
college press review

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Freedom of Information
Center Report on the
Student Press

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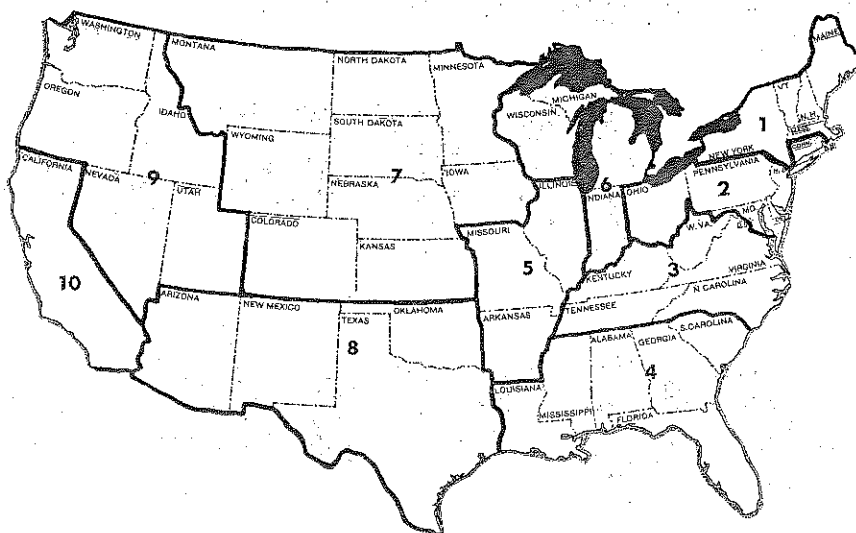
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The fall issue of the *College Press Review* will feature the following articles:

- "Legal Review" by John Behrens will feature a New York Appellate Division decision permitting religious attacks in student newspapers.
- William L. Rivers and Leonard Sellers have given *CPR* permission to reprint their ERIC study, "Student Newspapers in Transition."
- "The Student Press of Puerto Rico" by James Carty will be featured in "International Press Review" column.
- Stuart Showalter reviews *Advancing College Student Publications* by Irwin C. Harris.

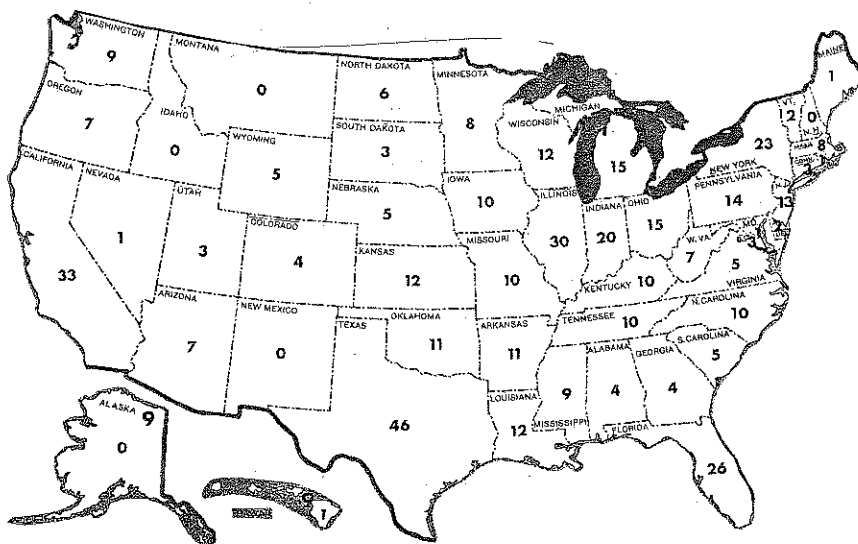
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New NCCPA Districts



Your NCCPA executive council adopted a new district organization that went into effect during the fall semester. This organization attempted to equalize the membership in each district. The district reorganization plan, as proposed, provided for approximately 50 members in each district (this was to be accomplished in the far west by a merger of Districts 9 and 10). At the time the plan was proposed by Glen Kleine of Eastern Kentucky, the largest district had 105 members and the smallest had 17 members. In small district nearly everyone was either a District Chairman or State Chairman. District membership has remained about the same as last year except in District 8 (Southwest) which has experienced extraordinary growth in Texas (where the last convention was held) and District 1 (New England) has lost a large number of members (largely in New York).

Current NCCPA Membership



District Chairmen for 1971-72 are District 1 (New England)—Dr. Dario Politella, University of Massachusetts; District 2 (Northeast)—John Harwick, Point Park College (Pa.); District 3 (Appalachian)—Nancy Green, University of Kentucky; District 4 (South)—Mario Garcia, Miami-Dade North Jr. College (Fla.); District 5 (Midwest)—Opal Eckert, Northwest Missouri State College; District 6 (Great Lakes)—Earl Conn, Ball State University (Ind.); District 7 (Northwest)—Paul D. Brinkman, University of Kansas; District 8 (Southwest)—Dr. William Dean, Texas Technological University; District 9 (West)—E. A. Jerome, Brigham Young University (Utah); and District 10 (Southern Pacific)—Joseph T. Kovach, University of California.

The "Student" Press

Whose Freedom's at Stake?

By Dr. John De Mott
Associate Professor of Journalism
Northern Illinois University

Since so many journalism professors are former editors of "student" newspapers themselves, while few have ever been university administrators, most tend to identify, naturally, with a student editor at odds with his university's administration.

Also, most university newspapers and journalism education programs more or less grew up together, and the over-protective parent relationship of journalism faculties toward even irresponsible student-edited newspapers often continue long after the journalism education program outgrows its embryonic liaison with the university newspaper.

I'm not referring here, of course, to genuine journalism laboratory newspapers, but to newspapers that claim to be independent of the university, while the university administration continues to be held responsible for damage done by a campus rag.

Although many university newspapers are quite professional, in their approach to covering the campus and its news, most often the relationship between journalism professors and campus newspapers is a dysfunctional one.

Involvement in student press politics is one of the real curses of education for journalism in this country, and the heaviest cross sometimes borne by conscientious teachers in their effort to build more hard-nosed schools of journalism deserving of the profession's respect and the public's support.

Again, I'm not talking about real laboratory newspapers under the actual supervision of journalism faculty. More such training facilities are needed obviously, and the fact that misconceived ideas about "freedom of the student press" are permitted to thwart the development of laboratory newspapers is one of journalism education's genuine tragedies.

We can't divorce responsibility from authority, and therefore the person responsible for a publication must exercise the authority over it that is needed to meet his responsibility.

Telling the publisher of any newspaper that he can exercise no control over its decision-making processes, and is barred from formulating its policy, is a most immoral corruption and brutal perversion of democratic theory.

There's another tragedy involved in the train of thought responsible for "freedom of the student press."

At the same time this country's over-crowded and over-burdened universities are experiencing a more and more desperate need for improved communication among members of the academic community, university newspapers are often expropriated by action-oriented members of political factions often representing a minority viewpoint among students themselves, and often representing a minority viewpoint hostile toward the university's basic philosophy.

I'm not advocating that the university newspaper be converted into a public relations organ for the university's administration, but that the university's administration be freed from coerced subsidization of subversive publications, and that it be allowed to communicate directly with its public through a responsible channel.

On the other hand, I'm advocating that the genuine student newspaper be set free—free of things like the stigma of subsidization by either the university administration or the student government (if it's being subsidized, then student politicians should perhaps be able to establish the newspaper's policy), the resentment of journalism students doing forced labor on the paper, or the compromising practice of academic credit given for extra-curricular activity.

Most of the existing conditions under which "student" newspapers are published are either degrading or an outrage against the university and its administration.

There should be no—repeat NO—connection of *any kind* between a university and the "student" newspaper if the paper's claim to an independent status comparable to that of the professional press is to be seen as legitimate.

At about this point in a conventional discussion of "student press freedom," emotion frequently takes over.

In order to discuss the problem of the "student" press rationally, rather than hysterically, we must break one of the academic community's sternest taboos—the taboo against questioning the idealism, sincerity, or good intentions of college students. But let's tell it like it is; students are no more idealistic, no less materialistic, no more sincere, no less hypocritical, no more altruistic, no less phoney, no more incorruptible, no less selfish, and no more hesitant about exploiting other people to promote their own vested interests than the rest of society.

We do our social system, the establishment, ourselves—and our students, too—an injustice in not challenging the myth of the Super Generation, the elite mentality, and the New Bigotry which infects today's campus upon occasion.

Once we dispense with the ridiculous premise that university administrators are evil old men bent upon oppressing the innocent little kiddies putting out the university's newspaper, then it becomes possible to discuss the "student" press and its problems intelligently.

As in discussing any newspaper's problems, the point of departure has to be the publisher.

Who IS the publisher of a university newspaper, anyway?

In most cases, after the facade of academic affectation, pretension, and just plain political hokum has been stripped away, the publisher turns out to be the university.

If the university administration is responsible, and is—in fact—the publisher, then it ought to BEHAVE like a publisher.

Being the publisher, the university administration should see that the newspaper's publication is responsive to the needs of the university and its academic community, and that the newspaper is edited responsibly.

Now, what KIND of a publisher should the university administration be.

That's another question, of course, the best answer to which depends upon considerations, conditions, and circumstances that vary widely from time to time and from place to place.

Perhaps the toughest obstacle to be overcome in conducting a rational discussion of university newspapers is the popular misconception that ALL such newspapers ought to be alike.

Under the influence of what a friend of mine has called "creeping totalitarianism"—the idea that all the institutions of a social system ought to be involved in the same effort, and therefore, all universities ought to be alike, all newspapers ought to be alike—many assume that an ideal type exists for the university newspaper, and that all university newspapers must conform to that model.

In order to obtain such conformity, it is sometimes argued, intimidation and outright coercion is justified. The end justifies the means, it's argued, especially when the end is seen to be some euphemistic thing like "freedom of the student press."

In a pluralistic social order like our own democratic system, however, universities are never going to be all that standardized. Nor should they all be alike. In the educational establishment, as in other parts of a democratic social order, there should be extensive diversity.

When the educational objectives, organizational structure, life styles and other features differ from university to university, it's childish to think that such differences are not going to be reflected in newspapers published at different institutions.

Each university's administration has to decide—on the basis of that institution's peculiar purposes, commitments, and needs—what kind of newspaper it is going to publish.

And unless freedom of the press is only an empty and hypocritical slogan, then the university administration must be able to translate its responsibility as publisher of the newspaper into general editorial policy.

The paranoid premise that the most dangerous threat to a campus paper's freedom is the university administration is resented—naturally, and with full justification—by university administrators. It's like saying that a professional newspaper's freedom is threatened most seriously by its publisher, and that therefore the publisher shouldn't have anything to say about how a newspaper is edited or otherwise managed.

It's a bit hazardous, of course, to draw analogies between the professional press and newspapers published by universities. Too many analogies that aren't sound are being drawn already.

For example, under the fiction that a university administration, faculty, and students comprise a meaningful microcosm of the greater social system, with students being more or less constituents of the university administration, the student editor of a university's newspaper is tempted to see his relationship to the university's president as comparable to that of a professional publisher's relationship to his city's mayor.

No conclusion could be more unjustified, of course, but embattled student editors often "sucker" professional newsmen into adopting that point of view and interjecting themselves into an internal affair under the mistaken idea that they're defending freedom of the press.

We underrate students, badly, when we assume that they're incapable of recognizing the difference between

the relationship of a campus newspaper to the university administration and the professional publisher's relationship to government officials in a political community.

Like any other abstract principle, freedom of the press must come to grips with reality at some point, on some specific level. The operating level, for freedom of the press, is the point of publication. The publisher is the agent through which freedom of the press must be exercised. In the case of a professional newspaper, the publisher is the owner—or an executive to whom the owner has delegated his authority. And in the case of a university newspaper, the publisher is the university administration.

Each university administration, it seems to me, must make up its own mind about the delegation of its authority as publisher of the university's newspaper.

It should delegate as much authority as practical, I think, but it must reserve sufficient power to make certain that the newspaper is edited responsibly, in a manner responsive to the educational aims and objectives of the institution.

The first consideration of the university administration must always be, however, the preservation of its OWN freedom of the press—its freedom of decision and action as publisher of the university's newspaper.

What the university needs most desperately at this time, if it's to serve as an effective medium of both reliable public information and communication between elements in the academic community, is freedom from control by a campus clique bent on promoting its own vested interests. The newspaper needs freedom to serve the ENTIRE academic community without discrimination. It's a subsidized monopoly, and must be kept free of control by a minority which might convert it into a propaganda organ devoted to furthering the aims of one faction.

Only a strong university administration can give that kind of freedom to a university newspaper, and protect such a paper's independence from political pressures exerted on behalf of factions outside the academic community and also factions of the student body within.

Getting down on the most elemental level of the problem, the university administration has an obligation—as publisher of the university newspaper—to protect members of the academic community from naked libel and other journalistic crimes against basic human dignity and decency.

This all means, of course, that some elements of the student body would see the need for a supplementary news medium dedicated to serving their own special interests. Fine. In most of today's huge multiversities, there is ample room for both a true university newspaper and a separate "student" newspaper. The "student" newspaper should be on its own, however, with NO subsidy, special privileges, or other obligation (except its moral obligation under journalism's code of ethics) to the university.

Independent student newspapers, obviously, should enjoy an absolute freedom from the university's control. However, each should be under the same legal obligations as the professional press.

Again, responsibility and authority are opposite sides of the same coin. If a university administration has the power to establish higher standards of performance for the university's newspaper, then it must accept the responsibility. And it should do so willingly. Even eagerly.

The publisher of a newspaper is the publisher. Period.

FOI Report No. 260

Student Press Revisited

The student press struggle for press freedom is marked with frequent successes by school administrations in cur-tailing campus press practices which conflict with school policies. At times, this has been done despite obvious first amendment violations.

That the student press, both high school and college, has failed to achieve much in the way of press freedoms can be attributed to three major factors: 1. Few campus papers have achieved the financial independence that might guarantee their autonomy. 2. The established press has not fully committed itself to the cause of the student press. 3. The courts have not yet determined the extent to which first amendment guarantees apply to student publications.

Although guidelines for administration-student press relations have been established by various national groups, they are not yet accepted by administrators on a nation-wide scale. In desperation, student editors turn more frequently to the courts which deal with the cases on an ad hoc basis. It is these individual cases which reveal a trend toward the defining of academic press freedoms in somewhat the same light as that of the established press for college publications. However, high school journalism is often viewed differently by the courts.

Campus Press 1971

A study by the National Council of Publications Advisers (NCPA) in May of 1969 found a surprising unanimity among student editors and faculty advisers on standards of controls, taste, financing, freedom and adviser-student publication relations. They agreed that the purpose of the school paper is to "inform, educate, and entertain."

However, writes H. C. Hudgins, Jr. (*Wake Forest Intramural Law Review*, 12-69), "The individual who has not read a recent issue of a college newspaper may be in for a shock, particularly if he has assumed that the content of the paper has not changed materially." Apparently, the campus paper's function has remained constant — but judgment of precisely what is informative, educational and entertaining has changed. At the 1970 national conference of the U.S. Student Press Association, delegates concluded

"Toils of the College Press" (FOI Report No. 180) documents the college press struggle against controls. It concludes that the college press "toils long and hard . . ." and that "its fight is a continuing one." The fight today is also an expanding one, which now involves the high school press as well as the college press.

Revisiting the student press, this report by JEAN STEVENS, editorial assistant at the Center, examines how far its toils have taken it.

that: 1) campus papers are increasingly in conflict with administrators and legislators, and the 2) the conflict rises out of a switch, in recent years, in content from football scores and campus beauty queens to political relevance (*Christian Science Monitor*, 9-1-70).

As it grows more politically involved, the campus press also becomes bigger business and more important in the eyes of the established press. Today's 1,800 college papers have a circulation of six million, approaching 10% of the circulation of all American dailies. Microfilming Corporation of America, subsidiary of the *New York Times*, has announced (*New York Times*, 5-28-70) it will publish or microfilm the complete editions of 14 college newspapers on a continuing basis because, president Milton Mandel says, the papers provide "valuable social documents and furnish unusual insight into today's headline stories and major issues."

Free Press Principle v. Practices

The surface conflicts may be specific and concrete when student journalists and administrators clash, but their origins are not always readily pinpointed. Beneath apparent issues (obscenity, political militance, etc.) are more basic disagreements. Both students and administrators may desire a free and responsible academic press, but sometimes interpret differently their first amendment guarantees and their editorial responsibilities.

In his article, Hudgins cites an early conflict at the University of Georgia. In 1953, the student publication *Red & Black* editorially supported racial integration. A university regent, himself a newspaper publisher, wrote:

I have tried to explain to the editors that in their juvenile damn foolery they were hurting the University and the cause of education in the state. I frankly told them that the money for the operation of the *Red & Black* would be discontinued unless they could do a better job.

In a recent blow-up involving Stanford University's *Daily*, an article written by an ex-student (*National Review*, 1-26-71) advocated beating and knifing political informers. Stanford president Richard W. Lyman called the article a "journalistic atrocity", and discounted the editors' free speech defense. "It is not an expression of opinion when you incite people to stick knives in other people." *Daily* co-editor Marshall Kilduff countered, "We all live in an era when a lot of violent rhetoric is said over and over again," with "our national leaders the chief criminals in that respect." President Lyman then suggested the paper think about severing its financial connections with the university.

Hudgins describes the press freedom issue as a frustrating experience for both sides. Student editors resort to extreme tactics to make their publications relevant and administrators feel compelled to tone down the extremity to protect the institution's integrity.

Dissenting from the Supreme Court's decision in *Tinker v. Des Moines*, which upheld free speech in secondary schools, Justice Hugo L. Black was (*Cleveland State Law Review*, 1-70) exasperated with high school students' involvement in controversial political issues. In his opinion, secondary school students "are not wise enough, even with the Court's expert help from Washington, to run the 23,390 public school systems in the United States." He further suggested a return to old-fashioned school discipline and old-fashioned parental control, advocating that students be repressed enough to keep their minds on their studies and get educated.

Ira Glasser, associate director of the New York Civil Liberties Union, took up the other side. Defending a suspended high school student and contending violation of his civil rights, Glasser said (*Saturday Review*, 2-15-69):

In the classroom we teach freedom, but the organization is totalitarian. The kids learn that when the values of freedom and order conflict, freedom recedes.

Or, quoting the mother of a student engaged in a free expression battle with the school administration, "You teach them such good values, and then when they go ahead and act on them, all this happens."

Freedom and Responsibility

On responsibility, a Freedom of Information Center Position Paper says ("Freedom of the College Press," 1965):

Ideally, there should be an accepted tradition of freedom of the press at academic institutions and with this tradition should go commensurate responsibilities. Responsibility means many different things to different people. . . . (It is not) as simple as the all too easy dichotomy, 'the responsible free press versus the irresponsible censored paper' suggests.

Even a few examples of divergent concepts of responsibility indicate how wide a semantic gap lies between the student publication and any definition of responsibility as fool-proof guideline.

To George Murphy Jr., editor of the *Manteca, Calif., Bulletin* (*Grassroots Editor*), responsibility is not the student editor's ("students who edit newspapers in high schools and colleges have a difficult time understanding that an editor does not have the final say") but the administrators. Murphy sees the administration as a publisher with a tax-paying constituency.

Horace G. Davis Jr., professor in the College of Journalism and Communications at the University of Florida, believes (*Editor & Publisher*, 3-22-69) the student press should operate as the community press does. Reflecting community press standards, the article writer quotes the 1923 Canons of Journalism, adopted by the American Society of Newspaper Editors: "The right of a newspaper to attract and hold readers is restricted by nothing but consideration of the public welfare."

Another version of responsibility guided (*Look*, 2-18-69) the former editor of Wayne State's *South End*, John Watson:

I'm not a traditional campus newspaperman. There's nothing in the (old campus paper) that was relevant to me. We (blacks) are not interested in the 'honor' of running a paper. The only validity we can give for being down here running around with college students is aiding the revolution.

Student editors and faculty advisers polled in the NCPA study agreed that ideally, student editors should accept legal responsibility for all publication activities. Faculty respondents added that the institution should share that responsibility.

Although the chief counsel of the University of California believes (*Syllabus*, Spring, 1971) universities' responsibilities could extend to liability for what appears in a student publication, a panel of journalists disagreed. Suggesting publication independence of the institution as the "panacea for libel suits," the journalists noted that their survey did not find "a single case of libel judgment against a college newspaper or against a college or university."

Little agreement has been reached (FoI Position Paper, 1-65) on whether the prime responsibility is to the news source, writers, those criticized or the institution. Even if there were agreement, the Purdue controversy illustrates (*Look*, 2-18-69) the difficulty of distinguishing between censorship and enforced responsibility.

The *Purdue Exponent's* editor, William R. Smoot III, was fired by Purdue president Frederick L. Hovde, presumably over obscene language used in an attack on Hovde. But according to the *Exponent's* senior staff and associate editor, the issue was not the obscenity ("We used the words before without trouble."), but the attack on the president.

Conflict Analysis

Student publications also clash with other students and printers, although the majority of conflicts involve administrators. Generally, disagreements with other students follow political/racial lines; with printers, obscenity; with administrators, politics, obscenity, public relations, religion and even dress codes.

A scrawled sign, "The editor of the *Pioneer* is a Racist Pig," heralded (*Editor & Publisher*, 7-5-69) a 60-student invasion of editor Karen Holzmeister's office, threats of violence, and public burning of the Hayward College paper. The paper contained the disputed editorial which criticized black athletes' actions at the 1968 Olympic Games, Mexico City.

At the University of California, Berkeley, the *Daily Californian* editor was threatened with violence by 30 students for not printing their submitted letters. The Fresno City College newspaper published a photograph of three black children in the "See no evil, hear no evil, speak no evil" stance. The Black Student Union protested that monkeys are usually shown in that pose, and the paper was suspended.

Students sometimes register opposition to the campus newspaper by starting (*Time*, 12-12-69) a newspaper to air opposing views. Harvard's *Crimson*, objective in straight news but with editorials often reflecting the staff's

New Left faction, now has a politically moderate rival in the *Independent*. At Massachusetts Institute of Technology, at least five papers represent different shades of the student political spectrum.

The most apparent result of student opposition has been self-imposed controls, as *Crimson* president James Fallows implies: "Undoubtedly, it's made us check harder into what we cover."

According to Susy Schmidt, editor of College Press Service in Washington, D.C., a subtle control form is developing (*The Quill*, 1-69) as numerous printers refuse to set obscenities in type.

As is the case with publication-student disagreements, publication-printer conflicts have not yet gone to court and are usually resolved on a local extra-legal basis. At the University of North Dakota, the *Tyro* editorial staff resigned (*Newsletter on Intellectual Freedom*, No. 5, 9-69) when the University Press backed by the University Board of Publications, refused to print a poem with an "obscene," four-letter word. Subsequently, the Board rescinded its earlier vote and ruled that *Tyro* was to be printed in full, including the controversial poem.

Censorship by printer temporarily stands (*Columbia Missourian*, 3-15-70) in St. Louis, on the Washington University campus. *Student Life* editors agreed to a private printing firm's demand to replace "objectionable" words with dashes.

Neither *Student Life's* nor *Tyro's* printers indicated whether they objected to printing obscenity on ethical grounds, whether union contracts exempted them from setting obscenities in type, or whether they feared involvement in an obscene materials court case as they did at the University of Kansas. Fifty K.U. printing service employees walked off (*Kansas City Times*, 2-21-70) their jobs when the chancellor guaranteed non-interference with a Black Student Union publication. The printers said setting three obscene words in the issue would make them vulnerable to obscenity charges.

Administrators themselves did initiate (*Audience Unlimited News*, May 1969) at least one political conflict with a student publication. The Rochester Institute of Technology Reporter ran a satirical war-protest article, "Wonder Woman Meets G.I. Joe," illustrated by a photo of a soldier with a girl dressed in bunting "and very little else." Three indignant RIT students took the picture to the State Police, and swore out arrest warrants charging the editor, photographer and article writer with "defaming the American flag" under the New York State General Business Code. Even though the "flag" material was the type of bunting used to decorate politicians' platforms and the business code excluded the press, the RIT administration sided with the police and invoked the right to censor future Reporter issues.

Wayne State University president William R. Keast suspended (*New York Times*, 7-13-69) *South End*, one of the nation's most politically controversial student newspapers. Keast said "its publication would do serious damage to Wayne State University and to the future of student journalism here."

The unique factor in this suspension was its timing. When 1967 editor Art Johnston enlarged coverage on such issues as marijuana and the draft, he also sought to make the paper more responsive to Detroit's southside ghetto where Wayne State is located. In 1968, Johnston backed John Watson (then editor of the black revolutionary paper

FOI CENTER REPORT NO. 260 STUDENT PRESS REVISITED

Inner City Voice) to succeed him as *South End* editor. Watson dedicated the paper to a black Marxist revolution and the Black Panther Party. The administration did not act against the newspaper, even though the board of governors ordered an investigation of it. The state senate was also investigating alleged subversion on state college campuses, accompanied by speculation that the paper's revolutionary character would embarrass Wayne State at appropriations time.

When Cheryl McCall took over the *South End* as 1969 summer editor, the administration cracked down, suspending the paper and scrapping an issue containing "articles on radical life-styles and cultural repression in the United States."

George Gullen, vice president for university relations, first stated the suspension occurred because of "both the language and the contents," but later said "curse words" had appeared in previous editions and were not the central factor. Gullen said Keast had not suspended the paper earlier because he was "concerned about censorship." Miss McCall suggested the suspension's timing was "tactically correct," and implied Keast would have been embarrassed to censor a black editor. Gullen's statements do not explain why Keast was less concerned about suspending the McCall-edited paper.

Obscenity and Morals

Early appearances of four- and twelve-letter words seemed to be an issue in itself. Now, however, obscenity is regarded (*National Observer*, 1-2-69) as a symptom of the campus journalist's activism in protest.

Most college newspapers do not publish obscene material. So far, it has appeared on campuses where press freedom is an established principle. At Mount Holyoke, for example, acting president Meribeth Cameron said the *Choragos* is free to publish whatever its editors decide. Julie van Camp, *Choragos* editor, defends use of obscenity, saying it is "necessary to accurately report the extreme, radical left."

Other student editors argue that obscenity aids their rebellion against a society imposing its standards on the student community. University of Wisconsin *Daily Cardinal* editor, Joel Brenner, writes that "the horrible alternatives our society presents us for asserting integrity (to run our own lives) — in our learning, in opposing this war and the draft—constitute the truly obscene case before us."

Whatever the rationale behind use of obscenity, Chicago *Sun-Times* reporter William Braden raises (*The Quill*, 1-69) the question of whether obscenity is a good tactic:

Some critics suggest that the students in a sense are selling out by diverting so much of their energy and idealism to the defense of their four-letter words that this clouds the more important issues, as well as alienating vast segments of the society who might otherwise be sympathetic.

At both Purdue and Wayne State, obscenity was mentioned as a reason for censoring otherwise-controversial material.

Though politics and obscenity account for most suspensions, administrators have occasionally suppressed the

college press out of concern for institutional public relations, or their simple dislike for subject matter treated.

The 42-year-old *McKendree College Review*, Lebanon, Ill., was ordered (St. Louis *Post-Dispatch*, 4-9-70) to cease publication by the Board of Trustees executive committee, for "irresponsible journalism." An unnamed faculty member commented that "the administration was fearful that publication of articles about drugs and alcohol, even though factual, might offend the private school's benefactors, most of them affiliated with the United Methodist Church."

In Moorhead, Minn., Concordia College president Joseph L. Knutson suspended (American College Press *News Roundup*, 12-70) the *Concordian* for general editorial policy and a published advertisement of an abortion service. Knutson said suspension would continue "until all interested parties can come to some agreement as to the nature and purpose of the college paper in harmony with the ideals and goals of Concordia."

Expressing "shock and disappointment" over a "Death of God" editorial, Mississippi's Board of Trustees of Institutions of Higher Learning demanded (New York *Times*, 11-22-70) that faculty editors approve all future campus publications. (The Board eventually withdrew this order after protests by students, faculty, and professional journalists throughout the state.)

A Missouri high school paper's articles and editorials criticizing the student dress code resulted in the firing of the paper's faculty adviser (*Calvin v. Rupp*: brief filed by plaintiff in the E. District of Mo. U.S. District Court, 11-70).

Tax Exemption

Even if student publication editors manage to resolve their differences with peers, printers and administrators, they will still face (New York *Times*, 12-21-70) a financial dilemma. Most college papers receive subsidy from the institutions they serve, and most universities have a federal tax exemption prohibiting involvement in electoral politics. Last June, an American Council on Education report warned that participation in any campaign for public office could endanger the tax exemption.

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12 Wages, salaries, tips, etc. (Attach Forms W-2 to back. If unavailable, attach explanation) 13a Dividends (10% tax) 13b Tax exclusion 14 Interest. Enter total here (also list in Part II of Schedule B) 15 Income other than wages, dividends, and interest 16 Total (add lines 12, 13, 14, 15) 17 Adjustments 18

Please attach Copy B of Form W-2 to back

Columbia University's *Daily Spectator* is being reviewed for tax-exempt status by the Internal Revenue Service (IRS). In 1966, the *Spectator* applied for tax exemption. In 1968, the *Spectator* endorsed political candidates in its

editorial column, including Eldridge Cleaver for president. If its exemption were revoked, the *Spectator* would have to pay "up to \$9,000" per year for its office space at Columbia University.

IRS claims it has no "centralized" record of how many other student newspapers are being similarly reviewed. IRS activity in itself is not direct censorship, since agents are doing their job of enforcing a law. But why IRS is just now getting around to enforcing that particular law is the question posed by Dario Politella, associate professor of journalistic studies at the University of Massachusetts and coordinator of the commission on the Freedoms and Responsibilities of the College Student Press (*Seminar Quarterly*, 3-71).

To Politella, the censorship danger lies more in over-reaction to the "witch hunt" than actual imposition of restraints on press freedom. "For it takes but a single story on the front page of the New York *Times* to send historically timid educators into orbits of ever-increasing concentricity until, as is known from the study of the Yahoo bird, they end up inside themselves, exclaiming YAHOO!" Indeed, with the tax exemption in mind, several university administrators have already issued (New York *Times*, 12-21-70) protective guidelines. Chancellor Glenn S. Dumke, of the California state college system, advised San Jose State's *Spartan Daily* editors to discuss issues editorially but not endorse candidates. At Berkeley, the administration reestablished political restrictions on the *Daily Californian*.

And, in what Politella terms "a classic case of over-reaction", St. John's University issued a 10-point policy to dissociate the University from the 1970 election campaigns. With the policy statement was a warning to the student paper, *Downtowner*, saying the University did not want the paper "to print editorials, feature stories, signed columns or letters to the editor that in any way deal with the political campaigns (although the University saw) no problem with straight news stories." But, "the University may not mail the *Downtowner* off campus if such stories appear." When the paper objected to the university's squelching "several constitutional freedoms in its attempt to cover itself on one IRS regulation," the SJU president reacted by suggesting that student newspapers could "get the hell off campus" because the university was liable for them. In its final word, the university stated it would stand on its guidelines and insist that any violation would be between the *Downtowner* and IRS.

A potential financial hang-up affecting all state-supported schools arose in September, 1970, when the New York State Supreme Court issued an injunction against the State University of New York at Albany and its campus student association from further expenditures until the Board of Regents reviewed and approved the budget.

As the Washington University (St. Louis) *Student Life* pointed out, this decision "makes it possible for any student in any state-supported school to move for a restraining order against his own student government, providing that the government funded itself through a mandatory activity tax. . . . Any such student expenditure not approved by the Board of Trustees would constitute illegal use of such funds."

Because the ruling affects campus media, supported by student activity fees, the Albany campus paper and radio station are considering legal action in a federal court to

raise the constitutional question of freedom of the media from suspension by the Board of Trustees.

There are bills being introduced in the New York legislature which would require administrators of all public universities and colleges to censor offensive material, including one bill that would empower the state education commissioner to fire the president of a state college for permitting publication of irreligious material in the school paper.

Preventing Controls

When Norman E. Isaacs was executive editor of the *Louisville Courier-Journal* and president of the American Society of Newspaper Editors, he headed (Chicago *Tribune*, 1-18-70) a special commission which conducted an eight-month study of college press problems. The study, made for the University of California, examined campus papers throughout the country. In January, 1970, the commission released its 154-page report, "The Student Newspaper."

Its key recommendations were to increase competence of student journalists through special seminars, settle the obscenity issue, reach financial independence, establish publications boards in a publisher role, and have acknowledgment by officials that student papers are not to be considered official university voices.

Until campus press-administrator relations reach the milenium implicit in the commission's recommendations, student editors must continue to cope with the situation as it exists. What are some of the campus press's alternatives? Papers could move off campus, or remain on campus but financially independent. Papers could push for acceptance of the detailed guidelines for campus press and administrators, established by various national groups. The established press could temporarily defend academic press freedom. Or, campus newspapers could take their cases to court and rely on precedent-setting decisions. Each alternative has been tried by the campus press, with varying degrees of success.

Several college papers have become (New York *Times*, 12-21-70) independent of their universities, including the *Harvard Crimson*, the *Cornell Daily Sun*, and the *Daily Dartmouth*. Even this does not guarantee editorial independence—the *Crimson* still claims a tax exemption as a non-profit educational organization and does not endorse political candidates. The *Cornell Daily Sun*, however, has been able to operate in the black and still pay full taxes. The *Sun*, an independent rarity, has endorsed anything its editors wish, from the Black Panther Party to Sen. Charles E. Goodell.

At the high school level, papers have not yet been able to move off campus or become financially independent. When the official high school paper becomes unacceptable, students have moved to underground publications.

When financial independence is impossible, adherence to guidelines could work but it presupposes student editor-administrator agreement.

Politella makes six major points in his set of guidelines (*Seminar Quarterly*, 12-69):

1) The student press should function as every mass communication media—to inform, educate, entertain—with standards determined by and relevant to its campus environment.

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2) The campus press should be self-regulatory, because it can best judge its own capabilities and limitations. He suggests a publications board, with a student majority, to select qualified staff members who then could be removed only through due process.

3) The student press should maintain professional performance and ethics pertinent to its purposes, restricted only by its resources.

4) Financial independence is desirable, a "cornerstone of true freedom and responsibility."

5) Students should choose the adviser, and his role should be consultant, not censor.

6) The free student press must be available to anyone who has something worth saying.

The American Bar Association drafted a proposed model on student rights and responsibilities, emphasizing that student organizations may publish and distribute written material free from prior approval and censorship, provided the material does not disrupt the institution's operation. (What constitutes "disruption", however, could be interpreted differently by students, college officials and the courts.) The ABA suggests the publication state that its contents are not necessarily the view of the institution or its student body.

The American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) makes a strong plea for student press freedom in its guidelines. On the high school press, the ACLU says publications should be censored only if they are libelous, "imminently threaten to disrupt the educational process" or "clearly endanger the health and safety of students." The ACLU urges that administrators recognize "deviation from opinions and standards of the faculty is not *ipso facto* a danger to the educational process. Freedom implies the right to make mistakes and . . . students must therefore be permitted to act in ways which are predictably unwise."

On the college press, the ACLU says publications should enjoy full freedom, unrestricted by administrators and student governments even though the publication may depend on administrative consent for use of campus facilities and is subsidized by student funds.

The ACLU expects the student publication to be responsible, with "impartial coverage of news . . . a forum for opposing views on controversial issues . . . (coverage of) political and social issues relevant to students as citizens of a larger community." The ACLU says neither faculty, administrator, trustee or legislator should be immune to criticism, and that editorial decisions should never be challenged or overruled because of pressure from alumni, trustees, legislators, administrators or student governments. No college representative should exercise veto power without a specific finding of potential libel as determined by impartial legal authority, with the "validity of alleged deliberate malice determined through due process."

All three guideline sets grant broad powers to student editors, with the ABA's "disruption" provision the only restriction other than self-regulation. The Politella and ACLU guidelines stress the student press's responsibility to be a forum for opposing views.

Established Press

So far, the established press has not taken up the cause of the free academic press to the extent it has that of the underground press, typified (*Editor & Publisher*, 10-4-69) by the Virginia Press Association's financial and legal aid to the Richmond Chronicle, an off-beat anti-establishment tabloid.

The established press has not ignored but timidly championed the campus press, holding back legal and financial involvement with one or two exceptions.

One established press contribution to the campus press has been its extensive coverage of the struggle. Efforts to bring the academic press freedom issue to the attention of the public and other newsmen have been made by the *Christian Science Monitor* (9-1-71), the *National Observer* (1-20-67), the *New York Times* (12-21-70) and a Chicago *Sun-Times* reporter, William Braden, writing in *Quill* (1-69).

On the other side, at least one professional has attempted to cut (*Grassroots Editor*, V. 10, No. 3) some first amendment ground from under the student press. George Murphy, editor of the Manteca, California *Bulletin*, suggested that although the "only restraint by law is that imposed by the various laws of libel", the principle of press freedom "doesn't necessarily extend to the campus."

When the ethics of obtaining a story which appeared in the University of Florida's *Alligator* were questioned, only the Fort Myers *News Press* supported (*Editor & Publisher*, 3-22-69) the students editorially. Asked for their opinions on the same incident, editors of the Miami, Tampa, St. Petersburg and Gainesville newspapers refused to become involved and would only comment anonymously.

In one case, the established press investigated suppression of campus news, though it is too early to tell if such action will become a trend. After several acts of violence against California student editors, and acting president S. I. Hayakawa's suspension of the San Francisco State College *Gater*, California professional newsmen, spearheaded by the California Freedom of Information committee, began (*Editor & Publisher*, 7-5-70) a series of inquiries. Investigating committee head Raymond L. Spangler, a vice president of Peninsula Newspapers, Inc., and former national president of Sigma Delta Chi, said

We plan to continue investigating incidents as they come up through the state. And we'll go to the defense of editors who are suppressed in their views, whether it be from the right or from the left. But exactly how effective we'll be I just don't know.

Karen Holzmeister, former student editor of the *Pioneer* at California State College, Hayward, said the committee's involvement in her case "was a great help to me." Miss Holzmeister, editor when the editorial criticizing black athletes at the Olympic Games in Mexico City appeared, was forced to resign. "I received no help, no protection of any kind . . . I gave the administration the names of the intimidating students and nothing was done . . . I was told to keep quiet about everything . . . I felt intimidated until Richard Fogel (president of the FoI committee and assistant managing editor of the Oakland *Tribune*) came on the scene. He telephoned the journalism department, advised me on what to do, persuaded the president of Theta Sigma Phi (women's journalism sorority) to appear

in my defense at the hearing. In short, his name and prestige helped."

Ultimate Solution: Courts

Unable to reach an agreement with administrators, who usually have the purse strings and therefore the final word, student publication editors have begun appealing to the courts. In every major college case, the court decision has been favorable to the principle of a free student press. The high school press has not fared as well.

A three-judge U.S. Court of Appeals panel upheld (*New York Times*, 3-6-71) the authority of school officials to censor student publications, but called for procedures that would clearly tell students what kind of material must be approved, and what degree of disorder must be expected to result from publication of the material before censorship is justifiable. Judge Irving R. Kaufman wrote a footnote to the decision, saying that similar censorship might be more inhibiting and less justified on university campuses.

The case began in Stamford, Conn. when Rippowam High School students challenged the school board's right to pre-censor a mimeographed student paper before publishing or distributing it on school property. A federal district court said the school board's rule violated the students' freedom of expression right and enjoined officials from enforcing prior approval of material.

When appealed by the school officials, the appellate court agreed with the lower court decision that the censorship policy could not be enforced due to constitutional violations. The court then modified the lower court's ruling by upholding the right of prior approval by school officials so long as the procedures safeguarded student rights and were not administered arbitrarily, erratically or unfairly.

In the case of *Zucker v. Panitz*, the U.S. District Court, Southern District of New York ruled (*Syllabus*, Winter 70-71) in favor of high school press freedom.

At New Rochelle High School N.Y., in September 1967, a student group tried to publish an advertisement opposing the Vietnam war in the student paper, *Huguenot Herald*. The newspaper's editorial board, headed by plaintiff Laura Zucker, approved publication of the advertisement but principal Adolph Panitz directed that it not be published. In court, Panitz argued that the "war is not a school-related activity, and therefore not qualified for news, editorial and advertising treatment . . . (and that) the *Huguenot Herald* is not a newspaper in the usual sense but part of the curriculum and an educational device."

The court found, however, reviewing the paper's contents, that it was "a forum for the dissemination of ideas . . . It would be both incongruous and dangerous for this court to hold that students who wish to express their views on matters intimately related to them, through traditionally accepted nondisruptive modes of communication, may be precluded from doing so."

Another case of high school publication censorship is pending in the U.S. District Court, Eastern District of Missouri. The plaintiff is Wilmer K. Calvin Jr., who taught journalism and was faculty sponsor for the Brookfield High School newspaper, the *B-Liner*.

On Dec. 19, 1968, the *B-Liner* ran articles criticizing the local board's dress code for high school students. On the same day, Calvin was reprimanded by principal Robert Crow and superintendent Roy Rupp (both chief de-

endants in the case) for allowing the dress code stories. On Feb. 13, 1969, the *B-Liner* ran an editorial again criticizing the dress code and Calvin was again reprimanded. Feb. 26, 1969, the *B-Liner* published interviews with candidates for school offices, some of whom criticized the dress code, and Crow told Calvin that in the future he would read all newspaper stories before they could be printed.

On March 25, Calvin received his notice of rehiring for the next school year. On March 31, an item in the "Question Box" of the Brookfield community newspaper charged censorship of the high school newspaper, and on April 1, a letter was published in that same paper, written by Calvin's journalism class without his knowledge, criticizing censorship of their school paper.

At 7 p.m. April 1, the Brookfield Board of Education held a secret meeting where it was decided to rescind Calvin's reemployment notice. Calvin was advised of the decision that evening. He requested a hearing but was refused. He was not furnished with the names of his accusers and, according to his attorney, Robert Smith of Columbia, Mo., the accusations were "so vague and indefinite that proper response was impossible."

Four of the five counts filed in plaintiff's brief involve deprivation of Calvin's constitutional rights and damage to his reputation. Count II alleges prior and unreasonable censorship contrary to the principles of press which he was attempting to teach his journalism classes and an unwarranted intrusion into the teacher-pupil relationship which "thereby violated the constitutional rights of freedom of expression, freedom of press, freedom of inquiry and academic freedom to teach the constitutional rights to students."

College Cases

An early court decision on censorship of a college newspaper was the *Dickey v. Alabama* ruling (Alabama State Board of Education v. Dickey, 394 F.2d 490, 5th Cir. 19-68).

Gary Dickey was editor of the college newspaper at Troy State College when, in 1967, the University of Alabama held (*Wake Forest Intramural Law Review*, 12-69) a series of panel discussions. University of Alabama students, in connection with a program, published a pamphlet titled "Emphasis '67, A World Revolution," which included material on guest speakers Dean Rusk, James Reston and Robert Scalapino, and excerpts from speeches by Bettina Aptheker and Stokely Carmichael, who were not on the program. When the publication was criticized by Alabama citizens and legislators, university president Frank Rose supported the student's right to publish the material.

Dickey wrote an editorial defending the action of President Rose, but his faculty adviser asked that it not be published. Dickey took his editorial to the head of Troy's English department who endorsed it, but the adviser vetoed the recommendation. Another appeal by Dickey was denied by Troy's President Adams, who said that nothing could be published in the paper that criticized the governor, the state or the legislature.

The faculty adviser furnished an article, "Raising Dogs in North Carolina", to substitute for the editorial but it was rejected by Dickey as inappropriate. Dickey published neither the editorial nor the dog-raising article. Instead he ran a blank space with "CENSORED" printed

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across the column headlined "A Lament for Dr. Rose." Dickey was suspended for insubordination and appealed. According to Hudgins, author of the article,

The Alabama District Court ordered Dickey's reinstatement. At the outset the court acknowledged that colleges must have rules by which to operate. The real test of judiciousness of these rules is their reasonableness. The Court held that the rule of not criticizing the governor, the state, or the legislature was not designed for the purpose of maintaining law and order; (that) 'state school officials cannot infringe on their student's right of free and unrestricted expression as guaranteed by the Constitution of the United States where the exercise of such right does not materially and substantially interfere with requirements of appropriate discipline in the operation of the school.'

The college officials appealed the decision but the fifth Circuit Court of Appeals vacated judgment and Dickey enrolled at Auburn University instead of Troy, so the case became moot. To Hudgins, "the Dickey case is significant in that it is an indication of the court's predisposition to protect individual freedom."

The next major case began (*New York Times*, 12-3-69) at Fitchburg State College. Preparing an issue of the school paper, *Cycle*, the printer noticed an article by Eldridge Cleaver and notified president James Hammond. The president agreed with the printer that the text (an excerpt from Cleaver's novella, "Black Moochie") was obscene, and cancelled that issue of the *Cycle*. Student editors from six Massachusetts state colleges gathered at Salem State College and decided to print the article in their own papers to protest the Fitchburg censorship. Hammond, meanwhile, set up an advisory board of two faculty members to review *Cycle* material. During the following weeks of turmoil on all six campuses and the suspension of papers on three of them, *Cycle* editor John Antonelli filed suit against Hammond charging violation of first and fourteenth amendment rights. The case went to court that fall, and on Feb. 9, 1970, U.S. District Court Judge W. Arthur Garrity, Jr., ruled (*Boston Herald*, 2-10-70) that Hammond exercised state power unconstitutionally by dictating to the editor of a student newspaper what could be printed in it.

The court held that a college may not restrict speech unless it can be shown that the publication is incompatible with the school's obligation to maintain order and discipline, similar to the Dickey case ruling. The court added that obscenity was not apt to significantly disrupt the educational process.

Regarding Hammond's action in setting up a board to review material to be published in the *Cycle* and his refusal to pay for future issues unless contents were cleared by the board, Judge Garrity said that the president had no duty to pass judgment on a particular activity within the newspaper just because it was supported by student fees. He held that once it is determined that a newspaper is de-

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sirable, financial support was mandatory with the state not "necessarily" the unrestrained master of what the paper creates and fosters.

Harold Dulong, attorney representing the *Cycle*, called it a landmark case applying to student newspapers at public-funded colleges throughout the country.

Judge Garrity wrote, in his opinion (*Syllabus*, Fall 1970):

Because of the potentially great social value of a free student voice in an age of student awareness and unrest, it would be inconsistent with basic assumptions of first amendment freedoms to permit a campus newspaper to be simply a vehicle for ideas the state or college administration deems appropriate. Power to prescribe classroom curricula in state universities may not be transferred to areas not designed to be part of the curriculum.

In a similar case, a college administration attempted, *Trujillo v. Love*, (U.S. Law Week, 3-9-71) to censor a student's articles and label it "teaching". At Southern Colorado State College, the problem arose when the school took over a large portion of the financial support for the student newspaper *Arrow*, previously paid for out of student activity fees. After the budget decision, the administration announced the mass communications department would oversee the paper's operation as an "instructional tool." Before this, no administrative control was exercised over student writing in the *Arrow*.

The paper's managing editor and the faculty adviser clashed twice over material she wrote for publication. Both times, the adviser censored it for reasons of libelous content and violation of the journalistic code of ethics. After the second incident, the editor was suspended from the staff. She appealed the action to the U. S. District Court of Colorado.

During the trial, the adviser admitted that although he required "controversial" material to be submitted to him for prior approval, he had never defined what he meant by "controversial". He denied that this policy was censorship, and said that the policy change was intended to prepare students for journalism careers through supervised work.

The court did not question whether the policy change from a student opinion forum to a teaching tool gave the school the right to determine content. They resolved the case on the fact that whatever policy change there was had not been defined or enforced with any clarity or consistency. Student writing was not supervised, and no advice was given to the *Arrow* writers either directly or through journalism classes, other than the warning to submit "controversial" material for approval.

The court held that the term "controversial" was "ill-suited to justify this difference in treatment. Nor can we uphold such conduct merely because it comes labeled as 'teaching' when in fact little or no teaching took place." They held that the restraints placed on the managing editor did abridge her right of free expression, and that her

suspension from the *Arrow* staff constituted impermissible punishment for the exercise of that right.

A recent court decision by a 3-judge federal panel held (Kansas City *Star*, 9-20-70) that University of Maryland officials acted unconstitutionally in censoring an issue of *Argus*, a student magazine, which depicted a burning U.S. flag on the cover. Publication was blocked when University officials, backed by an opinion from Maryland attorney general Francis B. Burch, said that the cover picture violated the state flag desecration statute. A printing company was told it would not be paid for its work if it published the edition.

Again, the basis for the court's ruling was that university officials had not proven that suppression of the magazine was essential in preserving order and discipline.

Conclusion

The changing campus press and its problems cannot be considered out of the context of the changing college student and the consequent untenability of the institution's former *in loco parentis* role. As Hudgins points out (*Wake Forest Law Review*, 12-69), there are more college students between ages 30 and 35 than there are below 18, and a "mature college student at age twenty, twenty-one or older needs fewer restrictions than did his younger counterpart a few decades ago."

In the *in loco parentis* role, college administrators were able to "adopt policies and regulations designed to police behavior, morality, and to defend and enhance the reputation of the institution itself." With the demise of *in loco parentis*, Hudgins suggests that students assuming more freedom in selecting the content of their publications may occasionally act irresponsibly, but that this is not inconsistent in a democratic society.

To protect the student's rights and simultaneously preserve "the integrity and image of the institution," Hudgins recommended a governing board to supervise student publications similar, in many respects, to the student-majority board suggested in the Politella guidelines.

As shown in this report, however, there is no indication that the majority of high school, college and university administrators are finding acceptable the broad press freedom granted in the guidelines. Financial independence moves are so rare as to be negligible in considering them a solution, at least at present. And, so far, the established press has not come through as staunch advocate of the first amendment on campus.

Until administrators and student editors reach some agreement on what is or is not informative, educational, entertaining, obscene and disruptive, the campus press struggle for first amendment freedom in practice, as well as theory, will continue on a campus-by-campus basis, with a growing number of student journalists seeking the ultimate solution of court rulings.

Although there are not enough cases on which to base a 'last word' analysis of the prospects for campus press, the trend to date is a strong court stand in favor of free college publications and an unwillingness to cut off constitutional rights at the university or high school door.

Without exception, court decisions have been based on the issue of whether the exercise of the student's constitutional right of freedom of the press creates a disruption of the educational process, with implicit approval of student freedom of expression being exercised through accepted, nondisruptive channels.

Secondary Teachers

Certification Requirements

By John W. Windhauser and J. W. Click

Inadequate qualifications of high school journalism teachers and advisers stem mainly from insufficient journalism certification requirements, a 1971 study of these requirements indicates.

Robert Cranford also reported this problem in a 1965 journalism certification study appearing in the *College Press Review*.¹ That study reported the journalism endorsement specifications in 45 states and the inadequacy of these requirements.

Data for our journalism study was obtained by querying the state superintendent of public instruction for each of the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

Journalism certification has improved somewhat since Cranford's study, but there are still a number of states having insignificant journalism certification, as can be seen in Table I.

It is clear in Table I that there has been a slight trend

toward upgrading certification requirements for the teaching of high school journalism. The major shifts are that English certification alone no longer is adequate background in the five states that allowed it in 1965, and seven states that had no journalism certification requirements in 1965 now have some sort of requirements. The number of states requiring a journalism major or minor has increased by 6, from 9 to 15. Table I also suggests that journalism is becoming recognized as a defined area for high school certification.

However, fourteen states and the District of Columbia have no specific requirements for teaching high school journalism. These states generally allow a person having English certification, with or without college journalism courses, to teach high school journalism.

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This study was completed while Mr. Windhauser was a doctoral student at Ohio University.

¹Robert J. Cranford, "Report: Committee on High School Relations," *College Press Review*, (Spring 1965), 13-16.

TABLE I

COMPARISON OF HIGH SCHOOL JOURNALISM CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS, 1965 AND 1971

	Cranford's 1965 Findings for 45 States	1971 Findings of the Same 45 States Reported By Cranford	1971 Findings of 50 States and the District of Columbia
English certification plus 5 to 12 journalism semester hours	5	6	6
English certification plus 5 to 12 journalism semester hours or a journalism minor	3	3	4
English certification plus a journalism minor	0	1	1
Language arts major with 5 to 15 semester hours in journalism or a journalism minor	0	2	2
English certification only	5	0	0
Journalism major	1	1	1
Journalism major through an approved teacher education program	2	1	1
Journalism major or minor	3	13	13
Journalism minor of 15 to 24 semester hours in journalism	6	2	2
10 to 14 journalism semester hours	1	3	3
Fewer than 10 journalism semester hours	1	1	1
General secondary certification	0	1	2
No specific journalism certification requirements	18	11	15

In another seven states journalism certification can be obtained only with English certification plus some college journalism semester hours. Only one of these states requires a journalism minor plus English certification for journalism endorsement.

Persons in four states have the option of earning either an English certificate plus six semester hours in journalism or a journalism minor for journalism certification. A journalism minor usually consists of at least 20 semester hours.

Two states endorse persons with either a language arts major plus 5 to 10 semester hours in journalism or a journalism minor. Certification in language arts allows a person to teach high school English, speech or journalism.

Only 19 states demand that high school journalism teachers earn a journalism major or minor for certification. Two of these states certify only journalism teaching majors, while another two states certify high school journalism teachers under a general secondary education certificate.

Journalism teaching applicants in four states can be endorsed with fewer than 15 semester hours in journalism. Only one of these states, however, will grant temporary certification for persons having fewer than 10 journalism semester hours.

Here is a short abstract of high school journalism certification requirements for each of the 50 states and the District of Columbia gathered from state superintendents of public instruction.

ALABAMA

Twenty-four semester hours of journalism qualify a person for teaching high school journalism. A person may also teach journalism if he has a journalism minor of 18 semester hours.

ALASKA

Completion of a bachelor's degree through an approved program of teacher education plus the recommendation of the preparing institution will qualify a person for regular certification.

ARIZONA

A person having a major area of 30 semester hours or a minor of 18 semester hours in journalism meets the certification requirements.

ARKANSAS

High school journalism teachers must have 24 semester hours of journalism for certification. Teachers having certification in English and six semester hours of journalism will also qualify to teach journalism.

CALIFORNIA

For certification in California, 24 semester hours of upper division or graduate level journalism coursework is required for a teaching major in journalism. A person could also have a journalism minor of 18 semester hours or nine semester hours of upper division or graduate level journalism coursework.

COLORADO

Completion of a bachelor's degree through an approved program of journalism teacher education plus the institution's recommendation are required for journalism certification. Colorado only endorses teaching certificates in major teaching fields.

CONNECTICUT

Journalism as a course subject is not taught in Connecticut's public secondary schools, but it is sometimes taught as part of English courses. No certification in journalism is possible.

DELAWARE

There is no issuing of certification for teaching high school journalism.

FLORIDA

A bachelor's degree with a major in journalism or 12 semester hours in journalism qualify a person for teaching high school journalism. Teachers having English certification need only six semester hours of journalism for certification.

GEORGIA

There is no certification for the teaching of high school journalism. Teachers seeking certification in English may include journalism as a part of their English certification requirements.

HAWAII

There are no specific requirements for Hawaii journalism teachers. Thirty semester hours in English are necessary for certification of English teachers. Of these 30 semester hours, 15 semester hours in journalism may be accepted on the English certificate in lieu of 15 semester hours in English.

IDAHO

For high school journalism certification in Idaho, a person needs 20 semester hours of which 15 semester hours must be in journalism while the remainder can be in English.

ILLINOIS

Journalism teachers must have either a major or a minor in journalism. The major requires at least 32 semester hours, while the minor has a minimum of 16 semester hours.

INDIANA

The Hoosier state has the most elaborate journalism certification requirements of all the states. For the minimum journalism certification requirements, the teaching minor consists of 24 semester hours, while the requirements for a teaching major requires 40 semester hours. The teaching minor must include three hours of introduction to mass media, three hours of basic newswriting, two hours of advertising, three hours of editing, three hours of supervision of school publications, four hours of advanced journalistic writing such as magazine writing, radio-TV writing or advanced reporting, and six hours of electives in advanced journalism courses and related areas. Certification requirements for a journalism teaching major, in addition, consist of four additional hours in advanced journalistic writing, three in basic public speaking, and six additional hours of electives in advanced journalism courses and related areas. Teachers majoring in English must have one course in journalistic writing included in their program for English certification.

IOWA

A secondary teaching certificate is awarded with the completion of an approved teacher education program and the recommendation from the preparing college. To be approved as a high school journalism teacher, a person must complete at least 10 semester hours in this area.

KANSAS

English teachers having six semester hours of journalism may qualify for teaching high school journalism.

KENTUCKY

All teaching certificates in Kentucky are issued on the basis of completing an approved teacher education program and the recommendation from the preparing college. If a person holds a Kentucky Standard High School Certificate with a minor of at least 18 semester hours in journalism and if he teaches three years on this certificate, his journalism certificate can then be extended for life.

LOUISIANA

Certification requires 12 semester hours of journalism. Persons with a journalism major or minor through an approved journalism teaching education program can also qualify for certification.

MAINE

There is no certification for the teaching of high school journalism.

MARYLAND

No journalism certification requirements have been established.

MASSACHUSETTS

There is no certification for the teaching of high school journalism.

MICHIGAN

A secondary teaching certificate may be issued to an applicant who graduated with a bachelor's degree and completed an approved teacher education curriculum for secondary teachers. Journalism teachers need either a journalism major of 24 semester hours or a journalism minor of 15 semester hours.

MINNESOTA

Certification requires the completion of a teacher education program, the preparing college recommendation and a college journalism major or minor. A teacher having a journalism major can teach journalism courses full-time in grades 7 through 12, while a person with a journalism minor can only teach journalism subjects on an one-half time basis in grades 7 through 12.

MISSISSIPPI

For a journalism teaching certificate in Mississippi, a person may have a major or minor of 24 semester hours in journalism which must include 18 semester hours in journalism skills and techniques, three semester hours in journalism orientation and three semester hours in school publications. Additionally, a person must have a major in another field such as English, social studies, etc.

MISSOURI

Fifteen semester hours in journalism qualify a person to teach journalism in grades 7 through 12, while 10 semester hours qualify a person to teach journalism subjects in grades 9 through 12.

MONTANA

Journalism teaching certificates are issued to applicants

completing a teacher education program of an accredited college or university and having a major or a minor in journalism. A person needs a minimum of 20 semester hours in journalism for certification.

NEBRASKA

Persons having a major in journalism of at least 24 semester hours and an endorsement from their preparing college qualify them for journalism certification. The preparing college or university recommends journalism teaching endorsements mainly on a major and very infrequently on a very strong (almost major) journalism minor.

NEVADA

The journalism teacher must have a major of 36 semester hours in English and a minor in journalism consisting of 24 semester hours.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

There are no specific requirements for journalism certification.

NEW JERSEY

There is no certification in New Jersey for teachers of high school journalism.

NEW MEXICO

To be certified in secondary school journalism, a person may complete 24 semester hours in the language arts area with 10 semester hours in journalism, or he may qualify for certification with a journalism minor of 24 semester hours.

NEW YORK

The Empire State does not have a specific certification for teachers of journalism. Any person may be employed to teach journalism providing that individual holds any valid teacher certificate issued by the New York State Education Department.

NORTH CAROLINA

This state certifies only English Teachers having six semester hours of journalism credit.

NORTH DAKOTA

Certification for a journalism teacher in North Dakota would be 16 semester hours in English which includes a minimum of five semester hours in journalism.

OHIO

The Buckeye state this year increased journalism certification requirements from 15 to 20 semester hours. Coursework for certification must include introduction to mass media, news writing, editing and advanced journalistic writing.

OKLAHOMA

For a standard teaching certificate in journalism, a minimum of 24 semester hours is required, while 18 semester hours in journalism is needed for a provisional or a temporary certificate. If an English teacher has six hours of journalism credit, journalism can be a teaching major on his English certificate. Journalism can also be a teaching minor on a mathematics or another certificate if the teacher has 18 or more semester hours of credit in English, speech, and journalism with a minimum of six semester hours in journalism.

OREGON

Initial employment as a high school journalism teacher can be sought by those who have a baccalaureate degree, have completed a secondary teacher education program, and have met the minimum requirements for the basic norm in journalism. For the basic norm in journalism, a person needs nine quarter hours consisting of courses in newswriting, copy editing, and newspaper and society. Teachers having only the basic norm in journalism must complete a fifth-year teacher education program which would include the completion of the standard norm in journalism. The standard norm in journalism is considered as journalism major or 18 quarter hours. Of these 18 journalism quarter hours, nine are in the basic journalism norm and the nine additional hours consist of courses in advanced journalism writing, advanced copy editing, and high school publications.

PENNSYLVANIA

This state does not have separate certification for journalism. Teachers having certification in communication arts or English can teach journalism as a specialized class in their high schools.

RHODE ISLAND

There is no certification for the teaching of journalism. English teachers can teach journalism without ever taking a journalism course.

SOUTH CAROLINA

There is no journalism certification in South Carolina.

SOUTH DAKOTA

Journalism teachers need 13 semester hours of English and at least five semester hours in journalism.

TENNESSEE

There is no certification for the teaching of high school journalism.

TEXAS

The journalism teacher must have 24 semester hours in journalism of which 12 semester hours must consist of advanced coursework. Additionally, he must have another teaching major of at least 24 semester hours.

UTAH

A person must complete an approved teacher education program.

VERMONT

There is no certification for the teaching of journalism. Teachers with 30 semester hours of English can teach journalism.

VIRGINIA

A person can have a joint endorsement in English and journalism by having completed 30 semester hours in English and six semester hours in journalism, or he can be certified for journalism by having a minimum of 12 semester hours in journalism.

WASHINGTON

A special certificate for teaching a particular subject, such as journalism, is not issued. Provisional certification is made by the preparing institution, but it is the responsibility

of the superintendent of the employing district to determine whether a properly certified teacher has the necessary preparation for teaching in a particular field. Every teaching candidate must have approximately 35 per cent of his study preparation in his major teaching area. Beginning teachers are expected to teach only in their fields of major preparation. Journalism is accepted as a teaching major or a teaching minor.

WEST VIRGINIA

Journalism certification in the Mountain state can be achieved by having a major in the language arts of 50 semester hours of which five semester hours consist of journalism courses. Or a person can have a journalism teaching major of 21 semester hours consisting of three hours of reporting, two hours of mass communication, three hours of editing and make-up, two hours of high school publications, three hours of journalism history, two hours of news photography, and six hours of electives from upper division journalism courses. In this situation, a person would also have to complete a second major in another area.

WISCONSIN

A journalism major of 34 semester hours or a journalism minor of 22 semester hours may qualify one to teach journalism.

WYOMING

The journalism teacher meets the certification requirements through the English certification requirements. He must have 30 semester hours in English which includes 12 semester hours of journalism.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

High school journalism is not a major teaching field in the District of Columbia Public Schools. Journalism is usually taught by certified English teachers having a minor in journalism.

Cranford said that his study apparently provided clues to the lack of qualifications of high school teachers who either are giving instruction in journalism in the classrooms or are advising the student publications or both.

He also cited repeated studies that showed a high degree of influence of high school journalism teachers and publications advisers on their students, particularly in making career choices. He noted, "Accordingly, if persons without professional knowledgeability have such influence, how much more could they inspire their students with knowledge of the accepted criteria of good journalism and its standards?"

The lack of teacher certification requirements Cranford cited still exists, although there has been progress in the six intervening years. This study indicates that 60 per cent of the states still have minimal or no journalism certification requirements.

It is clear that more rigorous standards are needed for high school journalism certification. Cranford's call for "leaders of the media of news communication" to "lend their support to a movement to have legislation enacted to require training in journalism for those who teach the subject in high schools or who advise or supervise staffs of student publications" remains appropriate in most of those 30 states. Stronger certification, of course, will not solve all the problems of secondary school journalism, but it can go a long way to diminish them.

Writing Courses Highly Rated

Training the Journalism Teacher

by Dr. William Dean
Director of Student Publication
Texas Tech University

Primary emphasis in journalism teacher training programs should be placed on acquisition of the basics of the subject area, namely newsgathering, newswriting and editing of copy.

This statement represents the thinking of journalism teachers in the secondary schools as well as their principals, journalism educators, and newspaper editors who participated in a doctoral study completed last summer.

The major purpose of the study was to identify elements of a model preservice training program for secondary school journalism teachers. These elements included objectives, skills to be acquired, hours required, courses required, content of certain courses, academic disciplines to be included and experiences to be included.

Each respondent was asked to rate choices under each of these elements as: 1—should be required; 2—should be recommended; 3—should not be listed. There were a number of choices listed under each major element as well as a choice marked "other" in which the respondent could add choices not already listed.

Two categories were selected in which to identify these elements. These were (1) teacher certification programs in journalism—the teacher who elects journalism as a major or minor teaching field and (2) limited courses approach—the teacher who is exposed to several journalism courses as part of teacher training in another program.

Table I

TEACHER CERTIFICATION PROGRAM—MAJOR
RECOMMENDED HOURS: RESPONSES BY
PERCENTAGES FAVORING

Hrs.	Teachers	Principals	Chairmen	Editors
6	1	1		
9			2	3
12	2		2	3
15	1	4	5	7
18	6	9	9	12
21	2	19	2	9
24	30	7	28	29
27	1	4	7	3
30	24	26	34	22
33	3	4	2	3
36	11	12	7	7
39	7	4		
42	3			
45	4	4		
48		1		
51	4	1	2	2
56		1		
60	1	3		

The participants in the study included 100 teachers who belonged to Journalism Education Association, 87 secondary school principals serving as state officers of the National Association of Secondary School Principals (two per state), 54 deans or chairmen of accredited schools or departments of journalism and/or mass communications and 74 editors whose newspapers participated in the *Wall Street Journal's* intern program.

Statistical treatment of the data involved two tests of significance. "The Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient Test" measured the correlation to two variables (teachers-principals, teachers-chairmen, teachers-editors, principals-chairmen, principals-editors, chairmen-editors) while the "Kendall Coefficient of Concordance W" expressed the degree of association among all four groups. The major treatment consisted of listing the responses by percentage with a combined percentage category added and then listing a weighted score and a rank for each item with a combined rank category added.

OBJECTIVES

In the area of objectives, primary importance for both programs should be on competency in teaching journalism and directing student publications as opposed to some of the other facets of operation—business, advertising, careers, radio-TV, and literary magazines.

SKILLS

News writing, editing, reporting and forms of specialized writing should rate prime importance in the category of skills for both the teacher certification program and the limited courses area.

HOURS

The student seeking a certificate to teach with a journalism major should be required to take between 24 and 30 hours (see Table I). The journalism minor should be required to take between 12 and 18 hours (see Table II).

Table II

TEACHER CERTIFICATION PROGRAM—MINOR
RECOMMENDED HOURS: RESPONSES BY
PERCENTAGES FAVORING

Hrs.	Teachers	Principals	Chairmen	Editors
3	1			
6	3	4	5	7
9	7	8	10	20
12	16	18	18	23
15	22	20	18	27
18	19	31	25	9
21	8	13	10	5
24	19		12	9
27				
30	5	7	2	

REQUIRED COURSES

Aside from the three basic courses already mentioned (newswriting, reporting, editing) two "methods" courses should also be required. One would deal with the methods of teaching high school journalism while the other would relate to advising and directing high school publications. In the limited courses area students should take two courses—Newswriting and methods related to Directing School Publications.

METHODS COURSES

In considering topics for coverage in the methods courses mentioned, again basic subjects should be considered most important (newswriting, reporting, editing).

OTHER ACADEMIC DISCIPLINES

English and social studies should be a required part of academic disciplines from which a prospective journalism teacher should be trained.

EXPERIENCES

Student publications work and student teaching should be the most important experiences for the certification program, while student publications work alone should be given top consideration under the limited courses approach.

MISCELLANEOUS

Radio and TV or Telecommunications did not receive much emphasis in any category. This is despite the fact that there are a number of high schools today that are introducing radio and TV in their journalism courses.

Editors placed much emphasis on the value of professional experience in advance of teaching. Typical of the comments from working newsmen was the statement of T. M. Bradley, news editor of the *Gazette-Times* (Corvallis, Oregon): "It has been my observation that journalism teachers need more experience in newsrooms—and should continue that experience periodically through their careers."

Teachers expressed great concern over the number of "unqualified" advisers and journalism teachers in the high schools. Those who, themselves, were "unqualified" as beginning teachers, were emphatic in recommending a definite certification program. Fifty-six per cent of the teachers in the study had taken from 6 to 30 hours of journalism. Eleven per cent had never taken a journalism course. The most frequently taken courses by the teachers were newswriting, reporting, editing, feature writing, directing publications, and introduction to communications.

It is probably unrealistic to expect that a teacher in a limited program might accomplish all the recommendations made in this study, especially in the course work area. A teaching minor might be expected to follow these recommendations but a student taking only a few courses in journalism could not possibly do it.

It would seem to be in order to recommend that all states need to develop a definite teacher certification program for journalism teachers and publications advisers. Schools should not be permitted to merely give this responsibility to an unqualified person just as they would not be permitted to have an unqualified person teach chemistry or math or direct the school choir.

The certification program should be flexible enough to include (1) the student who elects to get a teaching major in journalism, (2) the student who elects to get

a teaching minor in journalism, (3) the student who elects journalism as one of two teaching fields. The latter plan is present in many states that do not have teaching majors and minors, but simply require two teaching fields.

Finally, the program should also require prospective journalism teachers or publications advisers who are in other teaching programs that include some limited courses in journalism to take at least two courses.

Specifically, the programs should consist of the following:

TEACHER CERTIFICATION—

Journalism Major (or the student using Journalism as one of two teaching fields).

Primary Objectives: (In order of importance)

1. To enable a teacher to be competent in teaching journalism to high school students.
2. To enable a teacher to be competent in directing a high school newspaper.
3. To enable a teacher to be competent in directing a high school yearbook.

Secondary Objectives: (In order of importance)

1. To enable a teacher to be competent in directing business and advertising problems of high school publications.
2. To enable a teacher to be competent in working with and advising high school students in regard to careers.
3. To enable a teacher to be competent in directing a high school radio-TV facility.
4. To enable a teacher to be competent in directing a high school literary magazine.

Primary Skills to be Acquired:

(In order of importance)

1. Newswriting
2. Editing
3. Reporting
4. Specialized writing
5. Magazine writing and editing

Secondary Skills to be Acquired:

(In order of importance)

1. Printing techniques
2. History of journalism
3. Typography
4. Knowledge of camera techniques
5. Advertising
6. Career opportunities
7. Public relations
8. Radio and TV news gathering
9. Knowledge of darkroom techniques
10. Knowledge of the use of audio-visual techniques
11. Radio and TV announcing
12. Knowledge of business practices

Hours Required:

Major—30

Teaching Field—24

Required Courses: (In order of importance)

1. Editing
2. Newswriting
3. Reporting

4. Directing High School Publications
5. Methods of Teaching High School Journalism
6. Feature Writing

Elective Courses: (In order of importance)

Major—any 4

Teaching Field—any 2

1. Photojournalism
2. Introduction to Communications
3. Editorial Writing
4. Advertising
5. Advanced Reporting
6. Press and Society
7. Press Law
8. Typography
9. Newspaper Management
10. Magazine Writing and Editing
11. Public Relations
12. Telecommunications

Additional Required Courses:

*English—4 semesters

*Social Studies—4 semesters

*It should be strongly recommended to students that one of these two areas should be given consideration as a minor.

Additional Recommended Courses:

(In order of importance)

1. Sociology

2. Psychology
3. Economics
4. Philosophy
5. Bookkeeping

Additional Requirements:

(In order of importance)

1. The student will be required to work on the student newspaper at least two semesters. Course work in which labs place the student on the newspaper may count.
2. The student will be required to work on the student yearbook at least two semesters. Course work in which labs place the student on the yearbook may count.
3. The student will be required to do student teaching in journalism.

Additional Recommendations:

(In order of importance)

1. The student should consider applying for a summer intern program with a newspaper, radio or TV station.
2. The student should consider applying for part-time work on a newspaper, radio, or TV station.
3. The student should be encouraged to join professional education and journalism organizations.
4. The student might consider part-time employment at the college public relations office

Table III

**TEACHER CERTIFICATION PROGRAM
PROPOSED SKILLS: RESPONSES BY PERCENTAGE FAVORING**

	TEACHERS			PRINCIPALS			CHAIRMEN			EDITORS			COMBINED		
	Required	Recommended	Omitted	Required	Recommended	Omitted	Required	Recommended	Omitted	Required	Recommended	Omitted	Required	Recommended	Omitted
1. Advertising	65	32	3	40	58	2	27	71	2	30	62	8	44	52	4
2. A-V materials, use of	28	55	17	39	51	10	15	60	25	12	54	34	27	53	20
3. Business (bookkeeping)	24	53	23	20	63	17	6	40	54	2	30	63	16	49	35
4. Camera techniques	53	46	1	34	63	3	26	72	2	17	67	16	35	60	5
5. Career opportunities	17	73	10	16	63	21	49	45	6	49	43	8	29	58	13
6. Darkroom techniques	36	54	10	22	60	18	17	66	17	12	55	33	24	58	18
7. Editing (copyreading, proofreading, headline writing, layout)	99	1	0	90	7	3	98	2	0	90	8	2	94	5	1
8. History of journalism	36	59	5	29	62	9	45	53	2	50	45	5	38	56	6
9. Magazine and yearbook layout	68	33	0	62	37	1	50	48	2	39	53	8	58	40	2
10. Newswriting	98	1	1	96	2	2	98	2	0	95	5	0	97	2	1
11. Printing procedures (offset, letterpress)	48	50	2	35	62	3	41	57	2	27	59	14	39	56	5
12. Public relations	30	65	5	48	44	8	6	57	37	17	49	34	29	54	17
13. Radio, TV announcing	10	68	22	23	51	26	8	45	47	11	48	41	13	57	30
14. Radio, TV news gathering	25	63	12	22	65	13	21	56	23	25	53	22	24	60	16
15. Reporting	95	5	0	81	19	0	96	2	2	89	8	3	90	9	1
16. Specialized writing (editorials, features)	91	9	0	86	14	0	64	30	6	41	54	5	75	23	2
17. Typography	54	45	1	37	51	12	34	66	0	32	60	8	42	53	5

book review

Media, Messages, and Men by John C. Merrill and Ralph L. Lowenstein

"Mass media" is a misnomer, someone once argued. The term implies that the media address the "masses"—that is, a cross-section of the vast public which comprises the potential audience. But in reality, the argument goes, each medium communicates with only a specialized segment of that vast public. The specialized segment may be very large, but its size merely makes it a "massive" audience, not a "mass" audience. Ergo, communicators should speak of "massive media" rather than of "mass media."

It is an ingenious argument, and one which bears some validity. But it is not a widely accepted argument, if one believes the testimony of the current spate of book titles about the so-called "mass media." Recent titles include *Theories of Mass Communication* (1970), *Mass Media and Modern Society* (1971), *Introduction to Mass Communications* (1971), *Mass Media and the Popular Arts* (1971), and two mass communications readers edited, respectively, by Edwin Emery and Wilbur Schramm. Both anthologies are now in production.

There is, however, one newly issued text which apparently accepts and preserves the distinction between "massive" and "mass" media: *Media, Messages, and Men* (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1971).

The book's co-authors, John C. Merrill and Ralph L. Lowenstein, speak of "mass-mass media"—those with audiences both massive and heterogeneous. Generally, however, the book is predominantly analytical, rather than creative or critical, and its co-authors describe it as an "idea-oriented" book which will serve as a stimulus to serious thinking about the communication process. Merrill and Lowenstein take pains to dissociate *Media, Messages, and Men* from what they refer to as the routine, "fact-oriented," mass communications text whose task seems to be mere "informational bead-stringing."

Both authors are professional educators, rather than members of the working press, and *MMandM* reflects this fact. The book's academic origin is evident in its organization into seventeen chapters, neatly paralleling a semester of weeks. The pedagogical imprint is also visible in the authors' insistence on order: each fact is divided into its component parts—numbered, paired, and neatly classified. But popular disdain of academe is not thereby justified; the logical ordering of chapters and facts means that the book can be understood by the layman, outlined by the student, and used by the instructor—solid virtues indeed.

Media, Messages, and Men appears to have been written for college undergraduates enrolled in an introductory mass communications course. The text surveys the various elements in the communication process—encoders, decoders, channels, and static; it takes a quick look at media forms, limitations, and potencies; and it examines media concepts: freedom and controls, propaganda, objectivity, and ethics.

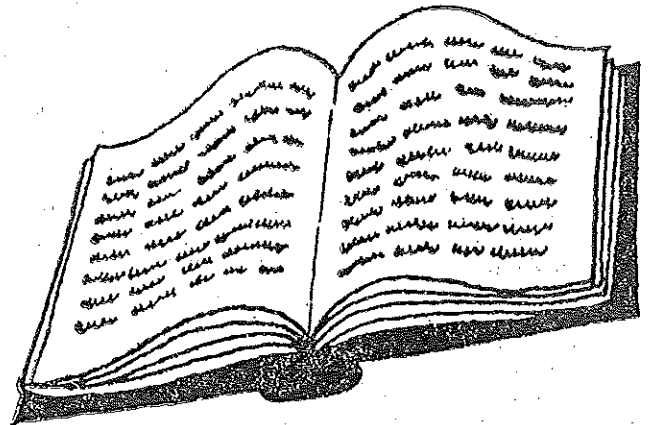
If *MMandM* displays any biases, they appear to be a belief in objective journalism as opposed to advocacy journalism, and a tendency to consider print media superior to electronic. But by and large the book propounds no theses and proposes no solutions, despite the finality implied by the alliterative title.

If *MMandM* displays any faults, they seem to be the volume's relative brevity and its polysyllabic prose. The reader may wish that the book were longer—not because it is an engrossing book (it doesn't purport to be), but rather because it treats profound issues with the artificial finality of numbers on a blackboard. Although the book contains some 260 pages of text, they are set in large type and the lines are amply leaded. The average daily *New York Times* could print *MMandM* in triplicate without extending itself. A few more pages could have been expended economically to treat certain problems in greater depth.

As for its polysyllabic prose, the book perhaps could gain Marshall McLuhan's endorsement, but very likely could not win that of Rudolph Flesch. (And maybe both views would be profitably disregarded.) But if Merrill and Lowenstein intend the book for an undergraduate audience, the sometimes dense prose may constitute static on the channel.

But for all its polysyllables, disconcerting brevity, occasional bias, and pedagogical neatness, *Media, Messages, and Men* is always thoughtful, generally readable, and really quite useful as an introductory text in the study of mass communication. It would seem ungracious to ask for more.

Reviewed by Whitney R. Mundt
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Any reader desiring to review journalism books is invited to write the editor, *College Press Review*, Box 500, Eastern Kentucky University, Richmond, Ky., 40475. Reviewers may keep the book and will be given complimentary copies of the *Review*. Unsolicited book reviews are also welcomed.

A Brief History

The Student Press in America

By Glen Kleine

Since the first student publication in 1777, the student press has evolved into a proliferation of nearly 45,000 junior and senior high school periodicals produced by almost 1 million students at an annual cost of approximately \$45 million.¹ The college press is estimated at 6,800 publications with a press run of nearly 13 million and involving annual expenditures totaling \$71 million. These figures are for authorized publications only; the "underground" press, no new phenomenon, is a separate study in itself.²

Between the colleges and high schools of America, the student press produces about 50,000 publications at a cost of \$116 million. Some authorities estimate that student publications reach about 25 percent of the population of the entire United States.³

Colleges

The honors for both the first collegiate publication and the first collegiate newspaper in America go to Dartmouth College in Hanover, New Hampshire. Its *Dartmouth Gazette*, a weekly student newspaper published 1799-1820, numbered Daniel Webster among its contributors. It was chiefly devoted to literary composition. The *Dartmouth*, the present day daily dates back to 1839, and is the oldest surviving student newspaper.

The second and third collegiate publications were Yale's *Literary Cabinet* (1806) and Harvard's *Lyceum* (1810-11).

At Transylvania College in Lexington, Kentucky, *The Transylvanian or Lexington Literary Journal* was published monthly beginning in 1829. As such, it holds title to being the oldest surviving student literary magazine despite the fact that its content more often appealed to general rather than literary interests. The *Yale Literary Magazine*, founded in 1836, was credited by Mott as being the oldest surviving literary magazine.⁴

The *Signia*, yearbook of the Massachusetts College of Pharmacy, Boston (1823)

appears to be the oldest surviving yearbook.⁵

High Schools

While the earliest student publication was the *Students Gazette* of the William Charter School in Philadelphia, it was but a hand-written newspaper on a single sheet of rag paper dated 1777.⁶

The first known printed high school publication was *The Latin School Register* of the Boston Public Latin School. The newspaper was first published as *Juvenilia* in 1826 and changed its name nine times until it was established as *The Register* in 1882. One of the editors engaged in that final name change was George Santayana, later a well-known philosopher.⁷

Most sources credit the later *Literary Journal*, published in 1829 at the Boston Latin School, as the first student publication in America. The staff of the *Literary Journal* admitted, however, that it was following "the example of other schools in Massachusetts." Professor Laurence R. Campbell of The Florida State University writes, "It is probable that magazines or newspapers preceded it."⁸

It appears that the first publications by the distaff set was *The Aspirant* and *The Constellation* published in 1851 at the Girl's High School of Portland, Maine. Spears and Lawshe document many early high school publications in their text *High School Journalism*. They write that despite the existence of these early newspapers, "until recent years publications were endured rather than encouraged by the school authorities, and the phenomenal growth just discussed has come within the past 15 years," (1929-44).⁹

One of the first yearbooks was published by the Waterville Academy in 1845 under the name *The Evergreen*. Although the yearbook got a later start than the school newspaper it was embraced by educators at an earlier date. Their acceptance was accelerated by the ever-popular picture album which appeared in schools following the Civil War.

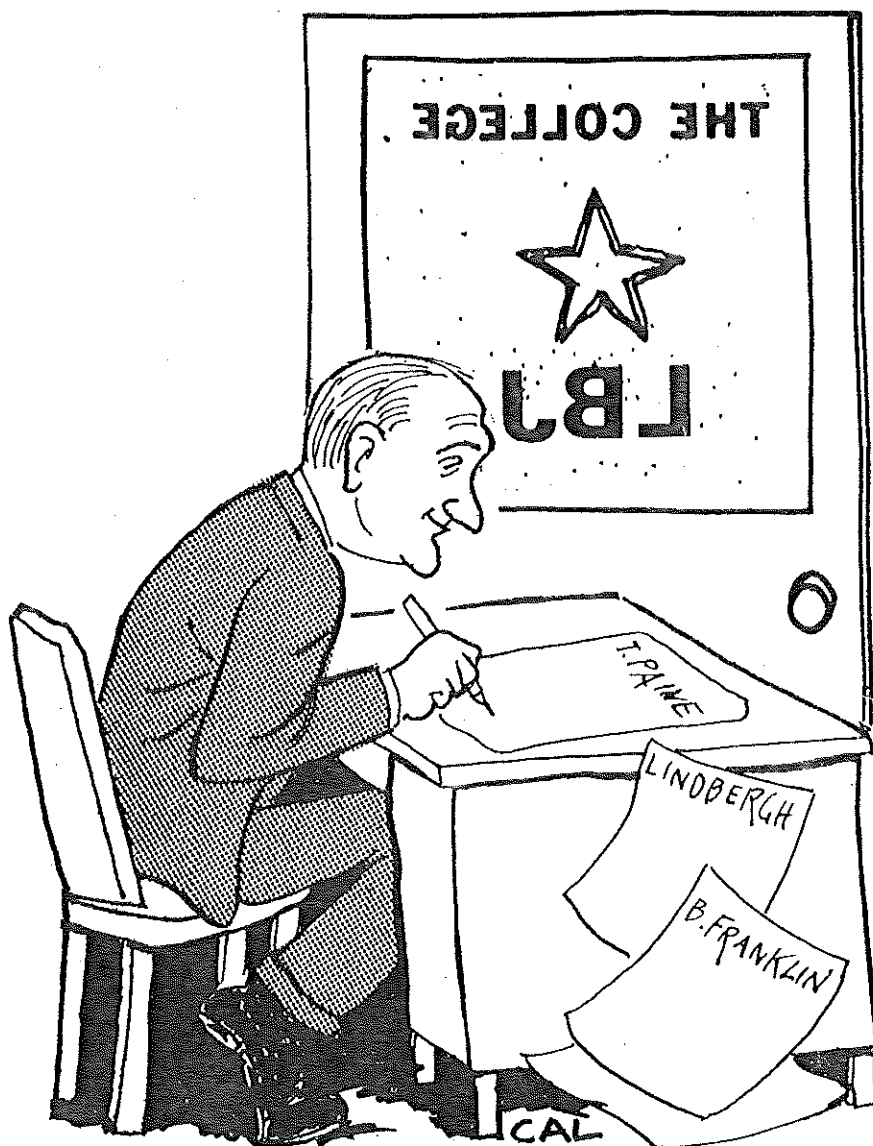
It was not until after many school publications had been founded that the organized study of journalism was initiated in secondary schools and institutions of higher learning. For an excellent account of the growth of collegiate journalism education see the February, 1969 issue of *The Quill*. High school instruction in journalism began in 1912 in Salina, Kansas. The movement became widespread in the 1920's. It is estimated that approximately 175,000 students are enrolled in journalism courses at about 5,000 high schools.¹⁰

Prominent People

An interesting collection of personalities wrote for and edited scholastic publications. A list of some of the more prominent students who served on *The Harvard Crimson* from its founding on January 24, 1873, to its 75th anniversary included: Edward Everett Hale, 1883; William Faulkner, 1887; Franklin D. Roosevelt, 1904; James B. Conant, 1914; John Cowles (of the *Minneapolis Star* and *Des Moines Register*), 1921; Gardner Cowles, Jr. (of *Look Magazine*), 1925; David Riesman, 1931; Benjamin Wells, 1938; Cleveland Amory, 1939; and John F. Kennedy, 1940.¹¹

A contributing editor to *The College Star* at Southwest Texas State Teachers College was Lyndon B. Johnson. In 16 signed editorials he described Charles Lindberg as "untouched by arrogant self-assurance and egotism," Benjamin Franklin as an "apostle of thrift," and Thomas Paine as "only a destroyer."¹²

Often these young journalists face difficulties as complex as their commercial colleagues. The National Council for College Publications Advisers now awards a John Hancock bronze statuette and \$250 to the student journalist contributing most to collegiate publications in supporting freedom and responsibility of the college press. Gary C. Dickey of Auburn, Alabama, former editor of the *Tropitian* at Troy State College in Alabama, was the recipient of this first junior Pulitzer prize for his refusal to print a



substitute editorial in place of one he had written. He was expelled from Troy State for printing a blank space with the word "censored" displayed diagonally across it. The federal courts subsequently ordered him reinstated.

Several associations, who devote their attention to scholastic journalism, have grown up. The National Scholastic Press Association and its collegiate counterpart, the Associated Collegiate Press (1933), was founded on April 22, 1921 at the University of Wisconsin. The Columbia Scholastic Press Association, was founded at Columbia University in 1924.

The Quill and Scroll honor society was founded on April 10, 1926 by Dr. George Gallup, then professor of journalism at Drake University, however, its purpose

was somewhat different from its predecessors. In 1931 the Catholic School Press Association was founded at the Marquette University College of Journalism.¹³

While the National School Yearbook Association is the only service dealing primarily with yearbooks and their evaluation, the National Newspaper Service, a subsidiary of the NSYA, also provides critical services for scholastic publications. NSYA is now 20 years old.

Other Aids

While these high school and college associations generally serve as convention, recognition, and rating organizations, they do not generally serve as news gathering agencies. The one notable exception to this is the Collegiate Press Service which provides weekly

and even daily wire service copy. The National Educational Advertising Service, sells national advertising for placement in collegiate newspapers. In addition to their use of these exclusive collegiate services many college newspapers now purchase a variety of syndicated columns, features, and art from commercial syndicates. Many of the college dailies at the large state universities also subscribe to Associated Press and/or United Press International Services.

Not only have students and faculty advisers been interested in promoting the cause of the student press. Dow Jones, the publisher of the *Wall Street Journal* and *The National Observer*, has given more than \$2.5 million to carry out the program of the Newspaper Fund, Inc., a foundation established a decade ago with the sole purpose of encouraging bright young people to take up careers in journalism.

Footnotes

¹Edwin Emery, Phillip H. Ault, and Warren K. Agee, *Introduction to Mass Communications*, 3rd edition, New York, Dodd, Mead and Company, Inc., 1970, p. 389.

²Dario Politella, ed. *Directory of the College Student Press in America*, (a National Council for College Publications Advisers publication), New York, Oxford Publishing Co., Inc., 1970.

³Dario Politella "Hearing Aides for Nixon," *The Daily Collegian*, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Mass., May 14, 1970.

⁴Frank Luther Mott, *American Journalism*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1950, p. 322.

⁵Dario Politella, *Directory of the College Student Press in America*, loc. cit.

⁶Laurence R. Campbell, *A Principal's Guide to High School Journalism*, Iowa City, Quill and Scroll Foundation, 1957, p. 6.

⁷Gene Wicklund, "The Editor's Page," *Scholastic Editor*, April, 1958, p. 26.

⁸Campbell, loc. cit.

⁹Harold Spears and C. H. Lawshe, *High School Journalism*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1944, p. 5.

¹⁰Emery, Ault, and Agee, loc. cit.

¹¹*The Harvard Crimson, 1873-1948*, The Harvard Crimson, Cambridge, 1948, pp. 115-190.

¹²James Benson and Anthony Sisto, *The Student Editorials of Lyndon Baines Johnson*, The College Star, Southwest Texas State College, San Marcos, Texas, 1968.

¹³Spears and Lawshe, op. cit., pp. 375-76.

Scholastic Publications Firsts

22 December 1971

Patrick N.S. Hickman-Robertson is compiling a reference work to be entitled *Firsts: a Dictionary of Achievement*. He plans to include various scholastic publications firsts in this volume and requests your help.

If you are aware of any errors in the article on p. 21 or in Mr. Hickman-Robertson's data, or if you know of earlier scholastic publications, please write to the Editor, *College Press Review*, Box 500, Eastern Kentucky University, Richmond, Ky. 40475.

The first university magazine was *The Student*, published at Oxford University over the imprint of the London bookseller and publisher John Newbury (q.v. *Children's Magazine*) from January 31, 1750 to July 1751. The editor was the poet Christopher Smart, a fellow of Pembroke Hall, Cambridge, who has been described by one unflattering biographer as a bookseller's hack who 'made for some years a hard living betwixt improvidence, dissipation, and a wife and children.' The wife was John Newbury's daughter. He was later confined to a mad-house, where he wrote his most famous poem—'A Song for David'—using a key to scratch its 86 stanzas on the wainscot, writing paper having been denied him. *The Student* ran for 19 issues and is generally considered to possess little literary distinction other than a contribution from Dr. Johnson. With the sixth number the title was changed to *The Oxford and Cambridge Miscellany*.

The first distinctively undergraduate magazine was an Oxford publication called *The Undergraduate* which began in 1819.

SCHOOL MAGAZINES PUBLISHED IN ENGLAND AND WALES 1786-1850

Title	Date founded	School
<i>The Microcosm</i>	1786 ~	Eton College
<i>The Trifler</i>	1788	Westminster
<i>The Flagellant</i>	1792	Westminster
<i>The Miniature</i>	1804	Eton College
<i>The Non-Descript</i>	1805	Edward VI Grammar School, Macclesfield
<i>The College Magazine (ms)</i>	1818	Eton College
<i>The Lingerer or Collegger (ms)</i>	1818	Eton College
<i>Horae Otiosae</i>	1819	Eton College
<i>Apis Matina (ms)</i>	1820	Eton College
<i>The Etonian</i>	1820	Eton College
<i>The Salt-Bearer</i>	1820	Eton College
<i>The Student (1 only)</i>	1821	Eton College
<i>The Eton Miscellany</i>	1827	Eton College
<i>The Harrovian</i>	1827	Harrov
<i>Hazelwood Magazine</i>	1828	Hazelwood School
<i>Oppidan</i>	1828	Eton College
<i>The Pauline</i>	1831	St. Paul's
<i>Eton College Magazine</i>	1832	Eton College
<i>Merchant Taylor's Magazine</i>	1833	Merchant Taylor's
<i>The Kaleidoscope</i>	1833	Eton College
<i>The Rugby Magazine</i>	1835	Rugby School
<i>The Sherbornian</i>	1836	Sherborne
<i>The Carthusian</i>	1839	Charterhouse
<i>Bruce Castle Magazine</i>	1839	Bruce Castle
<i>Haileybury Observer</i>	1840	Haileybury College
<i>Eton Classical Casket</i>	1840	Eton College
<i>King Edward VI's Magazine</i>	1842	King Edward VI's Grammar School, Birmingham
<i>Eton Bureau</i>	1842	Eton College
<i>The New Microcosm (1 issue)</i>	1845	Manchester G.S.
<i>The Bromley Magazine</i>	1845	Mr. Rame's Academy
<i>Birmingham and Edgbaston Proprietary School Magazine</i>	1845	As title
<i>The Harpur Magazine</i>	1846	Bedford G.S.
<i>The Addiscombe Magazine</i>	1846	Addiscombe Military School
<i>Eton School Magazine</i>	1847	Eton College
<i>Tirocinia; or, The Cheltenham Collegians</i>	1847	Cheltenham College
<i>The Marlborough Magazine</i>	1848	Marlborough
<i>The Andean, Harrow Weald</i>	1847	?
<i>Rugby Miscellany</i>	1846	Rugby School
<i>Rossall News</i>	1850	Rossall
<i>Rossall Herald</i>	1850	Rossall
<i>Rossall Charivari</i>	1850	Rossall
<i>The Brucian, Tottenham</i>	1850	Bruce Castle
<i>Brighton School Journal</i>	1850	Brighton School

The first four magazines on this list were published at public schools. The first magazine published by the boys of a grammar school was *The Non-Descript*, Macclesfield, 1805.

The first magazine published by the pupils of a private school (in England this means a proprietary school; a 'public school' is public in the sense that it is a corporate body, not privately owned) was the *Hazelwood Magazine*. It should be noted that though the year 1828 is given in this list, this only denotes the date of the earliest

surviving copies, i.e. from Vol. 6 No. 1. The magazine may have been founded in 1822, the year the school was established by Matthew Davenport Hill and his brother Rowland, better known as Sir Rowland Hill, the father of the adhesive postage stamp.

None of the above listed magazines survive. As far as I can ascertain the oldest continuously published school magazine in Britain is *The Eton College Chronicle*, which was founded in 1863.

Dear Professor Kleine,

Many thanks indeed for your recent letter and most interesting article on the student press in America. I don't think my own researches into the history of the student press in Britain have progressed far enough to make an article (not an informed article anyway—and I am impressed by the high standard of writing in *College Press Review*) but you can certainly reproduce any part of my letter you like. As you say, your readers may well be able to help out on the questions posed. I am particularly interested to hear of any college or university paper published before 1750 in any country of the world; and secondary school paper before 1777 (in the light of your *Students Gazette* of Philadelphia), and any printed secondary school paper before 1786 (the year the *Microcosm* was published at Eton).

I wonder if you can tell me something more about the *Students Gazette* issued at William Charter School, Philadelphia, 1777? I note the source quoted is Laurence Campbell's 'A Principal's Guide to High School Journalism'. Does Mr. Campbell say how many issues were produced and whether any survive? Or the date of the earliest known issue? And anything about the contents?

Please find enclosed a list of school magazines published in Britain between 1750-1850. I don't claim that it is by any means complete and I hope in time to be able to fill in the gaps. As regards the *Microcosm* of 1786, the editors were George Canning, John Smith, Robert 'Bobus' Smith and John Hookham Frere. It consisted chiefly of essays, including one by Canning on 'The Slavery of Greece'—an early intimation of an interest that was to influence his foreign policy as Minister for Foreign Affairs (1807 and 1820-27) and assist the liberation of Greece. Canning was Prime Minister for six months prior to his death in 1827, the first of many Prime Ministers whose first experience of 'public affairs' has been in editing a school magazine. The *Microcosm* enjoyed a wide circulation outside the school, one of its readers being the Queen, who was sent copies by Fanny Burney. It lasted for about a year.

Yours sincerely,

Patrick N.S. Hickman-Robertson
59 South Audley Street
London W.1, England

Distinguished Award Winners

The National Council of College Publications Advisers was established as the professional organization for advisers to college and university student publications at a meeting in Washington, D.C., in the fall of 1954.

In 1957 it presented an "outstanding yearbook adviser award" to C. J. Medlin of Kansas State University. A formalized, annual awards program was established in 1960 with two major divisions: Distinguished Adviser Awards to persons in the advising field and Distinguished Service Awards to persons outside the field who had contributed significantly to college and university student publications.

The Distinguished Newspaper Adviser and Distinguished Yearbook Adviser awards have been presented each year since 1960. In 1967 awards were added in these areas: Distinguished Magazine Adviser, Distinguished Business Adviser, Distinguished Two-Year College Newspaper Adviser, Distinguished Two-Year College Yearbook Adviser. These awards are continued at the Awards Committee's discretion.

Current practice is that no one may win a Distinguished Adviser Award more than once. In 1969, believing that more deserving advisers should receive recognition, the Awards Committee established the Honor Roll of Advisers Award. Each person may win this award only once, and he is eligible to receive the Distinguished Adviser Award after receiving the Honor Roll Award.

Recipients of NCCPA awards since 1960 are listed below:

DISTINGUISHED NEWSPAPER ADVISER

- 1960—Sister Mary Regina, C.S.J., Regis (Mass.) College
- 1961—Dr. Robert Cranford, University of Nebraska
- 1962—Gay Jenkins, Lewis and Clark College
- 1963—Hector Sutherland, Rochester Institute of Technology
- 1964—Lee O. Hench, Wisconsin State College
- 1965—Raymond Tudor, Illinois State University
- 1966—Roy G. Campbell, Northern Illinois University
- 1967—Irwin C. Harris, Oregon State University
- 1968—William F. Noall, University of Maryland
- 1969—Dr. Louis E. Ingelhart, Ball State University
- 1970—Dr. Herman A. Estrin, Newark College of Engineering
- 1971—Louis J. Berman, Michigan State University
Mrs. Kay Ryall Miller, Edinboro (Pa.) State College

DISTINGUISHED YEARBOOK ADVISER

- 1960—William F. McIlrath, Michigan State University
- 1961—Calvin J. Medlin, Kansas State University
- 1962—Dr. Reid H. Montgomery, University of South Carolina
- 1963—Wilbur C. Peterson, University of Iowa
- 1964—Perry Ashley, University of Kentucky
- 1965—Mrs. Margaret Garland, Wartburg College
- 1966—Dr. Oliver R. Smith, Brigham Young University
- 1967—Dr. John A. Boyd, Indiana State University
- 1968—Mrs. Katherine Rogers, Fort Hays Kansas State College

1969—Joe T. Kovach, University of California at Santa Barbara

1970—Dr. W. Manion Rice, Southern Illinois University

1971—Dr. Dario Politella, University of Massachusetts

DISTINGUISHED MAGAZINE ADVISER

1967—Ronald Phillips, Black Hills State College

1968—Wilton C. Scott, Savannah State College

1971—Daniel E. Thornburgh, Eastern Illinois University

DISTINGUISHED BUSINESS ADVISER

1967—Lloyd Edmonds, University of Texas

1969—Brent G. Myking, University of Florida

1970—Harry E. Morris, University of California at Los Angeles

DISTINGUISHED TWO-YEAR COLLEGE NEWSPAPER ADVISER

1967—Albert W. Higgins, Hibbing (Minn.) State Junior College

1968—William A. Kamrath, El Camino (Calif.) College

1969—Frederic W. Walker, Vincennes (Ind.) University

1970—Miss Barbara Garfunkel, Miami-Dade Junior College

1971—Miss Lillian Lodge, Ocean County (N.J.) College

DISTINGUISHED TWO-YEAR COLLEGE YEARBOOK ADVISER

1967—Lewis S. Barrett, Fullerton Junior College

1968—Jim D. Sullivan, Eastern Oklahoma State College

1971—William C. Woolfson, Bronx Community College

HONOR ROLL OF ADVISERS

1969—Earl M. Hite Jr., Millersville State College (Pa.)

Lyle M. Crist, Mount Union College (Ohio)

Ira L. Baker, East Carolina University

W. Manion Rice, Southern Illinois University

Merwin G. Fairbanks, Brigham Young University

James R. Tolly, Illinois Central College

Mrs. Margaret A. Watkins, Mesa Community College (Ariz.)

1970—Dr. Dario Politella, University of Massachusetts, Amherst

E. L. Woodson, Oklahoma State University

Sister Margaret Agnes, S.C., College of

Mount St. Joseph-on-the-Ohio

Donald Feltner, Eastern Kentucky University

Dr. Hugh W. McLaughlin, Mesa Community College (Ariz.)

Warren A. Mack, DeAnza College (Calif.)

1971—C. Thomas Nelson, Pepperdine University (California)

Mrs. Esther Kitzes, University of Pittsburgh

Ross Strader, University of Houston

Vernon McDaniel, College of the Ozarks (Arkansas)

Walter Frederick, University of California, Berkeley

DISTINGUISHED SERVICE AWARD WINNERS

- 1962—Prof. Fred L. Kildow, director, Associated Collegiate Press, University of Minnesota
- 1963—Dr. Joseph M. Murphy, then director, Columbia Scholastic Press Association, Columbia University
- Paul S. Swensson, then executive director, The Newspaper Fund (a foundation of the Wall Street Journal)
- Edward E. McDonald, then grand executive secretary-treasurer, Pi Delta Epsilon, student publications fraternity
- 1964—Nelson Poynter, editor, St. Petersburg (Fla.) Evening Independent and Times
- Benjamin W. Allnutt, author and adviser, Bethesda-Chevy Chase High School, Maryland
- Dr. Arthur M. Sanderson, then executive director of

- the National Council of College Publications Advisers, University of South Florida
- 1965—Charles Dolan, national educational director, Taylor Publishing Company, Dallas, Texas
- Mrs. Dorothy Chandler, vice president, corporate relations, The Times Mirror Company, Los Angeles
- Robert R. Farnham, Fashion Press, Inc., Los Angeles
- 1966—V. Edward Canale, president, National Advertising Service, Inc., New York City
- 1967—John Ciardi, poet and critic
- 1968—Sterling Fisher, executive director, The Reader's Digest Foundation
- 1969—Dr. John S. Dickey, president, Dartmouth College
- 1970—N. S. Patterson, founder (1950) and director of the National School Yearbook Association and founder (1950) and editor of Photolith magazine
- 1971—Ruggero J. Aldisert, Judge of the United States Court of Appeals for the Third Circuit and Trustee of the University of Pittsburgh

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Loyola University.....Louisiana

Marshall University.....West Virginia

Massachusetts, University of.....Massachusetts

Missouri, University of.....Missouri

Nebraska, University of.....Nebraska

Nevada, University of.....Nevada

New York, State University of.....New York

Northern Illinois University.....Illinois

Purdue University.....Indiana

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How Do You Strengthen the Editorial Page?

By RICHARD K. REDFERN
Clarion (Pa.) State College

Because I think that the editorial page should display good writing on a variety of issues that are important to the paper's readers, I try in various ways to strengthen the editorial page. Some of my ideas work; some don't.

One problem I haven't licked is getting my editors to write their editorials before the last minute. (The *Clarion Call* is a weekly.) Partly because most of my editors are not good writers, they ask me to copyread their editorials. As I clean up the spelling, punctuation, and sentence structure, I often suggest to the writer one or two ways by which he can strengthen his argument or support his opinion. When there is enough time, he is almost always willing to add some details or otherwise improve the editorial.

When, however, an editor finishes his editorial just half an hour before the last copy goes to the printer, I may not see it before it is printed, or I may have time only to correct the misspellings. In addition, the proofreading may be done hastily or not at all on the last-minute editorials, which then appear with printer's errors.

Is it important to get editors on a weekly to write their editorials reasonably early? If so, how can an adviser persuade them to do so?

Another idea I have had little luck with is getting an editor to return to an important topic which he wrote an editorial about earlier in the year. Many students will write a strong editorial about a topic such as curriculum reform but will fail to return to it three months or a year later. Since changes in the academic world often take a long time, teachers and administrators will pay more attention to a problem if the editor reasserts (or modifies) his position several months later.

When editors say to me "I can't think of anything to write an editorial about," I sometimes suggest returning to the topic of an earlier editorial. Perhaps because they think that one editorial exhausts a topic, they seldom take my suggestion.

I have had good luck, however, in inviting guest editorials from students not on the staff of the paper and from faculty members. Last year a girl who had been president of the Association of Women Students and was then a member of the Student Senate wrote a guest editorial in which she scolded Clarion students for doing

too much complaining and too little work to improve campus affairs. I think that her editorial helped clear the air.

Last fall, in the issue two days after the October 15 Vietnam moratorium, we had two guest editorials. An associate professor of political science commented on the difficulty of converting aspirations into action. The other editorial, written by the dean of student affairs, praised Clarion students for the way they conducted themselves in the discussions, debates, and other activities of moratorium day.

Last spring a speech teacher accepted my invitation to write an editorial commenting on a student editorial about faculty weaknesses. She skillfully pointed out certain flaws and exaggerations in the student editorial and thus helped some students understand how much work is required to do first-rate teaching. Once a guest editorial came in that looked like a feature story to us, and we ran it on the front page. It was an explanation of a film seminar, the program of good films arranged by an assistant professor of communication. Here is his first sentence: "The Film Seminar attempts an international dream where the stars are not to be imitated, the stories not to be explained, but the aftertaste not to be lost." The story created favorable comment.

The price of the guest editorials is a memo of invitation (which I send far enough in advance so that the writer does not feel rushed) and a thank-you note after the piece appears. About three-fourths of the students and faculty members accept the invitations to write guest editorials, and many of them appear flattered by the invitation. My editors like the custom and ask me to continue it.

When we print thoughtful editorials by the editors and by guest writers, we get a good number of letters to the editor, and these strengthen the editorial page by demonstrating that almost everyone who makes the effort can get his comment printed in the *Call*. In addition, the editor and I sometimes suggest to a student leader that she or he write a letter to the editor. This idea also works fairly well.

An editorial page which prints a variety of thoughtful, provocative editorials and related comments is one way of filling a need in the college world which was expressed thus by Harold Howe II, the former U.S. commissioner of education: "What education needs most of all is a group of thoughtful and constructive agitators" (*The New York Times*, January 9, 1969, p. 67). Furthermore, as the quality of the editorial page improves, occasional compliments come in which both the editors and the adviser appreciate.

—Mr. Redfern is professor of English and adviser to the *Clarion Call* at Clarion (Pa.) State College.

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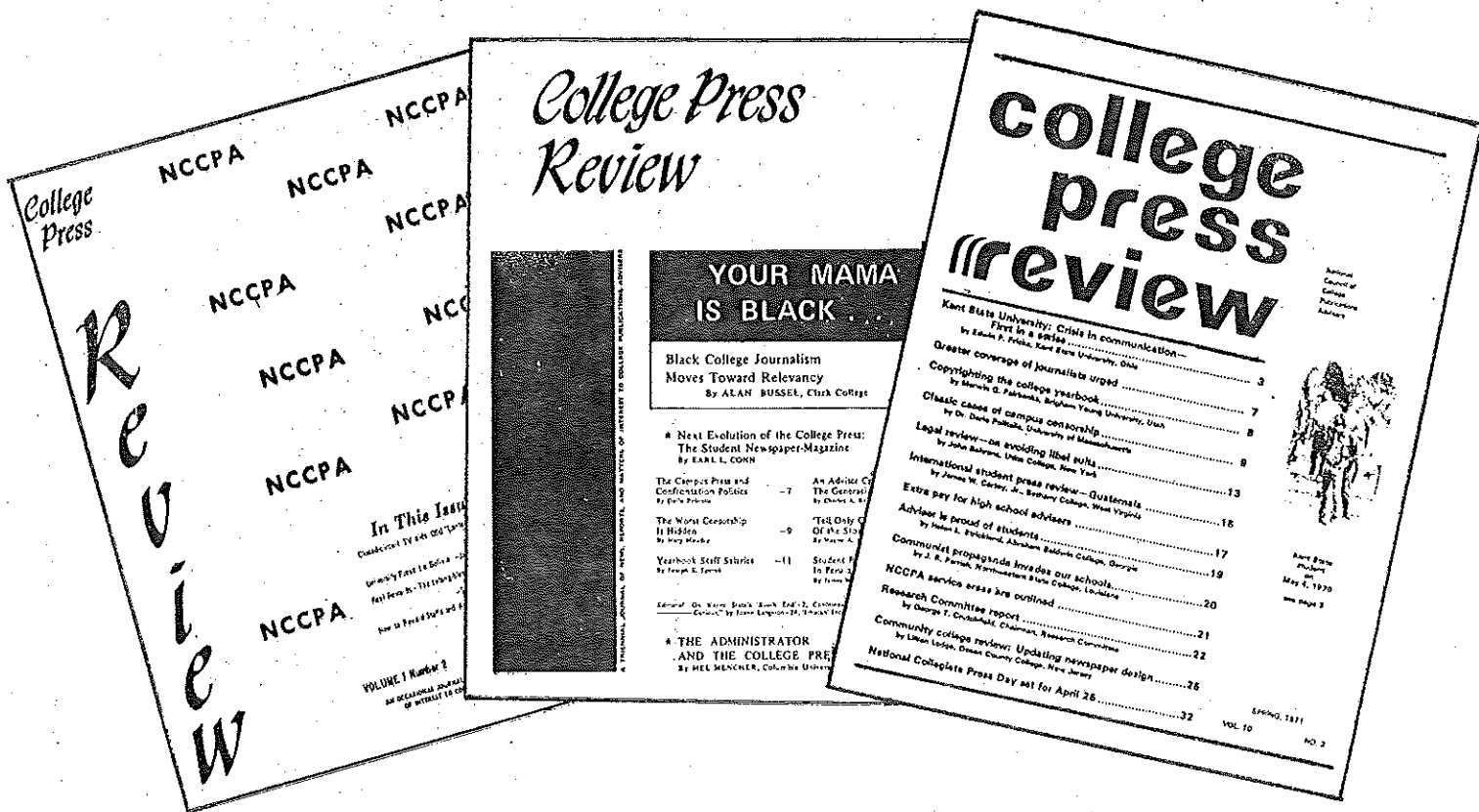
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