reported he found using the newspaper useful in some areas as editorials, book, TV and movie criticisms but found little value in using the newspaper for current events and historical content articles.

> English teachers should be those most capable of developing such habits since they should know good writing styles when they see them. English teachers should also be well informed about current events -- as should any teacher worth his salt.

This comment was from a teacher of English in South Carolina.

But a Wisconsin journalism minor strongly disagreed with such reasoning. "The present day English teacher," he wrote, "is not equipped to do so. Often he is, himself, biased against journalism. He lacks the proper attitudes as well as the knowledge and training he would need."

Another journalism minor commented that English teachers tend to be unrealistic -- but idealistic -- in their criticism. "They want every paper to be a New York Times!"

While English majors agree for the most part that developing critical newspaper readers is a shared, if not a

primary, responsibility of social science teachers, English majors who have minors in journalism and journalism majors who are teaching journalism as a unit in English classes have disparaging opinions regarding the English teacher's ability to handle the newspapers. These same journalism majors and minors, however, indicated that they taught students to read critically by one of the following methods: (1) "look at elements of editorial policy, such as headline placement and language, story placement, word connotations," (2) "for propaganda recognition, libel, bias," (3) "relate news events to things we're reading . . . Racial problems to Black Like Me, Huck Finn, etc. . . . ," (4) "use Edgar Dale's How to Read a Newspaper and issues of Practical English," (5) by panel discussions, and (6) commenting on the mistakes or good stories in the local press.

Teachers in this program believe there is a definite need to develop critical newspaper reading habits in high school students, and this is also substantiated by teachers in the other two programs. The question that arises, however, seems to involve the qualification of the teacher and the methods employed to instill critical newspaper reading habits in students. The journalism background of these thirty-eight teachers varies from three credits earned to a master's degree in journalism, and yet there appears to be no discrimination shown in the methods used to develop these skills.

No two school situations are alike, and it would be absurd to expect teachers in every school across the country to accomplish the same results in following the same procedures; but this study shows a possible trend in the journalism education pattern at the high school level. That trend suggests that the emphasis in journalism teaching is on the mechanics of the profession -- the types and styles in writing, the typography and page make-up, editorial verbiage, and word connotations. Teachers seem to imply that to understand the press, it is enough to study its mechanisms. It would be the same to say that the best highway driver is one who knows all about the engine under the hood and nothing more.

## Journalism as an Activity not for Credit and not on Scheduled Curriculum Time

"The purpose of journalism at our school is to produce a school newspaper."

These few words written by a California English major who meets his staff intermittently throughout the month is typical of the teacher who handles journalism as an extracurricular activity. In most cases, he is an adviser instead of an academic journalism teacher. He seldom refers to the local press because, as indicated in this study, he cannot afford the time to divert from production planning of the school paper. He strongly believes

that developing critical newspaper reading habits is vital to a high school journalism program, emphasizing the fact that to achieve this aim, journalism must be an established program in the academic curriculum.

The situations described in this particular program present an erratic picture. In one instance, time is the key factor that determines what is accomplished in the journalism program. Seventy percent of the 127 respondents do not use the newspaper, or in any way refer to it. With few exceptions, lack of time was the main reason given, yet, ten of these teachers held classes daily and among them are two journalism majors and one journalism minor.

Only 22 teachers met their journalism students daily. Thirteen of them used a newspaper primarily as examples of styles of writing, page make-up, and for detecting biased writing and propaganda devices. One teacher reported that the local newspaper was "low standards," and felt that handling high school newspapers provided enough experience in developing critical newspaper reading habits. Another teacher, a journalism major in the Midwest, did not use a newspaper because of the lack of time available, even though he recognized the vital need to teach students to read newspapers critically. "The public will get the type of newspapers it demands," he wrote. "Right now, it's not in a position to demand the right type."

Forty-three percent, or 55, of the teachers in this program met their journalism students one to three times a week. The majority of these teachers were English majors who had minimum credits in journalism or who indicated their major was one other than English or journalism. Almost all who did not use a newspaper were in this group of teachers who held weekly meetings. Only 21 of them used a journalism textbook.

The next largest group of teachers tabulated -- twenty-eight -- met their students only prior to publication of the school paper. One of them, with a master's degree in journalism, used a textbook but not a newspaper, giving the reason as "lack of time available to acquire the background knowledge of press media I would need to feel comfortable in teaching."

Forty teachers used a textbook but more than half of them did not refer to a newspaper. This suggests that the exercises in the journalism books directing students to use the local newspaper as an example of the subject matter studied are not followed.

Short-sightedness in journalism goals is a stigma to teachers in this program. They are impounded by pressures of newspaper production that perhaps, amounts to nothing more than developing mechanical skills in writing a story and placing it on a tabloid-size page. It would seem that classes meeting once

or twice a week throughout the school year are not too infrequent to allow time to cover a broader syllabus of the journalism program. It is true that ability of the student and background of the teacher are influential factors not to be ignored in this consideration.

In this case, however, only five teachers indicated that the newspaper could not be read critically because the ability level of students did not warrant a study of news in depth. Eleven other teachers checked that they themselves lacked the time to acquire the background knowledge of the press. Ten said they believe they did not have adequate ability to interpret current events. The majority merely replied they had no time at all. It appears, therefore, that while student ability may not present a problem in guiding students in reading newspapers critically, what the teacher himself lacks, namely, ability and time, are possible deterring factors in achieving this aim.

## Journalism as a Separate Course for Credit in the Curriculum

From a one-semester course meeting two or three times a week, to a three-year program, journalism was taught as a separate course for credit by 72 percent of the respondents to the survey. This type program compared with the two just studied absorbs the greater number of journalism majors and

minors and English majors, and the least number of majors who are in fields other than the two named or those whose majors are not known. (This comparison was shown in Figure 1 on page 13.)

The findings, therefore, in this particular analysis, most likely have a principal bearing on the results brought out by this entire study.

The data presented in Chapter II on the teacher status showed that, for the most part, those teaching journalism as a separate course for credit average more credits in journalism than those teaching in the other two programs. Consequently, the opinions the teachers in the credit program hold regarding the necessity of teaching journalism students how to read the newspaper critically are noteworthy.

There are only 18 teachers who reported they did not believe that developing critical newspaper reading skills is vital to a high school journalism program. "Students will learn about newspapers by producing them," an Ohio teacher with an English teaching major writes. A Virginia teacher agrees, adding that she found that interest in school exchange papers sometimes leads students to a closer attention to dailies and an evaluation of what is read.

Another English major in New York felt that developing such reading habits were probably important, but not vital. "I

teach journalism as writing, not reading," he added. No newspaper was used in his curriculum because "a journalism book is better."

An Oklahoma teacher, an English major, believes that it is just as important that the student learn to make a good interview as to read a newspaper critically, that the student learn to write an interesting and accurate report in well chosen words.

"I feel this belongs in the English and social studies classes. Journalism class should be devoted to developing writing and editing skills," writes an English major in California.

Time was another facet evident in the opinions of these teachers who do not think that developing critical reading skills is vital to the high school journalist. A teacher with a journalism minor, who conducted a daily journalism class for the year, said that the journalist "hardly has time to produce the school paper, and the daily papers -- of necessity -- are neglected."

The journalism program in a Florida high school was offered for as long as three years. It was taught by a journalism major who feels that developing critical newspaper reading skills is not vital in the sense that the program would collapse without it. "But," he added, "without an interest in the journalistic products available, a portion of the program must necessarily go down the drain." He further indicated that he used the newspaper for enjoyment -- "too often overlooked."

There were five teachers who indicated that they teach a three-year program. One teacher who had no credits in journalism (indicated "experience only") writes,

> We teach (critical reading skills) incidentally. Our approach is from the writer's point of view. We feel competent to teach the media and to teach the children to write and judge weekly their own and others' writing techniques.

Another teacher in the three-year program stressed "elements of style, make-up practices, areas of difference, i.e., editorial opinions, sins of omission," as a means of developing critical newspaper reading habits.

A journalism major in Oregon wrote that most students taking journalism should be able to think critically before taking the course. "Journalism students usually read things far more advanced than newspapers." He would rather have them read opinion magazines and scholarly journals. "Most papers," he added, "show a complete disregard for the reader."

Finally, a Texas teacher answered: "No -- having been a professional journalist for several years, I know too many good newspaper men and women who never read a newspaper other than their own publication except in a casual manner." The best way to teach students to read newspaper critically, he noted, was to

> . . . interest them in journalism. Students, like most other human beings, read and pay attention to what interests them. If the class is dull and uninteresting, little

> can be expected. In a dynamic educational environment, the majority of the students will voluntarily begin additional reading and study of various publications.

One of the reasons why some teachers said they thought that developing critical newspaper reading habits was vital to the high school journalism program seems to be based on their suspicions of news reporting by the press.

> Unless high school students learn to evaluate what is being disseminated under the guise of "truth" they will lose their freedom. Complaisant ignorance (allowing "George" to do it) will end in the U.S. being a robot state under the control of a few masters.

This California teacher, an English major, found lack of time and student ability to study news media in depth the prime difficulties in developing critical reading of the press.

Another West Coast teacher, who has a teaching minor in journalism, reflected the thinking mentioned above when he questioned:

> By 1975, half of our population will be under 35. If today's youngsters do not develop critical reading of all news media, how will they handle the world, nation, and local affairs? A good citizen is a well-informed citizen.

All the methods he used in teaching the students to read critically stemmed from English classes. These were detecting biased opinions, fallacious reasoning, grammatical and typographical errors.

An East Coast teacher with a journalism minor -- former newspaper reporter -- emphasized critical newspaper reading because "without this, we would develop avid newspaper readers who were gullible to half truths and propaganda. This is self-evident." It is interesting to note that this same teacher reported he used a newspaper only to demonstrate news writing, and he lacked the time available to develop adequate understanding and ability to interpret current events needed to use the daily newspaper with students.

The most forceful answer reflecting attitudes of teachers toward the press in its suspected inability to cope with the truth comes from a West Coast teacher with a master's degree in journalism:

> I believe that students should be taught that because something appears in a newspaper it is not necessarily accurate, objective, or even factual. I believe students should know about slanting either by omission or commission. I believe they should be wary of what purports to be news and is actually gossip, rumor, or persuasion. I believe all newspapers either overtly, or covertly seek to form their readers' opinions for them. I believe students should particularly be aware of papers claiming to be objective. I believe newspapers very often create hysteria where there was little or none.

Not all journalism teachers in this program have such adverse opinions of the press. Many of them recognize the need for students to acquire a habit of reading a newspaper for their own benefit in adult life.

A California teacher with a major in the Mass Media wrote, "I believe this (developing critical newspaper reading habits) is the primary purpose of any high school journalism program. We must develop citizens who make the best use of the American press. The production of a paper is secondary."

The informed-citizen theme is again shown in the remarks by an English major who teaches in Arkansas:

> To be an informed voting citizen is most necessary for the growth of one's community. To be informed one must have more than a passing acquaintance with the news media; one must know how to discriminate, to judge the competence of the reporter, to detect bias in reporting, etc. If students do not learn how to read newspapers with some depth while they are in high school, few will ever acquire the ability.

Again, newspaper production is of a secondary importance to a journalism major in Iowa who reports,

> Most of my students will not work full time in a communications vocation. They will have to depend on the mass media for information upon which to build their lives. Therefore, I feel that developing critical reading, listening, and viewing habits is one of my first concerns.

Ability to read newspapers critically was considered the chief "deferred value" that far outweighs the immediate, according to a New Jersey teacher who holds a master's degree in English. He referred to the quotation, "The newspaper is the poor man's university" as a parallel to a release made by the Rutgers Press Association, which said that newspapers are the

only historical document most people will read for the rest of their lives after high school and even college.

It did not seem possible to a teacher in Pennsylvania, an English major, that "journalism could be taught effectively if students could not evaluate other newspapers on the basis for news. We learn through analysis." Other teachers wrote that developing critical newspaper reading habits "justifies teaching journalism in high school" (California), "increases the logic and stresses integrity of reporters" (Illinois), ". . . is a must. Needless to say, if they are headed for a career in the field, they need doubly to be critical readers so they can become better writers" (Texas).

One teacher expressed what seems to be a paradox to emphasize the need for teaching students to read critically: "A student who thoroughly reads papers daily needs no training in journalism."

Few as the above quoted remarks may number in relation to the 434 teachers answering the questionnaire in this particular program, nonetheless, they are the summation of teacher opinions for or against developing critical newspaper reading habits. Their opinions may differ, but the ways in which these teachers conduct their classes are almost stereotyped.

Newspapers are used for examples of news writing, for comparison of major stories with other news media, for propaganda

detection, and in many cases, students are quizzed on current events news, or are assigned reports for a panel discussion on top news. When stating that they "analyze the news," teachers failed to indicate specifically how this was done.

Of the 121 journalism majors and minors, more than 40 percent used newspapers primarily for examples of types of news writing, or for detection of biased or slanted news, or propaganda devices. Another ten of these teachers reported they had no time available to use the paper, yet all but one of them taught a daily class for the year.

Almost 80 percent of the journalism classes scheduled as a credit course met on a daily basis for at least one year. Nearly all classes were on a senior level; all but 58 classes (86 percent) were on a junior level, or included juniors in the class. Forty-three percent of all the classes in this program reached the sophomore level, and as many as 50 classes included freshmen.

The frequency of classes varied from a daily schedule for one year (342), a daily schedule for one semester (69), two to three times a week in a year (8), to a two- or three-year sequence (10).

It appears that with the correlation of three major factors, namely, a qualified teacher, high student ability, and

an established time schedule, journalism as a separate course for credit in the school curriculum would be preferred over the other two programs so far as the effectiveness in developing critical newspaper reading habits is concernod. It is not evident, however, that teachers made the most of the time available to work on developing these habits; but the potential to do so is seen in both the teacher background and the nature of the classes indicated.

# CHAPTER IV

## CONCLUSIONS

A critical evaluation presupposes certain criteria or some basic standards by which a comparison is possible, an evaluation made and conclusions drawn. The 598 journalism teachers who participated in this survey appeared to have had certain criteria in common by which they taught their students how to evaluate the press media, e.g., detecting biased reporting, slanted news, weak or faulty editorials, etc. With such criteria, they hoped to enlighten the present generation of students in critically evaluating the performance of newspapers in a contemporary society.

Teachers with majors in English, who represented 51 percent of the total number of respondents, agreed that there is a definite need for developing critical newspaper reading habits in high school students; however, they indicated that they believed this responsibility must be shared by the social studies teacher. Few journalism majors or minors reflected this thinking, but they used the same methods of approach to the subject matter as did the English majors.

In most cases, it may be that teachers engaged in teaching journalism, regardless of their major fields, may have enough basic background to help their journalism students develop critical newspaper reading habits. The number of credits earned, however, is not the prime factor that determines the ability of the teacher to achieve this goal. The proof of the effectiveness of a journalism teacher to develop these vitally needed reading habits lies in the understanding the teacher has of the nature of the press, and of the nature of the society in which it operates.

Academic journalism is torn between two categories of teachers: those who use it as an avenue of writing only, and those who see it as an avenue of vital information whereby man is informed of the society in which he lives. Until the nature of high school journalism is specifically defined, it will most likely continue to be split between these two points of view.

The lack of time "to do more" with the journalism class is the reason most teachers offer when indicating they do not use a newspaper in the curriculum for purposes of developing critical reading habits. This complaint is shared equally among teachers who have master's degrees in journalism as well as teachers with majors whose fields are neither journalism nor English, and who have but few credits in journalism.

In the same sense, time is no discriminating factor when comparing what is done in the three types of journalism

classes -- the concentrated study running a few weeks in the English program, the extracurricular activity that meets sparingly during the month, or even the full-credit course taught as a daily class throughout the school year.

In all these programs there are teachers who claim that most of their time is absorbed in producing a school newspaper. It would seem that, at least, teaching a daily class in journalism could enhance the program by teaching some broad but pertinent aspects of mass media that would affect the student generation in their adult reading.

It is revealing, and surprisingly so, that journalism is permitted to be taught by teachers of such heterogeneous backgrounds. Aside from the fact that the majority of the respondents in this study are teachers of English with ample credits in journalism, there still remains a significant number of teachers whose major fields are not specifically related in a pedagogical sense to journalism, i.e., majors in art, music, mathematics, science, physical education, or Latin.

Technological progress in mass communications has far out-raced the ability of man to cope with the volume and velocity of information at his immediate disposal. The mass media have made a move to select and interpret what they consider to be man's need to know in order for him to make an effective contribution to his society. By what standards and with whose

permission this is done is contingent upon man's understanding of the nature and function of the press, and his subsequent demands to know the truth of those things affecting his own destiny.

High school journalism educators, themselves, should have some comprehensive understanding of the history, philosophy and ethics of mass communications before teaching future generations how to evaluate the press and its related media.

# BIBLIOGRAPHY

## Unpublished Materials

**Questionnaires completed and returned from a national survey during May and June, 1966, and entitled "Developing Critical Newspaper Reading Habits in Journalism Students."**

## Books

**Ashley, Paul P.** Say it Safely. Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1959.

**Barrett, Edward W. (ed.).** Journalists in Action. Manhasset, N.Y.: Channel Press, 1963.

**Barrett, James W. (ed.).** The End of the World. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1931.

**_____.** Joseph Pulitzer and His World. New York: The The Vanguard Press, 1941.

**Becker, Carl L.** Freedom and Responsibility in the American Way of Life. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1945.

**Becker, Stephen D.** Marshall Field III: a Biography. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1964.

**Bereday, George Z. and Larswerys, Joseph A.** Communication Media and the School. Yearbook of Education. New York: World Book Company, 1960.

**Berger, Meyer.** The Story of the New York Times. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1951.

**Berlo, David K.** The Process of Communication. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1960.

Brucker, Herbert. Freedom of Information. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1949.

Cahn, Edmond. The Predicament of Democratic Man. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1961.

Cater, Douglass. The Fourth Branch of Government. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1959.

Chafee, Zachariah, Jr. Government and Mass Communications. 3 vols. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1947.

Chenery, William L. Freedom of the Press. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1955.

Childs, Marquis, and Reston, James. (eds.). Walter Lippman and His Times. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1959.

Cogley, John, et al. Natural Law and Modern Society. New York: World Publishing Company, 1962.

Cohen, Bernard C. The Press and Foreign Policy. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1963.

Commission on Freedom of the Press. A Free and Responsible Press. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1947.

Cooper, Kent. The Right to Know. New York: Farrar, Straus and Cudahy, 1956.

Corwin, Edward S. Liberty Against Government. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1948.

Cross, Harold L. The People's Right to Know. New York: Columbia University Press, 1953.

Davis, Elmer H. But We Were Born Free. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1954.

Downs, Robert B. The First Freedom. Chicago: American Library Association, 1960.

DuNuoy, Lecomte. Human Destiny. New York: New American Library, 1947.

Emery, Edwin. The Press and America. 2d ed. revised. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1962.

Ernst, Morris L. The First Freedom. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946.

Fletcher, C. Scott. (ed.). Education for Public Responsibility. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1961.

Fowler, Gene. Timber Line: a Story of Bonfils and Tammen. New York: Covici-Friede, 1933.

Gerald, J. Edward. The Social Responsibility of the Press. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1963.

Gierke, Otto. Natural Law and the Theory of Society, 1500-1800. Boston: Beacon Press, 1957.

Hale, William G. Law and the Press. St. Paul, Minn.: West Publishing Company, 1948.

Hocking, Ernest. Freedom of the Press: A Framework of Principle. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1947.

Hudon, Edward G. Freedom of Speech and Press in America. Washington: Public Affairs Press, 1963.

Kaplan, Abraham. American Ethics and Public Policy. New York: Oxford University Press, 1963.

Klapper, Joseph. The Effects of Mass Communication. New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, Inc., 1960.

Lacy, Dan. Freedom and Communications. Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1961.

Lippmann, Walter. The Public Opinion. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1960.

_____. The Public Philosophy. New York: New American Library, 1955.

MacDougall, Curtis D. Newsroom Problems and Policies. New York: Dover Publishing, 1963.

MacDougall, Curtis D. Interpretative Reporting. 4th ed. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1963.

_____. Understanding Public Opinion. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1952.

Maritain, Jacques. The Rights of Man and Natural Law. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1943.

McGlynn, S.J., James. Modern Ethical Theories. Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Company, 1962.

Merrill, John C., et al. The Foreign Press. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University, 1964.

Mott, Frank Luther. American Journalism: A History, 1690-1960. 2d ed. revised. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1962.

Murray, S.J., John Courtney. We Hold These Truths. New York: Sheed and Ward, 1960.

Nafziger, Ralph and White, David. Introduction to Mass Communications. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1963.

Ostrander, Gilman. The Rights of Man in America, 1606-1861. Columbia: University of Missouri Press, 1960.

Parton, James. Life of Horace Greeley. Mason Brothers, 1855.

Peterson, Theodore, et al. The Mass Media and Modern Society. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965.

Pollard, James E. The Presidents and the Press. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947.

Rommen, Heinrich. The Natural Law. St. Louis: Herder Company, 1947.

Scanlan, Alfred L. (ed.). University of Notre Dame Natural Law Institute Proceedings. 5 vols. South Bend, Ind.: University of Notre Dame, 1947-1951.

Schettler, Clarence. Public Opinion in American Society. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1960.

Schramm, Wilbur. Mass Communications: A Book of Readings. 2d ed. Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1960.

_____. The Process and Effects of Mass Communication. Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1961.

_____. Responsibility in Mass Communication. New York: Harper, 1957.

Siebert, Frederick S., et al. Four Theories of the Press. Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1956.

_____. Freedom of the Press in England, 1476-1776. Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1952.

Simon, Yves R. Philosophy of Democratic Government. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1951.

Social Responsibility of Newspress. Milwaukee: College of Journalism, Marquette University, 1962.

Stanlis, Peter J. Edmund Burke and the Natural Law. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1958.

Steffens, Lincoln. The Autobiography of Lincoln Steffens. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1931.

Stokes, Thomas L. Chip off My Shoulder. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1940.

Strauss, Leo. Natural Rights and History. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953.

Swanberg, W.A. Citizen Hearst: a Biography of William Randolph Hearst. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1961.

Tebbel, John. The Compact History of the American Newspaper. New York: Hawthorn Books, Inc., 1963.

Thiem, George. The Hodge Scandal. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1963.

United Nations Department of Social Affairs. Freedom of Information. 2 vols. New York: Lake Success, 1950.

Veatch, Henry B. Rational Man: A Modern Interpretation of Aristotelian Ethics. Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1962.

White, William Allen. The Autobiography of William Allen White. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946.

Wiggins, James Russell. Freedom or Secrecy. New York: Oxford University Press, 1956.

Wright, Charles R. Mass Communication: A Sociological Perspective. New York: Random House, 1961.

## Other Sources

Letter of Patrick W. Kennedy, Assistant to the Director, The Newspaper Fund, Incorporated, Princeton, N.J., July 6, 1966.

TEACHER STATUS: (check one) Journalism major___; Journalism minor___; English major___;
Major not listed ___; Credits in Journalism _____

WHERE IS THIS QUESTIONNAIRE BEING COMPLETED? _____
(name of state)

# APPENDIX A

Developing Critical Newspaper Reading Habits in Journalism Students

JOURNALISM STATUS: A unit study in the English program (with the school newspaper as outside activity)

1. How long is the unit study in journalism?

2. What journalism or English textbook do you use during this study?

3. To what extent do you actually use a newspaper?

4. If it is used for critical analysis, is it from the content approach (WHAT is being said) or from the style and written expression approach (HOW it is being said)?

5. How frequently do you use the newspaper?

6. In what specific ways do you teach your students to read the newspaper critically and habitually?

7. Are your journalism students given any guide to reading the daily newspaper for current events knowledge? Please explain.

8. Should the English teacher be the one to develop critical newspaper reading habits in his students? Explain.

APPENDIX A -- (Continued)

TEACHER STATUS: (check one) Journalism major___; Journalism minor___; English major___; major not listed ___; Credits in journalism ___

WHERE IS THIS QUESTIONNAIRE BEING COMPLETED? _____ (name of state)

JOURNALISM STATUS: A separate course for credit on the curriculum

1. How is your journalism class scheduled?

   a. Daily for _____ (one quarter, one semester, etc.)

   b. _____times a week for _____ (one quarter, one semester, etc.)

2. On what level is your journalism class?

   Freshman___; Sophomore___; Junior___; Senior___

3. Do you believe that developing critical newspaper reading habits is vital to a high school journalism program? Please explain.

4. Do you use a newspaper in a curriculum plan? If YES, how is it used? (check one)

   ___for production or mechanical examples of make-up, headline writing, news development, etc.
   ___for content - news sources are studied, biased reporting detected, editorial ethics analyzed
   Other uses: _____

   If NO, why not? (check one)

   ___lack of time available in curriculum
   ___ability level of students would not warrant a study of news media in depth
   ___lack of time available to acquire the background knowledge of press media I would need to feel comfortable in teaching
   ___lack of time available to develop adequate understanding and ability to interpret current events which I would need to use the daily newspaper with students
   Other reasons: _____

5. In what specific ways do you teach your students to read the newspaper critically and habitually?

APPENDIX A -- (Continued)

TEACHER STATUS: (check one) Journalism major___; journalism minor___; English major___; major not listed ___; Credits in journalism ___

WHERE IS THIS QUESTIONNAIRE BEING COMPLETED? _____ (name of state)

Developing Critical Newspaper Reading Habits in Journalism Students

JOURNALISM STATUS: An activity not for credit and not on scheduled curriculum time

1. How often do your journalism students meet, and for how long a period?

2. What textbook do you use for these meetings?

3. Do you include a critical study of the local newspaper during these meetings? Explain.

4. If YES, in what ways do you use the newspaper?

5. If NO, why not? (check one)

   a. ___lack of time available
   b. ___ability level of students would not warrant a study of news media in depth
   c. ___lack of time available to acquire the background knowledge of press media I would need to feel comfortable in teaching
   d. ___lack of time available to develop adequate understanding and ability to interpret current events which I would need to use the daily newspaper with students

   Other reasons: _____

6. Do you believe that developing critical newspaper reading habits is vital to a high school journalism program? Please explain.

## APPENDIX B

## TABULATION OF RETURNS MADE IN RESPONSE TO NATIONAL SURVEY REGARDING THE DEVELOPMENT OF CRITICAL NEWSPAPER READING HABITS IN JOURNALISM STUDENTS

| State | No. of Questionnaires Sent | No. of Returns Made | Programs Reported | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Eng. Unit | An Activity | Credit Course |
| Alabama | 31 | 5 | - | 2 | 3 |
| Alaska | 5 | - | - | - | - |
| Arizona | 57 | 5 | - | - | 5 |
| Arkansas | 22 | 6 | - | - | 6 |
| California | 280 | 56 | 3 | 6 | 47 |
| Colorado | 56 | 14 | 1 | - | 13 |
| Connecticut | 22 | 4 | - | 2 | 2 |
| Washington, D.C. | 13 | 2 | - | - | 2 |
| Delaware | 8 | 3 | - | 3 | - |
| Florida | 51 | 9 | - | 1 | 8 |
| Georgia | 61 | 10 | - | 2 | 8 |
| Hawaii | 19 | 1 | - | 1 | - |
| Idaho | 20 | 4 | - | - | 4 |
| Illinois | 170 | 25 | 4 | 6 | 15 |
| Indiana | 73 | 19 | - | 1 | 18 |
| Iowa | 89 | 13 | - | 3 | 9 |
| Kansas | 55 | 15 | - | 4 | 11 |

APPENDIX B -- (Continued)

| State | No. of Questionnaires Sent | No. of Returns Made | Programs Reported | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Eng. Unit | An Activity | Credit Course |
| Kentucky | 38 | 3 | - | 1 | 2 |
| Louisiana | 19 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| Maine | 8 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Maryland | 40 | 13 | 3 | 4 | 6 |
| Massachusetts | 53 | 13 | 2 | 5 | 6 |
| Michigan | 142 | 29 | 2 | 3 | 24 |
| Minnesota | 66 | 18 | 3 | 5 | 10 |
| Mississippi | 30 | 4 | - | 3 | 1 |
| Missouri | 67 | 17 | 1 | 2 | 14 |
| Montana | 25 | 6 | - | 1 | 5 |
| Nebraska | 45 | 6 | - | 1 | 5 |
| Nevada | 13 | 4 | - | - | 4 |
| New Hampshire | 4 | - | - | - | - |
| New Jersey | 68 | 13 | - | 5 | 8 |
| New Mexico | 50 | 8 | 1 | - | 7 |
| New York | 215 | 30 | 3 | 11 | 16 |
| North Carolina | 30 | 4 | - | 1 | 3 |
| North Dakota | 29 | 5 | 1 | 1 | 3 |
| Ohio | 107 | 32 | 3 | 10 | 19 |

APPENDIX B -- (Continued)

| | No. of Questionnaires Sent | No. of Returns Made | Eng. Unit | An Activity | Credit Course |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Oklahoma | 44 | 12 | 2 | 1 | 9 |
| Oregon | 73 | 20 | - | 1 | 19 |
| Pennsylvania | 179 | 29 | - | 12 | 17 |
| Rhode Island | 18 | 2 | - | - | 2 |
| South Carolina | 18 | 4 | - | 1 | 3 |
| South Dakota | 23 | 6 | - | 1 | 5 |
| Tennessee | 98 | 8 | - | 5 | 3 |
| Texas | 212 | 43 | - | 4 | 39 |
| Utah | 43 | 6 | 1 | 1 | 4 |
| Vermont | 4 | 1 | - | - | 1 |
| Virginia | 39 | 11 | - | 4 | 7 |
| Washington | 67 | 22 | -- | 2 | 20 |
| West Virginia | 73 | 7 | - | - | 7 |
| Wisconsin | 90 | 24 | 4 | 9 | 11 |
| Wyoming | 10 | - | - | - | - |
| Puerto Rico | 1 | 1 | - | - | 1 |