

Challenges for Journalism Education and Training in a Transforming Society: A Case Study of Three Selected Institutions in Post-1994 South Africa

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Declaration

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Abstract

This study investigated the challenges for journalism education and training (JE&T) in a post-1994 transforming South Africa. Prior to 1994, South Africa had three distinct university systems with different ideological orientations, namely historically Afrikaans-language universities, historically English-language universities, and historically “black” universities. The consequence of these orientations in the university system caused a paradigmatic schism in the field of JE&T. The advent of democracy in 1994 necessitated the questioning of this division in higher education. One could assume that there was need to transform the JE&T curricula so that it could address the challenges of a society in transformation. This study, therefore, aimed to establish whether JE&T curricula in three selected tertiary institutions in post-1994 South Africa have transformed in line with the transformation process in the country. The post-colonial theory, developmental journalism model and Ubuntu philosophy were deemed the most appropriate theoretical points of departure from which to analyse the curricula. A collective case study was used as a research design. To collect data, a mixed-method approach, which utilised both qualitative and quantitative approaches, was used. Qualitative data were collected through use of programme documents from the selected journalism tertiary institutions and a semi-structured questionnaire, which was distributed to programme coordinators. Quantitative data were obtained through the structured questionnaire which was completed by students in the selected programmes. The qualitative data obtained were analysed using qualitative content analysis, while quantitative data were analysed using the statistical package SPSS version 18. The data were then analysed and discussed in terms of the selected theories. The analysis revealed that the three programmes are highly dependent on Western epistemologies. The programmes have a close relationship with the media industry, a relationship which at times can be a double-edged sword. The findings also show that the programme coordinators of these programmes are not averse to the transformation of curricula provided the process takes into cognisance Western epistemologies. The results also showed that in terms of gender and race, transformation has either been insignificant or non-existent. Lastly, all three programmes do not teach their students to report in indigenous languages. The final conclusion of the study is that JE&T in the selected programmes are not yet addressing the challenges of a transforming post-1994 South Africa.

Opsomming

Hierdie studie het die uitdagings aan joernalistieke opvoeding en opleiding (JO&O) in 'n post-1994, transformerende Suid-Afrika ondersoek. Voor 1994 het Suid-Afrika drie verskillende universiteitstelsels met verskillende ideologiese oriëntasies gehad, naamlik historiese Afrikaanse universiteite, historiese Engelse universiteite en historiese “swart” universiteite. Die gevolg van hierdie oriëntasies in die universiteitstelsel het 'n paradigmatische skisma in die veld van JO&O veroorsaak. Die koms van demokrasie in 1994 het die bevraagtekening van hierdie skeiding in hoër onderwys genoodsaak. Die aanname kon gemaak word dat daar 'n behoefte was om JO&O kurrikula te transformeer sodat dit aan die uitdagings van 'n samelewing in oorgang kon beantwoord. Hierdie studie het dus beoog om vas te stel of JO&O kurrikula in drie geselekteerde tersiêre inrigtings in 'n post-1994 Suid-Afrika saam met die landgetransformeer het. Die postkoloniale teorie, ontwikkelingsjoernalistiek-teorie en Ubuntu-filosofie is geoordeel om die mees toepaslike teoretiese vertrekpunte te wees om die kurrikula mee te evalueer. 'n Kollektiewe gevallestudie is as navorsingsontwerp gebruik. As dataversamelingsmetodologie is 'n gemengde metodesbenadering gevolg, waarin kwalitatiewe en kwantitatiewe metodologieë gebruik is. Kwalitatiewe data is deur 'n analise van die programdokumente van die geselekteerde tersiêre instellings versamel, asook deur 'n semi-gestruktureerde vraelys aan die programkoördineerders. Kwantitatiewe data is verkry danksy 'n gestruktureerde vraelys wat deur studente in die onderskeie programme voltooi is. Die kwalitatiewe data is geanaliseer deur kwalitatiewe inhoudsanalise, terwyl die kwantitatiewe data geanaliseer is deur die statistiese pakket SPSS weergawe 18. Die data is daarna aan die geselekteerde teorieëgetoets en daarvolgens geëvalueer. Die analise het getoon dat die drie programme sterk steun op Westerse epistemologieë. Die drie programme het stewige verhoudings met die mediabedryf, 'n verhouding wat soms 'n tweesnydende swaard kan wees. Die bevindinge toon ook dat die koördineerders van die programme nie onwillig oor die transformasie van kurrikula is nie, met dien verstande die proses neem Westerse epistemologieë in aanmerking. Die resultate het ook aangetoon dat transformasie onbeduidend of nie-bestaande was in terme van geslag en ras. Die drie programme bied ook geen onderrig in inheemse Afrika-tale aan nie. Die finale slotsom van die studie was dat JO&O in die geselekteerde programme nog nie die uitdagings van 'n transformerende post-1994 Suid-Afrika aanspreek nie.

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List of Acronyms

BPhil	Bachelor of Philosophy (Post Graduate NQF 8)
BTech	Bachelor of Technology
CHE	Council on Higher Education
HEQC	Higher Education Quality Committee
JE&T	Journalism Education and Training
PGDip	Post Graduate Diploma
RU	Rhodes University
SAHRC	South African Human Rights Commission
SANEF	South African National Editors' Forum
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SU	Stellenbosch University
TUT	Tshwane University of Technology
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

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Chapter 1: Introduction¹

1.1 Context: Journalism education and training (JE&T) in South Africa

In order to understand the post-1994 journalism education and training (JE&T) context in South Africa, it is critical to recognise that it is a product of larger social and political circumstances. Prior to 1994, JE&T curricula were fragmented and “took different forms in response to different agendas” (Prinsloo, 2010:189). Du Toit (2009:2-3) notes, for example, that three distinct university systems, with different ideological orientations existed in the country, namely the Afrikaans-language universities, the English-language universities, and the black universities.²

On one hand, Afrikaans-language universities were aligned with Afrikaner Nationalism and functioned as instruments of the state (Prinsloo, 2010:189; Du Toit, 2009:3). According to Du Toit (2009:10), JE&T departments in Afrikaans-language universities in South Africa “understood their role explicitly in instrumental terms, as serving the interests of dominant social institutions”, and thus “contributed to building and bolstering the Afrikaner nation” (Prinsloo, 2010:189).

On the other hand, the English-language universities’ main agenda was, according to Steenveld, 2006:259), to produce “South Africans who could play a role in fighting government in an oppressive state” (Steenveld, 2006:259). JE&T programmes at English-language universities were largely inspired by critical intellectual work generated under, for example, Cultural Studies at Birmingham University (Steenveld cited in Prinsloo, 2010:190), and critical works of scholars such as Althusser, Gramsci, Freire, Fanon and Cabral (Prinsloo, 2010:190). Thus students at English-speaking universities were provided with “theoretical grounds” to understand and critique the relationship among the National Party government, sectors of the academe and the media, and how this relationship was used to legitimate apartheid (De Beer & Tomaselli, 2000:12).

¹ The thesis is written according to South African English spelling. However, quotations will be in the English of the source, hence the variation in spellings of words such as “organization/organisation” and “color/colour”

² These included Potchefstroom University (now Northwest University), which was the first to establish a JE&T programme in the country in 1959, Rand Afrikaans, Orange Free State and Stellenbosch. English-language universities included Rhodes, Witwatersrand, Natal and Cape Town universities. Major black universities in South Africa, prior to 1994 were Fort Hare, Zululand and Boputhatswana (now North West University) (Prinsloo, 2010:189-190; De Beer & Tomaselli, 2000:11-12).

In black universities, JE&T programmes were, according to Prinsloo (2010:190), “paternalistically informed by Afrikaans-language curricula”. Du Toit (2009:3) concurs when she argues that black universities were established as part of the infrastructures of the apartheid state, and as such were not given the opportunity to develop “independent identities”. They were developed to produce functionaries for the black homeland administrations (De Beer & Tomaselli, 2000:13) and were placed under tight administrative control by the apartheid regime (Du Toit, 2009:3). However, De Beer and Tomaselli argue that, despite the tight controls, some scholars within these universities questioned apartheid and promoted social science research and Africanisation discourses (2000:13).

Besides universities, journalism was also taught at technikons,³ whose main emphasis was on vocational skills (Prinsloo, 2010:190). According to Prinsloo, technikons were answerable to a centralised body in Pretoria, which ensured that apartheid ideologies of “separate and, contrary to their stated position, unequal education were fostered”.

The election of a black government in 1994, however, brought significant changes to the socio-political conditions of post-1994 South Africa, which impacted on socio-political institutions in the country, thus necessitating the transformation of curricula in universities and technikons so that they could address the inherited inequalities and inefficiencies inherited from apartheid (Reddy, 2004:35). The “paradigmatic schism” which existed in the field of JE&T prior to 1994 (De Beer, 2008:185), was no longer tenable in this new dispensation. According to Harber (2004:80), the defensive, combative posture that journalists had adopted for their survival during the 1980s was now “strikingly inappropriate in the 1990s”. Thus, the advent of democracy in 1994 called for a reconfiguration of the journalist’s role in South Africa and the need to adapt to a new world which required “different things of them” (Harber, 2004:79). Post-apartheid journalists were/are now expected to be socially committed, in order to redress the inequalities of the past and open up space for formerly disadvantaged and marginalised voices (Wasserman, 2005:160).

Not only does JE&T in South Africa have to contend with the complexities of a country struggling to transform itself from a 350-year old construct of colonialism and apartheid into a democracy based on a so-called model constitution, but it also has to deal with a rapidly changing global journalism landscape (Steyn & De Beer, 2004:387-388; Teer-Tomaselli,

³ Examples of these were Pretoria, Durban, Cape Peninsula and Cape Town (De Beer & Tomaselli, 2000:12).

2004:9). The 21st Century JE&T landscape is characterised by a rapid growth of new media technologies and multimedia electronic publishing, which have transformed the way journalism is practiced in the traditional media of newspapers and broadcast (Friedland & Webb, 1995:54). The digitisation of media content and the resultant free flow of information across platforms (Jenkins, 2001:93) have encouraged convergence of different media technologies. This has resulted in the blurring of the once clear boundaries between print, broadcasting and telecommunication-based media. Furthermore, the highly commercialised global media systems have also led to a blurring of lines between information and entertainment, thus giving rise to a new genre of information known as infotainment (Fourie, 2005:155; Wasserman, 2005:161; Deuze, 2004:129-130).

South Africa, like all other countries in the global community, is not immune to these challenges. The market-oriented media environment in South Africa has, for example, given rise to new media genres such as tabloids (Wigston, 2007:52). Tabloids arrived on the South African market from 2002 onwards with the entry of the *Daily Sun*, the *Kaapse Son* and the *Daily Voice*. Much as tabloids are disliked and considered the “bastard offspring” of the traditional print media (Botha & De Beer, 2007:204), their popularity has given rise to the need for new literacy skills that would enable journalism graduates to write and produce for this kind of media (Dennis, 2003:311; Livingstone, 2003: 355).

However, to address these challenges, JE&T scholars required a policy environment which would enable them to transform JE&T curricula and make them relevant to South Africa’s post-1994 socio-political environment. This was provided by the Department of Education, which, since 1994, has introduced several policies, in order to overhaul the entire higher education sector in the country. In the next section, the policy environment created by the Department of Education, through its policies and within which JE&T institutions were/are expected to transform their curricula, is discussed.

1.2 The post-1994 Department of Education context

The newly elected ANC government mandated itself to transform the education system in general and higher education in particular, so that all institutions of higher learning could speak with one voice in the transformation process. To transform the higher education system, the post-1994 government put up several policies to overhaul the “fragmented, dysfunctional and unequal” education system inherited from apartheid (Cross, Mungadi & Rouhani, 2002:171). According to Cross, Mungadi and Rouhani, these policies included,

among others, the Green Paper of 1996 whose main aim was to deal with race, gender and equity through the curriculum; the White Paper of 1997, whose focus was on access and efficiency in the curriculum; and the 1997 Higher Education Act under whose auspices the Council on Higher Education (CHE) was set up to control quality and monitor institutional programmes and products.

In addition, the Department of Education, through the CHE, put up a stringent process of accreditation for all higher education programmes so as to come up with programmes which would help the South African higher education sector realise its goal of transforming the South African society (Reddy, 2004:3). Reddy adds that accreditation of programmes in higher education protects students against poor quality programmes, as well as maintains the credibility of qualifications (2004:4). To accredit a new or existing programme, institutional processes meant to ensure that the programme is of good quality have to be satisfied,⁴ before the programme is sent to CHE where the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC), a permanent committee of CHE, which is based in Pretoria, evaluates the programmes through HEQC appointed peer review panels of subject specialists (Reddy, 2004:9). The panellists are guided by set criteria, which are developed by HEQC, and on the basis of these criteria, recommendations are made.

Whilst the Department of Education has established a framework to ensure that appropriate programmes for South Africa's transformation are designed, the question whether this enabling environment has led to JE&T curricula which address challenges in a transforming post-1994 South Africa arises. In order to establish whether this question had been addressed by JE&T scholars, the researcher carried out a preliminary study of relevant literature to ascertain whether this field needs more exploration, and whether the findings could lead to a relevant research rationale. The next section presents this preliminary study of literature, and subsequent rationale.

1.3 Preliminary study and rationale

A review of existing literature shows that concerns about appropriate journalism curricula in tertiary institutions are not confined to South Africa, but is a global one.

In 2002, Bollinger, the then incoming President of Columbia University, suspended the appointment of a dean for Columbia's Graduate School of Journalism because he wanted the

⁴ The institutional process of accreditation is spelt out in the CHE policy documents. Since this is not the focus of the study, the researcher does not deem it necessary to discuss this process in depth.

School to re-evaluate its curriculum so that it could produce more intellectually-oriented journalists (Walsh, Fogg & Farrell, 2002:1-2). Tumber (2005:551-552) also notes that in 2005, five of the most prestigious journalism schools in the United States of America⁵ worked collaboratively to enrich their curricula. They aimed to produce a journalist who would be able to cope with the complexities of the new journalism landscape. In Europe, the Erasmus Mundus programme in Journalism and Media⁶ sought to prepare students for the challenges of working in the new global information society (Tumber, 2005: 552).

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) also proposed a generic model journalism curriculum for developing countries and emerging democracies (UNESCO, 2007:6). The model takes into cognisance the socio-economic, political and cultural contexts of these countries and also argues for a more cross-disciplinary approach within journalism schools. The model curriculum was further buttressed by the 2007 World Journalism Education Congress in Singapore which called for a journalism curriculum which balanced theory and practice (Declaration of Principles of Journalism Education, 2007).

In Africa, there is a general consensus amongst African scholars that JE&T is informed by Western epistemologies and that it should be Africanised. UNESCO for example observed that the West dominated JE&T in Africa when it stated that:

The source of inspiration of teachers, curricula and textbooks is Western. Teachers are mostly Western educated, curricula are drawn from Western models and most textbooks are authored and published in the West and North America (UNESCO, 2002:1).

Wimmer and Wolf (2005:3, 5) who studied 19 African JE&T curricula available on the Internet, noted with concern that these curricula apply Western (liberal-democratic) concepts of JE&T to African contexts without any adaptations. Banda (2008:50) also reiterated that

⁵ The schools were: (i) Annenberg School for Communication at the University of Southern California; (ii) Medill School of Journalism at Northwestern University; (iii) the Joan Shorenstein Center on the Press, Politics and Public Policy, John F. Kennedy School of Government at the Harvard University; (iv) the Graduate School of Journalism at Columbia University; and (v) the Graduate School of Journalism at the University of California at Berkeley. All these schools worked collaboratively under the Carnegie-Knight Initiative on the Future of Journalism Education (Tumber, 2005:552).

⁶ Five institutions are involved, namely the University of Aarhus' School of Journalism, Denmark; the Amsterdam University, the Netherlands; the University of Wales, Swansea, UK; the City University, London, UK; and University of Hamburg, Germany (Tumber, 2005:552-553).

theory and practice in JE&T in African institutions are still defined and determined by Western institutions and scholars. He is supported by Kanyegirire (2006:161) who argues that the roles of (South) African journalists are also still informed by Siebert, Peterson and Schramm's normative libertarian and social responsibility theories. Thus, several African scholars and commentators have called for the de-Westernisation/Africanisation of the curricula in African JE&T institutions (Ankomah, 2008:162; Groepe, 2008:137; Botha & De Beer, 2007: 201-202; Rabe, 2005:4; Wimmer & Wolf, 2005:3).

In South Africa, several conferences and colloquia have been held since 1979 to discuss journalism curricula. The first journalism conference to discuss curricula issues was held in 1979 (South African Conference on the Survival of the Press and Education for Journalism, 1979). Two major questions were addressed at the conference, namely: What should journalism students be taught and by whom?

Several post-1994 conferences⁷ have also been held and these have mostly expressed a grave need for a new journalism curriculum for South African JE&T institutions. In all these post-1994 conferences, there was a general consensus that the current journalism curricula in JE&T institutions in South Africa are ill-suited to meet the needs of a transforming South Africa.

Scholars and commentators, therefore, called for a JE&T curriculum which would not only address the challenges posed by the rapidly changing media landscape, but one that would be informed by epistemologies relevant to South Africa (Groepe, 2008:137; Botha & De Beer, 2007:200; Mogeckwu, 2005:15; Rabe, 2005:4; Thloloe, 1997:1).

Despite this concern, JE&T in South Africa is under-researched (De Beer, 2008:185; De Beer & Steyn, 2002:14; De Beer & Tomaselli, 2000:10). None of the studies done since 1994 have made an attempt to articulate how a transforming South Africa should be reflected in JE&T curricula that produce journalists in South Africa. For example, Braude (1998) studied the role of the media during the apartheid years, whilst the South African Human Rights

⁷ Some of the conferences include: "Learning about the learning sector". Conference with the South African National Editors' Forum – SANEF (1997); "Training for media transformation and democracy". Colloquium by Chair of Media Transformation at Rhodes University and SANEF (2001); "Cooking up a community of media trainers". Founding conference of Southern African Media Trainers Association (Samtran) (2001); "Taking Stock of ten years of media training and education at tertiary institutions: addressing an agenda for the next decade", Rhodes University (2004); "Journalism Education and Training: The challenges", Stellenbosch University (2008); Precon for the 2nd World Journalism Congress, Rhodes University (2009).

Commission (SAHRC) (2000) investigated issues of race and racism, human rights and freedom of speech in the media. The Goga study (2000) investigated issues of racial and gender balance in the media and also the experiences of the groups being studied. The two Glass Ceiling studies (SANEF, 2006; SANEF, 2007) examined the challenges facing women journalists in South African newsrooms. The South African National Editors' Forum (SANEF) also conducted a Journalism Skills Audit in 2002 which revealed that newly graduated reporters lacked the necessary journalistic skills to carry out their duties in the newsrooms (De Beer & Steyn, 2002:61). The second study, also conducted by SANEF in 2005, revealed that newsroom managers were not well equipped to manage newsrooms (Steyn, De Beer & Steyn, 2005:219). [An in-depth discussion of reviewed literature follows in chapter 3 of this study.]

1.4 Problem statement and focus

It is, therefore, evident from the preliminary literature study that none of these studies since 1994 focused on JE&T curricula in post-1994 South Africa. No study thus far has examined whether journalism curricula in South Africa are transforming in line with the socio-political transformation taking place in South Africa. This study, therefore, seeks to fill in this gap in knowledge by establishing whether South Africa's socio-political transformation is reflected in the JE&T curricula⁸ of selected tertiary institutions. It examines the selected JE&T curricula against the background of the challenges identified above.

1.5 Goals, theoretical points of departure and research questions

1.5.1 Goals

The main objective of this study is to establish whether JE&T curricula in the three selected tertiary institutions address challenges in a transforming post-1994 South Africa.

The specific objectives of this study are:

1. To establish the epistemological and theoretical underpinnings of journalism curricula in the selected tertiary institutions;
2. To establish the role played by the media industry in shaping the JE&T curricula of the selected tertiary institutions;

⁸ The term "curriculum", along with other key concepts such as "journalism" and "journalist", "transformation", "democracy", "education" and "training", "theory" and "practice" and "curriculum" is defined in chapter 2 of this study.

3. To determine the perceptions of journalism educators and trainers in selected tertiary institutions towards the transformation of JE&T curricula; and
4. To establish if selected journalism programmes in the selected tertiary institutions take cognisance of the diverse nature of the South African society.

1.5.2 Theoretical points of departure

The analysis of the JE&T curricula will be informed by three theoretical frameworks, namely the post-colonial theory (together with its sub-theory, the post-colonial feminist theory), the developmental journalism model⁹ and Ubuntu philosophy.

The post-colonial theory was considered useful for this study because South Africa is a country which is struggling to transform itself from a 350-year old construct of colonialism and apartheid into a democracy. This theory, according to Fourie (2007a:207), gives one the critical ability to penetrate the “systemic and continuing structures of colonial power, the normativity of ‘Westerners’ and the contradictions and tensions these structures cause in the realities of the everyday life of non-Westerners”. The post-colonial feminist theory takes the argument further when it points out that women were not only oppressed by colonialism, but by patriarchy as well. Thus, whilst the post-colonial theory enabled the researcher to determine whether colonial and apartheid legacies are still reflected in the three selected JE&T curricula during 2010, sixteen years after the dawn of democracy in 1994, its sub-theory made it possible for the researcher to explore the status of women not only in the post-colonial state, but also within patriarchy as well.

The developmental journalism model was chosen as a framework for studying journalism curricula in the selected institutions because South Africa is a developing nation whose main aim is to develop “a democratic and open society” in order to “build a united and democratic South Africa” (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996:3). According to Servaes (1996a:15), it empowers people to participate in democratic processes of their societies. One could conclude that by giving the people a voice to articulate their own concerns and by allowing them to actively participate in their own development, developmental journalism is fostering democracy in society. Since South Africa is in the process of democratising its own socio-political institutions, this makes developmental journalism an appropriate framework for analysing journalism curricula.

⁹ Developmental journalism is also referred to as development journalism (Skjerdal, 2011:59). For purposes of consistency, the term “developmental journalism” is used throughout the study.

Ubuntu philosophy, also known as Afro-humanism (see Thloloe, 2008:134; Rabe, 2005:3) has been chosen for this study because many South African journalism educators and trainers have suggested it as a possible framework for the revision of the normative media theory from a Western-centric framework to an Afro-centric one (Botha & De Beer, 2007:201-202; Fourie, 2007a:210; Wasserman, 2007:12; Fourie, 2005:154; Mogekwu, 2005:15-16; Rabe, 2005:4). Ubuntu philosophy, like developmental journalism, carries within it notions of democratisation because a journalist operating under its auspices is expected to consult and engage communities so that they contribute to the stories about themselves (Fourie, 2007a:212). Ubuntu philosophy also acknowledges “the diversity of languages, histories, values and customs, all of which constitute South African society” (Louw, 1999:4).

[An in-depth discussion of these theoretical frameworks is presented in chapter 4 of this study.]

1.5.3 Central research question

Taking the above into account, the central research question for this study can be formulated as follows:

Do the selected JE&T curricula in the three selected tertiary institutions address challenges in a transforming South Africa?

1.5.4 Sub-questions

Sub-questions can be formulated as follows:

1. What are the epistemological and theoretical underpinnings of journalism curricula in the selected tertiary institutions?
2. What role does the media industry play in shaping the JE&T curricula of the selected tertiary institutions?
3. What is the perception of journalism educators and trainers in the selected tertiary institutions towards the transformation of JE&T curricula in their institutions?
4. Do the selected journalism programmes in the selected tertiary institutions take cognisance of the diverse nature of the South African society (that is, what are the demographics of the student cohort and faculty in these programmes)?

1.6 Research design and methodology

1.6.1 Research design

A collective case study approach was used in this study. Babbie (2010:311) refers to this type of case study as a comparative case study because there is a possibility that the cases would be compared. For purposes of uniformity, the term “collective case study” will be used throughout the study. (A detailed discussion of what a collective case study is, is given in chapter 5 [5.4.1]).

A mixed method approach was used in this study. This refers to the utilisation of both qualitative and quantitative data sources of information in a single study so as to enable the researcher to have a more comprehensive understanding of the research problem (Creswell, 2003:15). In this approach, the researcher collects both numeric information and text information (Ivankova, Creswell & Clark, 2007:262). Three different sources of data were used, namely programme documents of selected programmes, semi-structured questionnaires for programme coordinators and structured questionnaires for students in the selected programmes. The combination of these different research methods ensured that the methods complemented one another by building on the strengths of each method and minimising their weaknesses (Strydom & Delport, 2005:314; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004:15). (A detailed discussion of the mixed method approach is given in chapter 5 [5.4.2].)

1.6.2 Sampling procedure

Purposive sampling was applied (see chapter 5[5.5.1]) to select three JE&T institutions, namely, in alphabetical order, Rhodes University (RU), Stellenbosch University (SU) and Tshwane University of Technology (TUT). Secondly, three similar programmes, one from each selected tertiary institution, were purposively selected for the study. These were the Post Graduate Diploma in Journalism (PGDip) (RU), Bachelor of Philosophy in Journalism (BPhil) (SU), and the Bachelor of Technology (BTech) (TUT). All three constitute a fourth year of study. Next to be sampled were the key informants, the three programme coordinators, who were selected mainly for their expertise and closeness to the selected programmes. Finally, students in the selected programmes were sampled. Because of the small numbers involved, all the students were selected to participate in the study. The following are the numbers of students who were enrolled in each programme in 2010 when the study was carried out:

- PGDip (RU): 20;

- BPhil (SU): 26; and
- BTech (TUT): 60.

(Details of the sampling procedure are given in chapter 5 [5.5].)

1.6.3 Data analysis procedures

Qualitative content analysis was used to analyse data obtained through the programme documents and the semi-structured questionnaires completed by the programme coordinators. Hsieh and Shannon (2005:1278) describe qualitative content analysis as “a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns”. Qualitative content analysis differs from quantitative content analysis in that the former approach involves “no physical counting of data” but tends to be “more critical in nature and can be used when we need to penetrate the deeper layers of a message”, while the latter “involves some form of counting, and applies the scientific method rigorously” (Wigston, 2009:4). (Qualitative content analysis is described in detail in chapter 5 [5.4.2.1].)

The quantitative data obtained from the students’ questionnaire were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18. (Details of how this was done are given in chapter 5 [5.4.2.3].)

1.7 Chapter outline

Finally, this thesis is presented according to the following outline:

Chapter 1: Introduction – This is an introductory chapter which addresses the following issues: the JE&T context within which the study is being done, preliminary literature study and rationale, problem statement, the goal and central research question. A brief synopsis of the theoretical framework, research design and methodology of the study are given. The rest of the chapters are presented as follows:

Chapter 2: Definition and review of key concepts – In this chapter, the key concepts of the study are defined and reviewed.

Chapter 3: Literature review – This chapter reviews related literature on JE&T, focusing on scholarly debates on what appropriate journalism curricula should entail.

Chapter 4: Theoretical frameworks – This chapter discusses the theoretical frameworks chosen for this study and the reasons for their choice.

Chapter 5: Research design and methodology – The research design and methodology deemed to be appropriate for this study are discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 6: Presentation of findings – In this chapter, the findings derived from the programme documents, semi-structured questionnaires and structured questionnaires are presented.

Chapter 7: Analysis and discussion of the findings – The findings of the study are analysed and discussed in terms of the reviewed literature and the chosen theoretical frameworks.

Chapter 8: Conclusions and recommendations – Conclusions are drawn and recommendations made on the basis of these conclusions.

1.8 Summary of the chapter

In this chapter, the JE&T context within which the study was done, a preliminary literature study and rationale of the study were discussed. The problem statement and focus, the main objective, central research question and sub-questions, as well as the theoretical frameworks were presented. The applicable research design and methodology were also explained. Finally, a chapter outline for the thesis was provided.

In the next chapter the key concepts which are used in this study are reviewed and defined.

Chapter 2: Review and Definition of Key Concepts

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews and defines key concepts which are used in this study. Defining concepts is vital for any study as it would enable the researcher to explore the many nuances of the concepts so as to avoid “dogmatic and one-sided interpretations” (Esterhuysen, 2003:1). Failure to define concepts in any study can easily lead to concept vagueness and simplistic interpretations (Esterhuysen, 2003:1). Berger (2002b:22) also cautions against using terms without defining them. He argues that if terms are used without definition “different content” will be assumed by “different actors”.

The first concepts to be reviewed and defined are “journalism” and “journalist” because they are the foundation on which this study is built. These will be followed by “transformation” and “democracy”, which are both major defining characteristics of post-apartheid South Africa. Finally, the chapter explores the concepts “education” and “training”, “theory” and “practice”, as well as “curriculum” all of which are fundamental in this study.

In the next section, the concepts “journalism” and “journalist” are reviewed and defined.

2.2. Journalism and journalist

2.2.1 What is journalism?

The word “journalism” is derived from the French words “*jour*” or “*journal*”, and the Latin word “*diurnum*” which all mean “of the day” (Kadel, 2006:86). According to Diederichs and De Beer (1998:86), the word “daily” or “journal” (from *diurnalis*) has been an important part of reporting events since Julius Caesar’s *acta diurna* in CE59 which reported the daily activities of the government and posted these in public places for the benefit of the general public (see also Kadel, 2006:86). Kadel concludes that a journal is a paper which details events of the day. In the 14th century, the word “journal” referred to a church service book containing special prayers for different hours of the day (Pathak, 2008:7). However, in the 16th century, the word came to mean a “daily record” just like the word “*diurnum*” in Roman times (Pathak, 2008:7).

The word “journalism” was originally applied in the 17th century to the reportage of current events in printed form, namely newspapers (Zelizer, 2004:22). Thus, according to the Oxford Dictionary (cited in Kadel, 2006:86), journalism stands for “daily, diurnal, a daily newspaper or other publication, any periodical publication containing news in any particular sphere”.

Pathak (2008:7) concludes by saying that since the word “journalism” is derived from the word “journal”, the word “journalism” simply means “writing, editing and publishing a journal”.

Looking at the origins of the word “journalism”, it would appear that from the earliest of times, the purpose of informing the people lay at the core of journalism. Despite the fact that vehicles of gathering and conveying information to people have evolved over the years, news have remained a constant in journalism (Pathak, 2008:9). According to Pathak, in journalism, there must be some news “to be collected, recorded electronically or in scripts, represented, and on which certain things like articles, features, or comments can be composed and subsequently produced, published or transmitted”. In Pathak’s view, “News in journalism is just like the air for human beings. Otherwise, journalism cannot survive. News is in fact, the soul of journalism.” Thus, Stephens (cited in Zelizer, 2004:22) refers to journalism as “the most succinct term we have for the activity of gathering and disseminating news”.

Berger (2009:33) adds that even though the 21st century journalism landscape is “overcrowded” by all kinds of communicators, journalism remains distinct because of its main function, which is to inform the people. What distinguishes journalism from other related types of communication such as interpersonal, intrapersonal, small-group and corporate communication is that journalism is mass communication. According to Steinberg (1994:22), mass communication differs from other types of communication in that it provides little or no opportunity for people to interact directly with the person or people conveying the message. It also differs in that, because of the large masses of people involved, messages are mediated through mechanical or electronic media such as television, newspapers, books and journals (Steinberg, 1994:22).¹⁰

McNair (cited in Zelizer, 2004:22) adds another dimension to the definition of journalism when he qualifies the kind of news that must be gathered. In his own words, journalism is “any authored text in written, audio or visual form, which claims to be ... a truthful statement about, or record of some hitherto unknown feature of the actual, social world”. Pathak (2008:8) concurs when he says that news is only those communications which are new. Hargreaves (cited in Sisson, 2006:23) agrees that “news is what is extraordinary, interesting and not known”. Thus, according to Pathak (2008:9), whenever a new thing happens, it

¹⁰ Since it is outside the scope of this study to delve further into the different types of communication, characteristics of each type of communication are not given in this study.

becomes newsworthy and when this news is communicated, it is called journalism. Schudson (cited in Zelizer, 2004:22), however, broadens the kind of news that should characterise journalism when he defines journalism as “information and commentary on contemporary affairs taken to be publicly important”. This implies that news does not necessarily have to be “new”, but it must be current and of importance to the people.

Tomaselli and Caldwell (2002:23) add another facet to the definition of journalism when they emphasise the production aspect of journalism. They argue that journalism is “a kind of research practice, writing and reporting, conducted within specific categories or beats such as sport, politics, finance, arts, education and health”. Rudin and Ibbotson (2002:5) also argue that journalism involves editing and commentary.

In their words:

Journalism involves the sifting and editing of information, comments and events in a form that is recognizably different from the pure form in which it occurred. Journalism is about putting events, ideas, information and controversies into context. It is about selection and presentation. Above all [...] it is about the assessment of the validity, truthfulness or representativeness of actions or comments.

Muller (cited in Kadel, 2006:86) also subscribes to the same view when he argues that journalism is “the business of obtaining the necessary facts, of evaluating them carefully, of presenting them fully and of setting them wisely”. The mere communication of information or relaying of real events, which does not involve editing or commentary, is, thus, not considered journalism by these scholars.

The process of sifting and editing information to determine what eventually goes to the consumers is done by “gatekeepers”, a term developed in the 1950s to describe people within and outside news organisations who control the flow of information between the event and audiences (Nel, 2001:8). McNelly (1959:102-103) argues that the flow of news between the event and the audience was controlled by many “gatekeepers” such as correspondents, news bureau personnel and various levels of editors (see also Shoemaker, 1991:74-76). Influenced by many factors, these people make decisions such as altering or combining the stories, rejecting some or certain aspects of these stories and deciding what stories eventually make it

to the public arena (Nel, 2001:8). Thus, the gatekeeping process of news-making is a primary role of journalism (Paulussen & Ugille, 2008:38; De Beer, 1998:9).¹¹

Not only is gatekeeping a major function of journalism, but it also sets the agenda for debate and helps people to make decisions on issues being discussed (Berger, 2009:33). Journalism's ability to set the agenda was first acknowledged by newspaper columnist Walter Lippmann (cited in Botha, 2007b:19), who argued that "the only feeling that anyone can have about an event he does not experience is the feeling aroused by his mental image of that event", an image, to a large extent, created by journalists. By selecting certain stories and rejecting others, the gatekeepers set the agenda and "bestow prestige and enhance the authority of individuals and groups by legitimizing their status" (Lazarsfeld & Merton, 1971:560). In their groundbreaking 1972 study of the 1968 American presidential election, McCombs and Shaw came to the conclusion that "the line-up of issues on the public agenda was very similar to the line-up of issues that was in the news coverage of the previous month (McCombs, 2006:un).¹² This implies that the stories written by journalists influence consumers on what to think and talk about (see Cohen, 1963:12-13).

2.2.2 New developments

The above definitions of journalism beg the question: Can new media genres such as infotainment and tabloid journalism be classified as journalism? As pointed out earlier in the discussion, the core of journalism is news/information which is carefully selected and evaluated before it is disseminated to the public. This sifting of information is meant to ensure that audiences receive quality information to help them "make informed political decisions" (Steenveld, 2004:95). "Infotainment" is described by Stockwell (2004:2) as "a grab bag of styles, formats and sub-genres whose only common feature is that they fall somewhere in the space between the two traditional pillars of television, information and entertainment".¹³ This new genre, however, has generated heated debates among scholars, with some, on one hand, believing that they are part of the democratisation of Western

¹¹ It is not within the scope of this study to discuss how the process of gatekeeping takes place or what influences the gatekeepers' decisions. For more information on how the selection process takes place, refer to studies such as Roberts (2006); Harcup and O'Neill (2001); Shoemaker (1991); Galtung and Ruge (1965).

¹² More than 350 empirical studies have been done on the phenomenon of agenda setting (Weaver, 2007:143). For more information on agenda setting, refer to some of these studies which include Scheufele and Tewksbury, 2007); Lazarsfeld and Merton (1971); McCombs and Shaw (1972).

¹³ Infotainment genres include "makeover" shows like *Extreme Makeover* in the USA, interactive reality TV shows such as *Big Brother*, *Survivor*, *Pop Idols*, and *Amazing Race*, sensationalistic documentaries such as *Neighbours from Hell* or *Drivers from Hell*, often based on CCTV footage; and docu-soaps (McNair, 2005:41; Stockwell, 2004:8).

culture, which has been made possible by the “huge expansion in the quantity and quality of information to people of all classes and tastes” (McNair, 2005:38; Stockwell, 2004:3), and others, on the other hand, querying the quality of the information that they present to audiences (Morell, 2007:7; Celdran, 2002:17).

Journalism as the “Fourth Estate”¹⁴ is expected to critique and investigate government business and to provide the public with quality information which would stimulate debate and enable it to participate in national discourses (Bracci, 2003:120; Fletcher cited in McQuail, 1992:114). The Fourth Estate, according to Stockwell (2004:4), posits that journalism is “a watchdog on political institutions and the social processes those institutions create and defend”. That way journalism can play the central role of ensuring accountability in a democracy (Stockwell, 2004:3).

A close look at infotainment and tabloid journalism, however, will show that these genres are obsessed with celebrity, as well as “gossip, scandal, and at times – the bizarre”, information that would not help the public make informed socio-political decisions (Morell, 2007:7; Celdran, 2002:17). The handling of the O.J. Simpson case and the death of former model and *Playboy* playmate, Anna Nicole Smith, bear testimony to this fixation with entertainment and spectacle, prompting Kellner to conclude that these highly commercial hybrid genres “have sacrificed the imperatives of journalism and news in the public interest for focus on the spectacle and entertainment” (Morell, 2007:8; Kellner cited in McNair, 2005:38).

Thus, whilst it is important to acknowledge that infotainment, unlike traditional news and current affairs whose audience ratings are shrinking, is attracting large audiences (Stockwell, 2004:2), it is equally important to interrogate the quality of information that it is disseminating. According to Morell (2007:7), infotainment has resulted in a public which is not well-informed on things that are important to their self-government. Celdran agrees with this observation when he says that infotainment produces “citizens who are not only disengaging from political life but also [are] rapidly losing interest in issues that matter to the country and the community: amounting to a cynical view of politicians and the entire political

¹⁴ The notion of the press as the Fourth Estate was popularised in the 19th century when the press was expected to use its freedom to report on the three branches of government, namely, the executive, legislature and the judiciary (Bracci, 2003:120). The Fourth Estate was expected to play the watchdog role to ensure that these three branches of government served the public (Baran & Davis, 2006:109).

process” (2002:17). He dismisses infotainment as killing the “proud traditions” of objectivity, balance and sobriety associated with traditional journalism. Partly because of this and partly because of the profit motive (which, for the purposes of this study, will not be expanded upon) critics of infotainment argue that it is not and will never be journalism (Stockwell, 2004:3).

The introduction of the 24-hour real-time news channels such as CNN and Al Jazeera has also made it difficult to determine the boundaries of what is and what is not journalism (McNair, 2005:41; Celdran, 2002:17). These channels emphasise “investment in technology rather than analysis”, the aim being to outdo their competitors in breaking news live to audiences and in audience ratings (Walker, Wicks & Pyle cited in Claassen, 1997:11). Whereas before, journalism was perceived as reporting “*that which has happened*”, it is now reporting “*that which is happening*” (McNair, 2005:39). These 24-hour news channels are no longer a medium of record, but a flow medium, which is constantly updated and never “definitive” (McNair, 2005:39).

The breaking news “craze” and the speed with which this news is disseminated to audiences have, however, resulted in unedited and unsubstantiated information being fed to audiences (Schickel cited in Claassen, 1997:11). The result is that reporters and anchors of these 24-hour channels seem to know little more than the audiences about what is really happening or what is meant (Katz cited in Claassen, 1997:11). To express his displeasure with these channels, Schickel had these harsh words to say about the Los Angeles television’s handling of the riots connected with the Rodney King incident:

Los Angeles television just kept pouring raw footage from remote units onto the screen. It was roughly the equivalent of dumping raw sewage into Santa Monica Bay. In effect, intelligent life-forms – those organisms struggling to make sense of tragic chaos – found the oxygen supply to their brains cut off. Television’s mindless, endless (generally fruitless) search for the dramatic image – particularly on the worst night, Wednesday – created the impression that an entire city was about to fall into anarchy and go up in flames. What was needed instead was geography lessons (sic) showing that rioting was confined to a relatively small portion of a vast metropolis and that violent incidents outside this area were random... (Schickel cited in Claassen, 1997:11-12).

One can thus conclude that the 24-hour news channels appear to be violating the very core of journalism, which is the sifting and editing of information in order to put events, ideas, information and controversies into context (Rudin & Ibbotson, 2002:5). Schickel (cited in Claassen, 1997:12) affirms this point when he argues that “the basic function of journalism is selection. It is through that skill that a medium earns civic responsibility and achieves public trust”. Journalism’s role as watchdog, a view which gained currency in the 19th century (Bracci, 2003:120), is only possible if the public is given credible and valid information to help it make informed socio-political decisions. It is thus difficult to see how the kind of “half baked” information described by Schickel can fulfil this objective. The result of this way of doing journalism is a “misinformed, undernourished, ill-informed” public which cannot fully exercise its democratic rights (Kalb cited in Claassen, 1997:12).

Although the above discussion focused on a 1990s news event, one can apply the same argument to the 24/7 treatment of news in a digital age. According to Lewis and Cushion (2009:312), the breaking news “craze” has “created an assembly line of breaking news production that has little to do with being informative or communicating news well”. They further argue that there is very little thought and discernment in the processing of information. Thus, the breaking news items, in their view, are “less well-informed” than the traditional news items (2009:304).

2.2.3 Definition of the concept “journalism”

In view of the discussion above, the concept “journalism” in this study is defined as the gathering, writing and dissemination of current or “fresh” information. It also refers to the careful selection and evaluation of information so that citizens are given quality information that is based on fact and not on personal opinion or ideology. Gatekeeping and agenda-setting processes are also fundamental to journalism; without them there would be no journalism. New media genres such as infotainment are excluded from this definition because, as argued earlier, the information that is disseminated through them is not the kind that would encourage citizens to take an interest in issues of governance in their countries.

Next, the concept “journalist” is reviewed and defined.

2.2.4 Who is a journalist?

The ability to select quality information which would enable the public to make informed socio-political decisions is all the more imperative in the 21st century where the journalism

landscape has become complicated because of an information overload (Berger, 2009:33; McNair, 2005:26; Meyer, 2002:1). The abundance of information calls for a journalist who is:

A filter, as well as a transmitter; an organizer and interpreter as well as one who gathers and delivers facts. In addition to knowing how to get it into print, online or on the air, he or she must know how to get it into the receiver's head. In short, a journalist has to be a database manager, a data processor, and a data analyst (Meyer, 2002:1).

Canadian media and communication scholars Skinner, Gasher and Compton (2001:349) also state that:

Journalists do not simply “find” meaning in raw data – “the facts”, interviews, etc – they use to write stories. Rather they create meaning out of or from this information [...] from choosing to cover one event over another, to the choice of language used in a story, to where the story is finally placed in the newspaper or programme line-up, news production is a complex process of selection through which journalists produce meaning.

The ability to do all this, according to Meyer (2002:1), requires “special training” or what Josephi (2009:47) describes as a “defined educational pathway”. Such training would not only enable journalists to grapple with the “problems of reporting the news in a time of information overload”, but it would also bring professionalism in their work (Josephi, 2009:47; Meyer, 2002:2).

According to Larson and Friedson (cited in Zelizer, 2004:33), professionally trained journalists are able to determine what to do and avoid in any given situation. Their training makes them strive for “objectivity”, “neutrality”, “balance”, and “fairness”, values which many journalism scholars argue are the core of the profession (Jones & Pitcher, 2010:109; Knight, 2010:47; Moyo, 2010:71-72; Tumber & Prentoulis, 2005:63). Despite the fact that journalism's ability to be neutral and objective has been challenged by some scholars (Chomsky & Herman cited in Knight, 2010:47), Knight describes these values as “nominally fundamental” to journalism's reputation (2007:47). Meyer (2002:3) adds that one virtue of journalistic neutrality / objectivity is that “it provides a kind of discipline” for those given the responsibility to gather, write and disseminate the news.

Professional journalists according to Parisi (1992:8), have the ability to:

- (a) define an issue as newsworthy and [determine] certain questions as relevant;
- (b) admit, mute or reject information, sources, and perspectives;
- (c) decide the level and extent of detail and “color” with which to render a person, community, region or issue.

That way they can “navigat[e] the authoritarian/libertarian continuum, in order to balance their viewpoints in terms of the needs of the specific nation states” (Jones & Pitcher, 2010:99). They have a responsibility to ensure that the nations they serve are given quality information which they can use to exercise their democratic rights. Berger (2009:33) concurs when he argues that only professional journalists have the ability to provide the kind of information that would promote democratic practices in a country. Jones and Pitcher (2010:99) also add that only professionally trained journalists have the ability to “balance freedom of expression with the social responsibilities of the state”.

2.2.5 New developments

New media technologies such as satellite, cable, digitisation, the Internet, CCTV and the cellular phone have ushered in new ways of doing journalism (Sissons, 2006:15-16, 117; Shaver, 2005:12; Burns, 2002:5; McNair, 2005:27; Jenkins, 2001:93). This has problematised longstanding notions of who a journalist is (Reese & Dai, 2009:222). What was once the exclusive domain of the professional journalist has now been “invaded” by amateurs (Allan, 2009:18) whose only claim to journalism is that they have access to technologies which enable them to do “journalistic work” (Berger, 2009:33). This has turned the traditional news model on its head (Bentley, Hamman, Littau, Meyer, Watson & Welsh, 2005:3). According to McNair (2005:27), new media technologies “have transformed the processes of news production and distribution in ways which challenge the journalist’s traditional relationship to his or her material and his or her cultural role”.

Knight (2008:118) argues, for example, that the Internet and the cellular phone have turned almost everyone with access to these technologies into a “journalist”. This is because through Internet-based applications such as blogs and social media networks such as Twitter, Facebook and MySpace, citizens now “play an active role in the process of collecting, reporting, analyzing and disseminating news and information” (Bowman & Willis cited in Knight, 2010:33). When Oh Yeon-Ho, a young Korean journalist, launched *OhMyNews*, an

Internet-based publication in 2000, he remarked that “every citizen is a journalist” (cited in Bentley *et al.*, 2005:3). Citizen journalism’s mandate is that “[e]very submission is newsworthy. Every opinion is valid. Every reader could potentially be a writer” (Bentley *et al.*, 2005:9).

This, however, assumes that access to technology is the only thing required for one to become a journalist. Berger (2009:33) rejects this perception when he argues that just because some people have access to these technologies which enable them to “commit” journalism it does not make them journalists. As discussed above, professional journalists produce their stories under prescribed professional conditions so as to ensure that citizens get quality information which would enable them to exercise their democratic rights. Citizen journalists, however, are not constrained by these boundaries, and because of that, the information they publish is overtly ideological and is not subjected to the journalistic principles of fairness, balance, neutrality and objectivity (Jones & Pitcher, 2010:109; Knight, 2010:47). The traditional distinction between fact and opinion is blurred in the information produced by citizen journalists (Sterling, 2009:298), who are driven purely by a desire to share information without necessarily following prescribed rules or putting a price to their activities (Moyo, 2010:57).

Merrill (2006b:164) also expresses his low opinion of the information published by citizen journalists when he argues that:

Many users of the internet are anonymous personal communicators without gatekeepers to provide some kind of credibility to their outpourings. Others are part of a new generation of bloggers who promote opinion over factual reports [...]. Their unedited utterances and biased communication will sap the credibility from the old media, presenting them as stodgy, overly careful, even cowardly journalistic dinosaurs. The new media will further debase journalism and will, if not curbed in some way, completely obliterate it.

His argument resonates with that of Berger (2009:33) who has concluded that the information produced by citizens is “journalism with a small j”. The danger with information which is explicitly ideological and characterised by personal opinion is that if the public is given unedited and biased information, it will make uninformed decisions. This has serious implications for the functioning of a democratic state, where citizens are expected to actively

participate in national discourses. According to Berger (2009:33), only professional journalists have the ability to provide the kind of high quality information needed to ensure the development of a healthy democracy.

2.2.6 Definition of the concept “journalist”

It follows, therefore, that for the purposes of this study, the term “journalist” refers to women and men who are educated and trained to gather, select, write, edit and disseminate information. This will be the working definition of the concept for the purposes of this study. As seen in the above discussion, professional journalists, unlike citizen journalists, produce their stories under prescribed professional conditions of objectivity, neutrality, balance and fairness. This ensures that citizens get quality information which would enable them to exercise their democratic rights. Citizen journalists are excluded in this definition because the information they disseminate to the people is basically unedited information which is most likely the personal opinion of the producer. As discussed above, the information produced and disseminated by citizen journalists is not appropriate in a democracy where the public is expected to make informed socio-political decisions. Besides, in the context of South Africa where access to new media technologies is confined to a tiny fraction of the population, it would not be fitting in this study to embrace information disseminated by citizens in the definition of journalism.

In the next section, the concept “transformation” is reviewed and defined.

2.3 Transformation

2.3.1 Introduction

In order to define the term “transformation” for purposes of this study, the definition of transformation will be preceded by a discussion aimed at highlighting the different perspectives of what constitutes transformation in the South African context.

For close to 350 years, South Africa suffered under the twin “evils” of colonialism and apartheid (see Meskell & Weiss, 2006: 88-89, 91). The latter, through its “harsh draconian, apartheid policies and legislation” left behind a fragmented and divided society characterised by gross inequalities in all spheres of society, as well as a society with no sense of nationhood (Muthayan, 2006:11, 12). According to Steenveld (2004:94), apartheid South Africa’s philosophical foundation was racialism, a philosophy which, according to Hall (cited in Steenveld, 2004:98), did not only draw “distinctions between people because of the colour of their skins, but it [also] infer[red] from the morphology of ‘skin hair and bone’ moral,

intellectual and cultural qualities”. Apartheid left behind the legacies of racism, sexism and repressive labour laws, which in turn led to “poverty and degradation, a racially distorted economic system and income distribution, segregation and unequal access to all services and facilities” (Muthayan, 2006:13).

The first democratic elections in 1994 set the stage for the “new” government to redress these legacies, in order to transform the South African society. The main objective of this social reengineering process was to come up with a non-racial and non-sexist state, in order to achieve greater social justice and equity in the “new” South Africa (Steenveld, 2004:101). The word “transformation”, thus, became a “buzzword”, which punctuated every change discourse in South Africa and “underpinned attempts to change institutions and their structures, systems and processes in post-apartheid South Africa” (Chand & Misra, 1999:1). According to Esterhuysen (2003:1), the concept “transformation” inspired policy-makers, strategic thinkers, project planners and many others, who embarked on various functions and activities.

However, even though the word “transformation” has become a “glib” and much talked about term in South Africa (Motala cited in Muthayan, 2006:13), the concept means different things to different people. There is thus a need to explore the different shades of meaning carried by this word.

2.3.2 What is transformation?

According to Motala (cited in Muthayan, 2006:13), the word “transformation” has been used to refer to any kind of change. Motala adds that the idea of transformation has been used as a “descriptor that is attachable to almost any phenomenon associated with social change”.¹⁵ Steenveld (2004:102) concurs when she argues that there is a common understanding that “transformation” is another word for “change”. Porteus (2006:171) takes the argument a step further when she identifies two kinds of change processes, namely change processes which seem to avoid the “heart of the matter” and processes whereby “an individual, organisation or society becomes something that is truly new”. Esterhuysen (2003:2) describes these two distinct types of change, respectively, as “the first order change” and “the second order change”.

¹⁵ Terms such as “transition”, “equity”, “inequality”, “human rights”, “progress”, “democratisation” and “redress” have been used synonymously with the term transformation (Motala cited in Muthayan, 2006:13). It is, however, not within the scope of this study to explore this argument.

The main objective of the “first order change” is to change behaviour within the system without affecting “the basic structure, culture and defining values of the system” (Esterhuysen, 2003:2). The change process takes place within the system itself and could be said to be conforming to the system. Bates (cited in Esterhuysen, 2003:2) refers to these changes as “strategies of order and continuity” and those who pursue the strategy as “culture conservationists” because their objective is to preserve and protect the prevailing system. Anderson and Anderson (1998:un) describe this change process as developmental because its aim is to improve what the organisation is currently doing rather than creating something new. These developments would include improving existing skills, processes, methods, performance standards or conditions (Anderson & Anderson, 1998:un). Martel (cited in Esterhuysen, 2003:2) concurs when he says that this change occurs at operational levels of institutions, the aim being to prevent stagnation and to enhance efficiency in the organisation. All this is achieved without changing the basic structure, culture and defining values of the system (Esterhuysen, 2003:2).

At societal level, this kind of change can be described as social reproduction of “patterns of the past” (Porteus, 2006:173). In the South African context, for example, social reproduction would be seen if the post-apartheid government reproduces colonial and apartheid cultures and its weaknesses. The major drawback of social reproduction is that it does not equip the nation to confront “the patterns of the past and create new patterns of being” (Porteus, 2006:173). As Porteus argues, it does not go to the “heart of the matter” (2006:171). Thus, she contends that any state emerging from a history of repression, such as South Africa did in 1994, should guard against merely reproducing the social order. Instead, it should “develop a populace [which] is conscious of confronting notions from the past” (Porteus, 2006:174).

The “second order change”, otherwise known as “structural change” (Martel cited in Esterhuysen, 2003:2) is, however, more radical in nature. Bates (cited in Esterhuysen, 2003:2) refers to it as “form or frame breaking” because it aims to revolutionise the organisation’s basic structure, culture and defining values. Hooks (2003:81) uses the word “revolution” to describe this kind of change. He argues, for example, that a revolution is needed to confront historically embedded racism and patriarchy in post-apartheid South Africa. While one can argue that the word “revolution” is problematic because it carries within it a sense of aggression in the nature in which the change is achieved, its basic meaning intended by Hooks is that it means a “complete change in ways of thinking, methods of working ...”

(Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2003:1647). This change “consciously seeks to introduce a new structure, new values, new core values and a new direction (Esterhuyse, 2003:2). Thus Bates describes it as a strategy “for change and discontinuity”.

This is the kind of change that Teer-Tomaselli (2004:15) had in mind when she defined transformation as the “change in ethos and structure within an organization, its values, ways of doing business, issues of governance and the priorities it sets in terms of delivering on content and accessibility”. The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2003:2063) also subscribes to this kind of change when it states that to transform is “to completely change the appearance, form or character of something or someone especially in a way that improves it”.

Fundamental changes to social institutions, however, are not possible in the absence of the transformation of the individual, which Muthayan (2006:12) describes as one of the two realms of transformation, the other being the transformation of the state, structure, institutions and organisations. Esterhuyse (2003:3) also agrees that a mindset change is critical if radical changes are to take place in any society. This argument resonates with Freire’s (1970:32) words when he argues that:

Man’s ontological vocation is to be a Subject who acts upon and transforms his world, and in so doing moves toward ever new possibilities of fuller and richer life, individually and collectively.

This clearly affirms that the individual is an agent for social change and that the individual’s transformation is an integral part of institutional and structural change in any society (Muthayan, 2006:12).

The definition of the term “transformation” would be grossly inadequate if the process is not situated within the grand narratives of globalisation. Globalisation, according to Dennis (2006:228), is a reality in the 21st century which cannot be wished away. Walters (cited in Muthayan, 2006:14) describes the dominant type of globalisation¹⁶ as a competitive trend whose internal logic is the accumulation of capital, shaped by the corporate interests of

¹⁶ Walters (cited in Muthayan, 2006:14) also identifies a less dominant kind of globalisation, namely “co-operative globalization”, which he says has a bottom-up approach and whose main motivation is human development.

transnational corporations and rich countries. Because of its neo-liberal policies, this competitive type of globalisation has exacerbated the gap between the rich and poor countries (Merrill, 2006a:229; Stromquist & Monkman, 2000:12). This has in turn resulted in the marginalisation of the world's poor and vulnerable people (Wasserman, 2007:12).

Nation-states, such as South Africa, which are trying to put in place policies to enable them to bring equality and social justice to their societies, find themselves having to walk a thin line between the redistributive role they have to play and the pressing need to grow their economies in order to play this role. The latter demands that they adopt the neo-liberal economic policies of supranational organisations such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) (Muthayan, 2006:14), which have been implicated in the destruction of local economies (Merrill, 2006a:229) and subsequently the continued impoverishment of the very people that the state seeks to uplift.

The post-1994 government in South Africa, for example, has had to straddle two disparate national policies, which served as the cornerstone of transformation, namely the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) which sought to pursue a socialist agenda, and Growth, Employment and Redistribution Strategy (GEAR) whose mandate was neo-liberal in nature (Muthayan, 2006:14). This tension in the transformation process in South Africa was inevitable given the fact that the post-apartheid government needed to redress the legacies of the past, but at the same time grow its economy so as to acquire the means to do the former.

The existence of these two oppositional but very essential policies warring in one "bosom", however, requires a careful navigation of the transformation process in South Africa to ensure that both global and national goals are accommodated. Some scholars (Louw, 2008:un; Mbeki, 2006:un; Muthayan, 2006:15), however, are of the view that neo-liberal growth imperatives have overwhelmed the government's desire to bring equity and social justice to the South African society. For example, Louw (2008:un) and Mbeki (2006:un) argue that South Africa's transformation is elitist in nature because the ruling class, together with the economic oligarchy, have defined "what is desirable transformation [...] and what is not desirable transformation" (Mbeki, 2006:un). In their view, very little has been done to address the state of poverty and marginalisation of the black majority which was a legacy of colonialism and apartheid. This argument is supported by Wasserman (2007:1) who also points out that thirteen years after democratisation in 1994, South Africa is still a highly

unequal society which is still ravaged by poverty and unemployment. It is, therefore, critical that the South African government seeks mechanisms to balance these two antagonistic processes to ensure that its goal to transform the South African society is realised.

2.3.3 Transformation in South Africa

In this section different perspectives of what constitutes transformation in specific social institutions which are central to this study, namely, education in general and JE&T in particular, as well as the media, are discussed. Like all social institutions in pre-1994 South Africa, these institutions were used by the apartheid regime to prop up its repressive machinery (Esakov, 2009:71-72; Muthayan, 2006:15). The first to be discussed is transformation in education, which will be done alongside transformation in JE&T. This will be followed by a discussion of transformation in the media.

2.3.3.1 Transformation in education

In 1994 the “new” ANC government inherited a higher education system profoundly shaped by apartheid planning and which, like any other social institution in the country, was organised along racial lines (Badat, 2007:16). The apartheid regime created an educational system which would serve its own needs and the result was a “grossly inequitable, ethnicised and racialised system of education” (Muthayan, 2006:15). According to Muthayan, under apartheid, for example, the majority of the black population both in and out of employment received inadequate or no schooling at all. He also notes that 50% of all African children repeated their first year of school (the then Sub A, now grade 1). The Education White Paper 3 pointed out that in the post-1994 era, the low participation of African students in higher education, put at 12% compared to slightly under 70% for white students, was attributed to this skewed apartheid education system (Department of Education, 1997:3). The Education White Paper 3 further identified as legacies of apartheid the inequitable distribution of access for staff and students along lines of race, class and geography, as well as the failure of the composition of staff in higher education to reflect the demographic realities in the “new” South Africa (Department of Education, 1997:8, 34).

For the “new” democratic government, whose main agenda was to bring equity and redress the injustices of the past, as well as to create a “sense of common citizenship” amongst its fragmented people (Department of Education, 1997:8), this skewed and grossly inequitable higher education system was untenable. There was, therefore, an urgent need for all educational institutions in the country to rid themselves of racism so that they could serve the new dispensation (Lewins, 2010:128; Nzimande, 2009:2). The post-apartheid government

recognised that “universities can, and do, play a significant role in redress and social transformation” (Esakov, 2009:72) and that education is an indispensable asset in any government’s attempt to attain the ideals of peace, freedom and social justice (Delors, 1996:12).

To ensure that universities played their critical transformative role, the South African government put in place enabling legislation and policies to drive the process. These included the Higher Education Act 101 of 1997, the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 and the Education White Paper 3 of 1997. These instruments put emphasis on equal access, representivity and the elimination of unfair discrimination based on race/ethnicity, gender and disability. The result was an increase in the demographic composition of black academic and non-academic staff to reflect the black majority in South Africa, as well as an increase in the number of women of all racial groups, especially black women, entering universities (Nzimande, 2009:3).

Important as these changes were in the transformation of the education sector, they were not fundamental enough to seriously address the entrenched values and culture of apartheid (Department of Education, 2008:53; Nzimande, 2009:3). The Soudien Report,¹⁷ for example, revealed that, despite the fact that many institutions of higher learning had put in place “lofty visions” and policies to address the imbalances created by apartheid, there was a serious “disjuncture between institutional policy and actual practice” (Lewins, 2010:129). This was evident in the fact that higher education institutions had employment equity policies and plans, yet they had generally made very little and slow progress towards staff equity (Department of Education, 2008:53). The Report argues that, on aggregate, both black and female staff numbered below 40% (Department of Education, 2008:53), implying that the demographics are still skewed in favour of white male academics.

It became apparent from the Soudien Report that fourteen years after the first elections which ushered in a new era of democratisation in South Africa, many universities in the country were still characterised by inhospitable institutional cultures which promoted racial discrimination and harassment, a pervading sense of whiteness, colour-blindness and an aspiration to Western ideals; sexism, sexual harassment and an inherently family-unfriendly environment; and institutions that rested on their laurels in terms of historical reputation

¹⁷ The Report on the Ministerial Committee on Transformation and Social Cohesion and the Elimination of Discrimination in Public Higher Education Institutions is more commonly referred to as the Soudien Report.

(Department of Education, 2008: 57-60). The findings of the report, thus, underscored the fact that effective transformation in institutions of higher learning should transcend the demographics and begin to address the cultures and core values of these institutions. According to Nzimande (2009:3):

Any university transformation process must go beyond demographics and discrimination and begin to change every aspect of university life as well as contribute meaningfully to the transformation of society as a whole.

The critical question to ask is how this can be done. The Soudien Report (Department of Education 2008:102) proposes that universities should overhaul the epistemological foundations on which their institutions are founded. The Report argues that:

The success of the transformation agenda in higher education, will in the end, stand or fall on the altar of epistemological transformation, as this speaks to the core function of higher education in relation to teaching and research.

This argument recognises the fact that the “philosophy of racialism” (Hall cited in Steenveld, 2004:98) had a profound effect on the epistemological foundations of universities in apartheid South Africa (Esakov, 2009:71). The apartheid state controlled knowledge production and reproduction in institutions of higher learning, thus making universities a terrain on which racial identities, as defined by the apartheid state, were nurtured and normalised (Esakov, 2009:71). In Esakov’s words:

Universities were posited by the apartheid state as integral structural agents in the organisation and justification of apartheid’s logic and they served as key locales where racial and cultural differences could be academically validated (Esakov, 2009:71).

For example, JE&T curricula in Afrikaans-language universities were designed to produce graduates who would promote Afrikaner nationalism and foster the Afrikaans language and culture (Prinsloo, 2010:189). English-language universities sought to produce “potentially thinking South Africans who could play [a] role in fighting government in an oppressive state” (Steenveld, 2006:259). Black colleges, according to Prinsloo (2010:190) were “paternalistically informed by Afrikaans-language curricula” while technical institutions with their emphasis on vocational skills were answerable to a centralised body in Pretoria which

ensured that apartheid ideologies of “separate and, contrary to their stated position, unequal education” were fostered.

The effect of all this is that apartheid education deliberately excluded the cultures and languages of the majority of South Africans from the curriculum, in order to keep them in a state of alienation (Nekhwevha, 1999:492).¹⁸ There was, therefore, an urgent need after 1994 to dismantle the epistemologies of apartheid and introduce new ones which would nurture the ethos of a democratic state seeking to bring equity to its citizens.

This has been taken by some scholars to mean introducing epistemologies informed by the notions of an African essence, culture and identity, as well as African knowledge systems (Makgoba & Seepe, 2004:13, 14; Masehela, 2004:11; Nekhwevha, 1999:492; Ekong & Cloete, 1997:11). According to Masehela (2004:11), Africans:

[h]ave to construct [their] own epistemological framework from which [they] can explore ideas and build [their] own knowledge. [...] Africans must create [their] own paradigm from which [they] can also dialogue meaningfully with Europeans.

Participants at the 2005 University of the Witwatersrand Forum Discussion also declared that “transformation [...] must be implicit in what we teach, the kinds of knowledge we produce” and also that “Informed by the global context, we intend to be distinctly African in our purpose, commitment, curriculum, research and in how we engage with all sectors of society” (Horsthemke, 2009:3-4).

Similar calls to (South) “Africanise” journalism curricula have been made by South African JE&T scholars (Sesanti, 2009:126; Botha & De Beer, 2007:201; Rabe, 2005:3). These scholars argue that JE&T in South Africa, as elsewhere in Africa, is highly dependent on Western philosophies and paradigms, which, according to Sesanti (2009:126), have “contributed to journalists’ insensitivity when dealing with African cultures”. Besides, as has already been discussed elsewhere in this chapter (see chapter 2 [2.3.2]), Western philosophies on which neo-liberal ideals are founded, undermine the dignity of millions of the vulnerable people in the world (Wasserman, 2007:5). Thus, continuing to frame South African journalism curricula on neo-liberal ideals and producing journalists who are pushing the neo-liberal agenda will result in the formerly marginalised remaining outside the ambit of the

¹⁸ See also Banteyerga (1994:1-2) who argues that existing education in Africa is a legacy of colonialism and was meant to maintain colonial interests.

discourses aimed at democratising the country. This would effectively render the democratic process stillborn.

However, whilst it goes without saying that epistemologies in institutions of higher learning in South Africa need to be freed from the influence of both apartheid and Western philosophies, it is equally important to guard against simplistic and essentialist interpretations of African culture. Culture is not a static entity, but it is always evolving and “ingesting foreign elements” and “naturalizing” them (Morley, 1994:151). The reality is that no culture in this world, South Africa included, is “pristine”; they have all been hybridised (Strelitz, 2004:626; Martin, 1999:66; Morley, 1994:151).

Thus, given that there is no culture which has not been “hybridised”, it is critical that an interpretation of culture should be as it is lived in the here and now, not as it was lived then. A useful epistemological framework for South Africa is one which will take into consideration the hybrid culture(s) as well as the diversity of the South African people. This is vital as the life lived by these people and the meanings they have embraced in their lives are a result of these hybrid cultures, not some imagined pristine pre-colonial culture. It is, therefore, advisable not to regress into nativism in the process of coming up with appropriate epistemologies for the South African context.

It has to be noted that the call to overhaul journalism curricula in institutions of higher learning in South Africa is taking place against the backdrop of challenges posed by globalisation, media convergence, the growing prominence of multimedia, and the changing profiles of media workers and audiences (Steyn & De Beer, 2004:387, 388). These challenges have transformed the journalistic landscape, resulting in the knowledge and skills that journalists require to do their work, changing (Steyn & De Beer, 2004:387). South Africa, being a member of the global community, cannot insulate itself against these new developments. The global market-oriented media landscape has, for example, resulted in the entry of the tabloid newspaper into the South African media landscape (Wigston, 2007:52). There is, therefore, an urgent need for journalism schools to adjust their programmes so as to respond to these new needs (Steyn & De Beer, 2004:387; Dennis, 2003:311; Livingstone, 2003:355).

Transforming JE&T curricula would, however, be pointless if serious attention is not paid to the transformation of the media industry for which JE&T schools produce graduates.

Wasserman (2005:164) argues that “it does not help to educate aspiring journalists to do things differently when the industry remains uncritical of its own practices”. In his view, it is not possible to separate transformation of JE&T from transformation in the media, as the two have a symbiotic relationship. In the next section, therefore, transformation in the media industry will be discussed.

2.3.3.2 Transformation in the media

In 1994, South Africa’s journalism emerged from an era where journalists were expected to play distinct ideological roles of either supporting or opposing apartheid (Tomaselli & Caldwell, 2002:22). The Afrikaans press, for example, “operated to defensively foster the Afrikaans language and culture” while the English press had an oppositional stance to the apartheid regime (Prinsloo, 2010:189, 191). With the advent of democratisation in 1994, it logically followed that this polarisation in the media could not be sustained as apartheid which defined the operations of both the Afrikaans and English press was legally dismantled. This meant that these institutions had to reconfigure the role of journalism in a “new” South Africa, as well as adapt to a new world which demanded “different things of them” (Harber, 2004:79).

Like all other social institutions in apartheid South Africa, the media were organised along racial lines. Berger (cited in Von Bormann, 2004:31), argues that in 1993, only two or three newspaper editors were black; the vast majority were white. Von Bormann (2004:29) concurs with this argument when she says that prior to 1994 the media was “white-owned, staffed by whites, and the content and advertising [...] intended for the affluent white audiences”. This set-up was unsustainable in the face of the new democratic dispensation, and therefore called for the deracialisation of the media industry in the country (Berger, 2000a:1).

The ANC government introduced a democratic constitution and also scrapped many of the restrictive apartheid laws, resulting in the creation of a “transparent and media-friendly” legal environment (Berger, 2004:36; Berger, 1999:113). Added to these statutory changes, was the transformation in the racial character of ownership of several media in the country (Berger 2004:36; Berger cited in Steenveld, 2004:102; Von Bormann, 2004:31; Berger, 2000a:4).

However, whilst it cannot be disputed that “the face of ownership of South Africa’s media has been permanently and robustly altered” since 1994 (Von Bormann, 2004:31), these changes are not fundamental enough as seen from the fact that the inequalities produced by capitalist apartheid still linger on in post-apartheid South Africa (Jacobs, 2004:348; Von

Bormann, 2004:32; Tomaselli cited in Steenveld, 2004:102). For example, whilst the management of the broadcasting industry has been deracialised to a certain extent, the print media is still largely white-owned (Da Silva, 2012:1). The 2011 recent acquisition of *The Witness* in KwaZulu-Natal by Media24 further enhances the ownership of print media by white capital in South Africa (*Mail & Guardian*, 2012:un).

Besides, just like apartheid media, post-1994 media are capitalist ventures whose main interest is to make a profit (Berger cited in Von Bormann, 2004:32). According to Jacobs (cited in Wasserman & De Beer, 2004:3), “the mainstream print media still operates according to the same functionalist structural logic of circulation, distribution networks, price structure and advertising that has as its aim the lucrative [...] market.” This mandate inevitably tilts the media towards serving the elite (McQueen cited in Steenveld 2004:104). The main reason for targeting the elites is to ensure that the media organisations realise the profits they want (Berger cited in Von Bormann, 2004:32). This, therefore, means that the changes in ownership have not translated into content which is relevant to the black majority in the country (Berger, 2000a:13). As Berger notes, “the poor, rural people and minority language speakers still remain underserved by media” (cited in Von Bormann, 2004:4).

Boloka and Krabill (2000:76) also argue that successful transformation in any institution should take into consideration, not only the race of its workers, but also the socio-economic status of the people involved, gender, religion, sexual-orientation, region and language, among others. They add that “true” transformation is possible only “when access is opened, not [only] to the emerging black elite, but also to grassroots communities of all colours”. Steenveld (2004:104) concurs when she argues that one indicator of a transformed media could be seen when “all members and groups in society [are] able to see themselves, their values and their life-worlds fairly represented in the media”. Transformation, in her view, therefore, is not only about promoting the needs of the elite, but it is also about promoting a “sense of belonging and inclusion in those without spending power” (2004:104). According to Berger (2000a:1), transformation in South Africa should also be about transformation from a non-democratic dispensation to a democratic one; from underdevelopment to development.

Based on the above discussion, one can conclude that South Africa cannot be freed from the legacy of apartheid by merely repealing apartheid’s repressive laws and regulations and replacing them with democratic ones (Esterhuyse, 2003:4). Nor will the change of colour of ownership in the social institutions address the socio-economic inequalities and extreme

poverty that are a legacy of apartheid (Von Bormann, 2004:32; Steenveld, 2004:102). Because apartheid “represented structural racial discrimination” and its character was of a “systemic nature”, Esterhuysen (2003:4) argues that the only way to abolish it is by “transforming (its) basic structure, culture and core values” so as to avoid reproducing “patterns of the past” (Porteus, 2006:173).

One should also not lose sight of the fact that transformation in the South African media landscape is taking place against the backdrop of the rapidly transforming global journalism and media landscape. The journalism and communication landscape has been transformed by the digitalisation of media content and the resultant free flow of information across platforms (Teer-Tomaselli, 2004:9; Jenkins, 2001:93). This has in turn encouraged convergence of different media technologies. Thus, transformation in the South African media does not only mean addressing the legacies of the past, but it also means restructuring and adapting the media to the “globalization, technological advances including digitalization, convergence of both platforms and content [and] extreme financial constraint” (Teer-Tomaselli, 2004:7).

2.3.4 Definition of transformation for purposes of this study

For the purposes of this study, therefore, transformation refers to structural changes, the kind that Esterhuysen (2003:2) refers to as “second order change”. This is the kind of change that transcends issues of race and colour and seeks to revolutionise the culture and values of social institutions in line with both local and global expectations and demands. It also refers to the kind of change that takes cognisance of the material conditions of the formerly marginalised and disadvantaged, and seeks to uphold their dignity.

The concept “democracy” is reviewed and defined next.

2.4 Democracy

2.4.1 Introduction

In 1994 South Africa emerged from almost 350 years of colonialism and apartheid, which had stripped the majority of its people of their dignity and pushed them to the margins of society (Wasserman, 2007:1). Watershed elections were held and these ushered in a democratic dispensation, resulting in a structural shift from the paternalistic and autocratic ideology of the apartheid regime to a democratic dispensation whose main agenda was/is to uphold the rights of all the peoples of South Africa regardless of race or class. Under the new dispensation, all of South Africa’s socio-political institutions were expected to adopt democratic norms and values in line with the new democratic constitution which “lay the

foundations for a democratic and open society” so as to “build a united and democratic South Africa” (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996:3). Thus, the concept “democracy” like “transformation”, became a central principle in South Africa’s change agenda. In the next section, attempts to define the concept “democracy” are made.

2.4.2 What is democracy?

Since the term “democracy” was first used in the Greek city-states in the 5th century BCE, the concept has evolved into a deeply diverse notion which “encapsulates many different processes” (Hadland, 2007:20). According to Ober (2008:3), democracy has come to mean very different things to different people. Arblaster (1987:1) concurs when he says that democracy is a term that does not have a single and precise meaning. It is a concept which is understood differently in the context of different social and economic systems (Arblaster, 1987:1). Madebo (2008:un), for example, points out that even in Europe where democracy is the norm, no two democracies are identical. Hadland (2007:209) concurs when he argues that “democracy is practiced very differently in the United States compared to Great Britain, or Germany, or Portugal”.

The term “democracy” is derived from the Greek word “*demokratia*”, which is made up of two words, *demos* (people) and *kratos* (power) and which have been translated to mean “rule of the people” (Ober, 2008:3; Bratton & Van de Walle, 1997:10). In Greek democracy, the people were expected to collectively govern themselves and to actively participate in large public assemblies where they would debate and personally vote on issues of state (Robinson, 2004:un). This kind of democracy, where citizens were expected to gather and make decisions, is known as direct democracy (Bratton & Van de Walle, 1997:11).

In these assemblies, not only were the people expected to deliberate on issues and take decisions, but they were also expected to choose their leaders, judge their credentials, make decisions about foreign policy and war, and issue decrees (Gordon, 2008:un). Of interest to note, however, is that only male citizens had the right to speak at assemblies; women and slaves were not embraced in this “democratic” practice (Blackwell, 2003:un). It is thus quite ironic that the origins of democracy were not as democratic as would have been expected.

However, the advent of the enlarged size of the modern political community, made direct democracy impossible to implement (Gitonga, 1987:12) and necessitated a new kind of

democracy, known as representative democracy (Bratton & Van de Walle, 1997:11). Representative democracy¹⁹ is described next.

2.4.3 Representative democracy

In representative democracy, people elect officials to make political decisions, formulate laws and administer programmes on their behalf (Menocal, 2007:1). The elected officials are expected to work according to rules, procedures and regulations established by the people (Gitonga, 1987:11). This, therefore, means that the people are exercising their power through representatives or agents of their choice. According to Opuamie-Ngoa (2010:132), there are three essential requisites of democracy, namely, a well-informed citizenry, freedom to participation in the decision-making process, and accountability to the citizens by those who exercise power on their behalf. He describes a “governing and governed environment” which meets these prerequisites as a “functional democracy”.

Representative democracy, however, has its drawbacks. Whilst the electoral process is critical to democratic processes in a state (Malan, 2009:1), it is equally important to note that elections alone cannot ensure that democracy is upheld in a country (Menocal, 2007:2). Very often, dictators and single-party regimes have sought popular support by using elections to “claim the mantle of democracy” (Bureau of International Information Programs, ud:1).

Again, because all democracies are systems which make political decisions by majority rule, the rights of minorities are very often trampled upon (Bureau of International Information Programs, ud:7). This is because, despite the fact that over centuries, the concept “demos” has been expanded to include “women, slaves, races other than white, the indigenous, immigrants, descendants of colonialists in other countries and descendants of indentured labourers from the mother country” (Garman, 2010:2), democracy still excludes certain groups in society, especially the poor and vulnerable. This has led Chipkin (2008:7) to argue that “Democracy’s people is not a given. It does not simply refer to that body of actually existing persons in any country. Only some amongst them are agents of the egalitarian project.”

The consequence of all this is that the rights of the elite are upheld at the expense of those of the poor and the marginalised (Garman, 2010:3; Bratton & Van de Walle, 1997:11). This has

¹⁹ Nearly all democracies are of the representative kind (Nissani, 1998:un). However, it is outside the scope of this study to delve further into the different types of representative democracies, besides the next discussion relevant to this study.

prompted Parry and Moran (1994:5) to describe representative democracy as the rule of the politician/elite rather than of the people. To ensure that elected representatives properly serve the people who elected them, there is need to put into place institutions that would ensure that they are held accountable. One such institution is the media, which Masango (2007:119) describes as a major player in political communication. Thus, the role of the media in a democracy is described next.

2.4.4 The role of the media in a democracy

According to Rønning (2002:113), the role of the media in a democracy is to inform citizens on matters of public policy by presenting and debating alternatives. He further argues that the information which citizens get from the media empowers them by making them aware of their civil and political rights and why and how these rights should be exercised. Fagence (1977:156) adds that the media plays the important role of disseminating information upon which citizens can form their opinions and attitudes. Public opinion, according to Masango (2007:109), is crucial in a democracy. He argues that public opinion plays a crucial role in the reinforcement and revival of democracy.

Thus the media occupies the public sphere, which Curran (1991b:29) describes as “... the space between government and society in which private individuals exercise formal and informal control over the state”. In this space, the mass media does not only serve “as a conduit for the diffusion of information and views but also as a free market place/battleground for contending ideological forces” (Opuamie-Ngoa, 2010:133).

Besides its role of informing the citizens, the media in a democracy is expected to act as an “independent watchdog [...] charged with making certain that all other institutions – the three branches of government, business, religion, education and family – serve the public” (Baran & Davis, 2006:109. Opuamie-Ngoa (2010:134) adds that the media is the principal institution of the public forum tasked with “constant vigilance and monitoring of the societal war between the “haves” and the “have-nots”, the politically and socio-economically influential and those at the margins of society”. A similar argument is given by Curran (1991b:29) who argues that the media “... are on permanent guard duty patrolling against the abuse of executive power and safeguarding individual liberty”.

The Bureau of International Information Programs (ud:44) also argues that media in a democracy has the important role of “setting the agenda”. This means that the media decides what is news and what is not. By selecting certain stories and rejecting others, the media set

the agenda and “bestow prestige and enhance the authority of individuals and groups by legitimizing their status” (Lazarsfeld & Merton, 1971:560). This influences the public’s perceptions of what stories are important and what stories are not.

These normative roles of the media in a democracy have, however, not gone unchallenged by scholars. Habermas’ argument that democracy “gives [...] equal liberties for everybody, democratic participation and government by public opinion” (cited in Fourie (2007a:342) is challenged by post-modern scholars such as Ang and Jacka who argue that there are several “publics” (cited in Fourie (2007a:203). According to the post-modernists, the post-modern public is characterised by “hybridization, fragmentation and the rise of minorities and minority rights” (Fourie, 2007a:203). This implies that society is not coherent nor does it have shared values. The ideal Habermasian public sphere does not exist.

Whilst the news media has traditionally been perceived as the watchdog of democracy, Schultz (1998:12) points out that this argument is flawed because of the concentration of ownership which has limited diversity, as well as commercial interests and political power and the influence of media owners. Thus, he queries how commercially-driven media can fulfil a watchdog role (Schultz, 1998:xi). Entman (1989:3) concurs when he argues that journalists are restricted by the tastes of the audiences and their reliance upon political elites for most information, making it difficult for them to be neutral participants in the free market of ideas. Opuamie-Ngoa (2010:135) also posits that the media are handicapped to satisfy fully their societal expectations due mostly to “economic and socio-political pressures from its power associates as well as other self-imposed boundaries and ‘routines of media practice’”.

The agenda setting role of the media also begs the questions: “Whose agenda is served by reporting this event, and not that one? Whose agenda is served when a journalist treats a particular story from this angle, and not that one?” (Shaw, 2007:61). Shaw argues that the “most frequently quoted in the news are most likely to exert the lion’s share of influence on the agenda of the media” (2007:63). He cites the example of the Liberian elections in which the local media influenced the election outcome by setting the agenda in favour of Ellen Johnson-Sirleaf, the current Liberian president.

Despite the criticisms levelled against the normative roles of the media in a democracy, it remains a principal institution of a functional democracy (Opuamie-Ngoa, 2010:146).

However, the power of the media in influencing democratic change still holds sway despite the criticism of its role in society (Shaw, 2007:78). Both centrally and marginalised groups must be allowed a voice (Rønning, 2002:122), so that they can “make informed decisions which may lead to constructive input in governance” (Masango, 2007:119).

2.4.5 Defining democracy for the purposes of the study

For the purposes of this study, therefore, democracy will be taken to mean a system of government which actively seeks to involve South Africa’s marginalised and disadvantaged people in issues of governance in the country. The notion of the “people” in this study encompasses not only the elite, but the subaltern as well. This researcher argues that democracy for South Africa should allow the subaltern to reclaim their human dignity by giving them an opportunity to participate actively in national and global narratives. Social institutions, such as the media operating in this environment, should not just serve the interests of the elite, but they should also take a keen interest in the material conditions of the marginalised, as well as the forces that have created them and continue to push them to the periphery of society. South African democracy, therefore, should be informed by the country’s history and local conditions. It should not be the same as that of the USA or that of Britain, as South Africa is in “an entirely different continent with completely different histories and political configurations” (Garman, 2010:2).

Next to be reviewed and defined, are the concepts “education” and “training”.

2.5 Education and training

2.5.1 Introduction

In this section, two key concepts, namely, journalism “education” and “training” are both defined and discussed. A look at scholarly debates and articles on journalism studies (or any other discipline for that matter) will show that these two terms are often used interchangeably as if they mean the same thing (Gibbs, Bridgen & Hellenberg, 2004:5). Among journalism scholars also, Deuze (2000:145) observes that nowadays journalism training is referred to as journalism education in “an attempt to professionalise and maintain status within the profession of journalism”.

However, several scholars are of the view that training is not the same as education (Hale, 2006:7; Gibbs *et al.*, 2004:5; Rudin cited in Kamps, 2004:un; Tomaselli & Caldwell, 2002:22; Rabe, 2002:117). It is, therefore, imperative, that when journalism curricula are studied, journalism educators and trainers are clear what kind of knowledge they want to

impart to the students. This section will, therefore, make a distinction between journalism “education” and “training”.

2.5.2 What is education?

The word “education” derives from the root word “educare”, which literally means to lead oneself out or to set oneself free (Hale, 2006:7). According to Hale, education is the means by which human beings gain the ability to challenge the static order. He argues that the need to be free from restraint, to explore and discover is “as much a part of human nature as the need to order the cosmos” (Hale, 2006:5). The implication behind Hale’s statement is that the critical element is innate in human beings; all it needs is to be cultivated and nurtured through an appropriate education.

Hale, however, notes that what is passed on as education nowadays is nothing more than training and indoctrination into a particular order, which the elite use to maintain their power base. He makes a distinction between education and training when he says that education, on one hand, empowers individuals to question the existing order. It involves engaging in creative thought to interrogate all aspects of the established order of things (Hale, 2006:7). Training, on the other hand, according to Hale, is used to indoctrinate the young of any society to accept and maintain the static order. It generates the kind of knowledge that makes individuals conform with the system uncritically. Hale, nevertheless, acknowledges that training is necessary, however, not at the cost of education (Hale, 2006:9).

Other scholars concur with Hale’s argument when they argue that education is the type of learning which transcends the technical elements of learning and develop the individual’s intellect. Gibbs *et al.* (2004:5), for example, argue that education, unlike training, deals with unknown outcomes and circumstances, which require a complex synthesis of knowledge, skills and experience to solve problems. Rabe (2002:117) also makes a distinction between education and training when she equates education to conceptual skills and training to practical skills. Education is, therefore, seen as a type of learning which creates critical thinkers and analysts (Tomaselli & Caldwell, 2002:23). In JE&T, this is the kind of learning which would enable the individual to understand the “processes in which news reports are embedded and to provide the diagnosis, analysis and commentary that constitute the responsibility of journalism” (Tomaselli & Caldwell, 2002:22).

The vitality of intellectual skills is upheld by Fourie (2005:152) who argues that these will enable journalists to have “a critical understanding of the profession and its role in the world

and as a part of humanity”. In the South African context, intellectual skills would enable journalists to critique their role and that of the media in the transformation process.

2.5.3 What is training?

According to Gibbs *et al.* (2004:5), training refers to the teaching of a particular skill or type of behaviour through regular practice and instruction. The authors add that training is discernable when “(a) there is some identifiable performance and/or skill that has to be mastered; and (b) [when] practice is required for the mastery of it [skill]”. The aim of training is to improve one’s performance in executing a particular skill. The training would be deemed a success if the outcomes of the training have been achieved and the individual being trained has mastered the skill.

Similarly, in journalism, training aims to foster the ability to master the technical “know-how” or skill of reporting events (Tomaselli & Caldwell, 2002:22, 23), which Fourie (2005:155) refers to as the “how-to-do-it” skills. These include transferable skills (those skills that can apply in other fields) and vocational skills (professionally specific skills) (De Burgh, 2003:99). According to De Burgh, transferrable skills include research and investigation; information assimilation and assessment; communication skills; precision in identifying the essential from the inessential; the ability to synthesise and systematise information; and the confidence to present it.

Vocational skills, on the other hand, encompass analysis and construction of news stories; professional convention in production; operating skills; production management; interviewing skills; team work; meeting deadlines; using technology; and understanding audience, market and genre (see also Skinner *et al.*, 2001:145). In addition, shorthand, according to Kamps (2004:un), is an essential on the spot-recording skill, which despite the advent of advanced technology in the 21st century, every journalist has to have, in order to deal with those emergencies which come when one does not have the necessary technology readily available for use.

Training brings with it the kind of knowledge that is preferred by some in the media industry, who argue that journalism teachers should produce work-ready journalists who are productive (Duckett, 2004:un; Kamps, 2004:un). The employability of journalism graduates is clearly uppermost in the minds of those who argue in favour of the kind of knowledge acquired through training as being the only one needed to prepare journalists for the world of work.

2.5.4 Defining education and training for purposes of this study

The concepts “education” and “training” call for different types of knowledge, which are both critical in the teaching of journalism students. For purposes of this study, therefore, education, on one hand, refers to the kind of learning which seeks to empower one to question the existing order. It is the kind of approach which focuses on the intellect of the individual and gives her/him the ability to interrogate the world around her/him. In journalism, for example, this means questioning the normative frameworks on which journalism practice and education are rooted. It also means interrogating power relations and how they impact on the work of the journalists, as well as interrogating the perspectives and motives of dominant groups in society. Education, as will be seen in the next section, can be achieved if journalism curricula are rich in theory.

Training in this study, on the other hand, refers to the kind of learning which is practically-oriented. In JE&T, this is the type of approach which requires students to learn the techniques of gathering, writing and reporting stories. As will be shown in the following section, training requires constant practice, in order for the individual to master the skill.

The concepts “theory” and “practice” are reviewed and defined next.

2.6 Theory and Practice

2.6.1 Introduction

In this section, the concepts “theory” and “practice” are defined. The place of both theory and practice in JE&T is heavily contested (Greenberg, 2007:289). Some JE&T scholars insist that journalism students should be taught theory so as to make them think critically and creatively, while others argue that journalism students need a practice-oriented training only (Shaver, 2005:2; Bollinger, 2003:un; Glasser, 2002:2; Walsh *et al.*, 2002:2-3). However, some scholars are of the view that the two complement each other and that JE&T students need both kinds of knowledge derived from the two forms of learning. This section will, therefore, define the two concepts so as to make a distinction of the kinds of knowledge they both generate.

2.6.2 Theory

Theory, according to Deuze (2000:142), is “nothing more or less than a collection of statements or propositions, which together describe and explain something as it is”. He adds that a theory can be causal (explaining why things are as they are) or functional (explaining how things should be in order to work). Wasserman (2005:167) also defines theory as:

[a] framework that challenges them [students] to think, investigate and question. It would teach them that journalism operates in a world saturated by power relations and that as journalists they will also be positioned within these networks of power, thus making them accountable and implicated rather than objective and neutral. It will provide them with the theoretical tools to question power relations, which are not only political, as theories about the media as “Fourth Estate” traditionally emphasise, but also economic.

Thus journalism theory can be viewed as a tool that would enable journalists to reflect on their work (Deuze, 2000:145). Omitting it from journalism curricula is like “bury[ing] the reflective potential of the educators and students involved” (Deuze, 2000:145). Reese concurs when he argues that many journalism scholars see theory as the only way to produce journalists who are “reflective practitioners” (cited in Deuze, 2000:145).

Different kinds of theory have been proposed by journalism scholars and trainers. For example, some have suggested a liberal arts education in courses such as philosophy, history, economics, languages and literature (Fourie, 2005:153; Bollinger, 2003:un; Herbert 2000:xi; Pakendorf, 1979:3), while others have advocated for the infusion of critical communication theory into journalism programmes (Skinner *et al.*, 2001:342). Communication theory can, according to Skinner *et al.*, “show journalists how their craft is part and parcel of a much larger process of social communication and how the ideological choices inherent in news values and news production are necessarily grounded in larger sets of social power” (2001:342).

Fourie (2005:153) also argues that journalism subjects should have within them theoretical aspects which will develop journalism students’ ability to be more reflective of their practice. He proposes topics such as the philosophy and ethics of journalism, journalistic logic, journalistic discourse, journalistic rhetoric, the history of journalism, the psychology of journalism, critical practice, and media institutional analysis, among others.

Media theory has also been put forward as fundamental in the education of journalists so as to enable them to understand the dynamics involved in news-making, both locally and globally (Tomaselli & Caldwell, 2002:27). Tomaselli and Caldwell argue that:

To separate journalism from media studies [...] is to disempower journalists from protecting the institution of journalism from ideologically motivated neo-fascist

misappropriations of cultural and media studies (and other theories) to ensure the narrow interests of selected constituencies in society (2002:27).

Deuze (2000:142) adds to the list of theories by proposing a journalism theory grounded on several approaches, in particular, critical political economy, social-organisation and socialisation theories and critical/cultural approaches. The theory he proposes is made up of three levels – the micro, meso and macro levels. The table below sums up the kind of theoretical knowledge that Deuze (2000:144) believes journalism students should acquire in the course of their studies:

Table 2.1: Journalism Theory for Journalism Education implementation

Macro	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • International context and legislation • National legislation, media policy and market structure • National foundation in law, history and ideology • Conditions of society, culture and community
Meso	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conjunctural conditions of the media market (ownership, horizontal and vertical competition, concentration, cooperation and convergence) • Internal imperatives of the media organisations (type, genre, technology, time, space, formal hierarchy and guidelines)
Micro	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relationships with sources (audiences, spokespersons, PR people) and colleagues (formal and informal hierarchy) • The individual journalist (basic, occupational and professional characteristics)

According to Deuze (2000:146), this model will “facilitate(s) understanding of the complex and even the non-linear nature of the various influence factors on the work, actions and attitudes of journalists”.

One can conclude that despite the variations in the scholars’ perceptions of what constitutes theory in journalism education, there seems to be a general consensus that journalism curricula should have a strong theory component. This would enable journalists to have a comprehensive understanding of the context within which they are operating so as to understand the dynamics that influence their profession, as well as the motivations of different constituencies in the dissemination of information. In the 21st century world, where “everything [has] become commodified, packaged and sold and resold at bewildering speed” (Tomaselli & Caldwell, 2002:27), it is imperative that journalists learn more than just the techniques or mechanics of writing a story (see also Fourie, 2005:155; Skinner *et al.*,

2001:345). As Bauman (cited in Skinner *et al.*, 2001:357) notes, “to work in the world, one needs to know how the world works”. Only through theory can the ability to reflect on one’s practice and the context within which one is operating, be acquired.

2.6.3 Practice

The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2003:1496) defines practice as doing a particular thing often, regularly, in order to improve one’s skill. Two different types of journalism practice have been identified by JE&T scholars, namely the classical kind which Garman argues is framed within the “metaphor” of professionalism, and reflective practice (Greenberg, 2007:289; Garman, 2005:202). The former is perceived as the mechanical transfer of skills to students so that they “can do journalism the way it is currently done (and probably has been done before the current generation of journalists received their training” (Wasserman, 2005:170). Fourie (2005:155) adds that this kind of practice equips students with “how-to-do-it” skills and is preoccupied with the “do’s and don’ts of the profession”. The students are socialised to act within the norms of the profession (Garman, 2005:207), thus making them appear like “stenographers of a passing reality” (Parisi cited in Garman, 2005:206). Zelizer (1993:222) refers to this kind of practice as training by “osmosis and fiat”.

However, this classical definition of journalism practice has been rejected as inadequate for the “overpowering and constantly changing and challenging environment” (Fourie, 2005:155). Fourie is of the view that journalists whose training focuses on the mechanical aspects of journalism practice, do not probe their practice from a critical perspective. Zelizer (1997:23) also points out that:

... seeing journalism as a profession [...] may have restricted our understanding of journalistic practice causing us to examine only those dimensions of journalism emphasised by the frame through which we have chosen to view them.

Garman concurs when she argues that the framework of professionalism confines journalism practice to the simple application of a code of ethics, resulting in an “inflexible and unreflective practice” which “separates the practice of journalism from the responsibility for media’s role in the project of democracy” (2005:205, 208).

Thus to ensure that journalism practice responds to the needs of societies within which it is embedded, JE&T scholars (Greenberg, 2007:289; Niblock, 2007:20-32; Garman, 2005:208;

Burns, 2002:11-13, 33) propose reflective practice for journalists. Ryle (1949:30) makes a distinction between two types of reflective practice, namely “knowing how” and “being able to”, which Schön (cited in Niblock, 2007:24) refers to as reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action respectively. The former involves repeating the procedures that are customary to the newsroom, such as choosing the angle of the story, the pictures to use, as well as sources that would best interpret the events, while the latter involves selecting the appropriate strategies from the benefit of one’s experience (Niblock, 2007:24). Reflection-on-action is performed after the event and this latter stage allows the journalist to critique her/his practice and to come up with new strategies that might be applied to improve her/his performance (Niblock, 2007:24). Niblock adds that “being able” to do good journalism, as opposed to “knowing how” develops as a result of one’s experience rather than possessing a body of pre-existing knowledge about how journalism should be (2007:25).

Thus, Niblock (2007:26) concludes that journalism practice is inherently reflective. Burns (2002:33) concurs with her, but adds that reflection is “also a process by which journalists learn to recognise their own assumptions and understand their place in the wider social context”. She, like Niblock, argues that confining the definition of reflective practice to “knowing how” and “being able” downplays the existence or presence of a pre-existing body of knowledge or theory, which journalists need to be “cognisant of the wider context within which they report” (Niblock, 2007:25). Helle (1991:5) agrees when he says that theory is critical in helping journalists to write “more cogent editorials and columns, articulate more principled positions [...] and even be able to predict the future course of the law more capably and surely”. Integrating theory and practice has, however, led to the heated theory versus practice debates in JE&T (Greenberg, 2007:289). The theory versus practice debate is discussed next.

2.6.4 The relationship between JE&T theory and practice

Greenberg (2007:289) notes that the relationship between theory and practice is heavily contested in JE&T partly because the teaching of theory and practice is often done by two entirely separate groups of people and partly because there is no agreement on the appropriate framework within which to teach JE&T. Gaber, for example, argues that practice is there to illustrate theory, not for training purposes, whilst Phillips is of the view that theory illuminates practice (cited in De Burgh, 2003:104). What this argument reveals is that there is no consensus amongst scholars about the status of each approach in journalism programmes.

This argument pits the two concepts against each other, resulting in the “theory-practice dichotomy” (Deuze, 2000:146; Reese, 1999:74).

Those in favour of theory argue that the promotion of practice by some scholars is deliberately meant to uphold the needs of the labour market in the academy (Fourie, 2005:143; Deuze, 2000:146; Skinner *et al.*, 2001:344), while those for practice view the support for theory as a conscious project to occupy otherwise underemployed academics from loosely related disciplines (Bromley, 2000:372). Adam (1988:9) aptly describes this tension as follows: “The academic and professional elements of journalism curriculum are like ‘two nations warring within the bosom of a single state’”.

The proponents of the practice-based approach to JE&T criticise theory as “useless” and incapable of adding value to the newsroom (Duckett, 2004:un; Kamps, 2004:un). Duckett, for example, argues that the amount of theorising that takes place in university journalism programmes “paralyses” the minds of journalists and makes them unable to cover news. In her words, “[i]t’s [theory] paralysing action. They’re thinking of more reasons to keep things out of the paper than to put things in.” Tibbett’s argument (cited in Kamps, 2004:un) also resonates with that of Duckett when he states that:

I do not believe that an honours degree in the theory of journalism is a particularly worthwhile use of three years of study. It merely tries to turn a vocational subject into an academic one, padding out the subject over an unnecessary long period of time.

However, contemporary thinking is of the view that both theory and practice are fundamental in the teaching of journalists. Pearson (2003:131), for example, argues that theory does not have to be thrown out of the window in adopting a reflective approach. Skinner *et al.* (2001:345) also observe that “news production is, in fact, the convergence of theory and practice and that any attempt to provide fair, balanced and accurate depictions of events involves much more than the simple presentation of ‘the facts’”. De Burgh (2003:105) argues that “practice informs theory [...] theory informs practice”. Practice gives one the ability to successfully cope with the environment, whilst theory provides the ability to understand and explain one’s environment (Deuze, 2000:146). Deuze adds that the arguments for either theory or practice “do not necessarily bite each other” (2000:146). In his view, there is a very thin line between theory and practice; they are two sides of the same coin. Thus, Deuze concludes that “there is no distinction between theory and practice other than the extent to

which one aims to make one's view on the world explicit" (Deuze, 2005:145). He sums up his argument by saying that "theory is the basis for reflection, just as practice [...] is" (2000:146).

2.6.5 Defining theory and practice for the purposes of the study

For purposes of this study, theory means the kind of knowledge that would help journalists reflect on their practice, as well as "help them make sense of their profession in an historical and ideological context and enable them to respond to contextual demands" (Wasserman, 2005:166). However, theory should not be imposed from outside, but it should emerge in response to specific cultural and social circumstances.²⁰ Journalists need the kind of knowledge and intellect which would help them understand the dynamics that have shaped and continue to shape society. This intellect can only be acquired through theory.

Practice, for the purposes of this study, will be taken to mean reflective practice which involves the repeated performance of a skill, in order to master it, as well as critiquing one's practice in order to improve future performances. The study also subscribes to the belief that theory and practice complement each other and that the two cannot be separated.

The concept "curriculum" is reviewed and discussed next.

2.7 Curriculum

2.7.1 Introduction

The term "curriculum" is difficult to define because it means different things to different people (Stavrou, 2006:31; The National Qualifications Framework and Curriculum Development, 2005:5). Stavrou argues that, though many definitions have been proffered for the term, no single definition, which encompasses all the meanings, characteristics and complexities of the term, has emerged. The various ways in which the term "curriculum" has been defined has led to "enormous confusion when discussions about curriculum take place" (The National Qualifications Framework and Curriculum Development, 2005:5). This has prompted Richmond (1971:81) to describe the term "curriculum" as a "slippery" word. In this section, therefore, the term "curriculum" is discussed, and the definition of the word as it is used in this study given.

²⁰ See Wasserman's (2007:11) argument that no theory is without location; that all theories have their roots in a special locale. Skinner *et al.* (2001:357) also make a similar argument when they argue that "theories are the product of historical practice within a cultural setting; they emerge from such environments as contemporary explanations of society".

2.7.2 What is Curriculum?

According to The National Qualifications Framework and Curriculum Development (2005:5), definitions of curriculum “range from narrow interpretations to broad, all-encompassing interpretations which include virtually every aspect of the full education system”. Some scholars, for example, equate the curriculum with a syllabus, which Widdowson (cited in Nunan, 1988:6) defines as a general plan of the content that the school offers the student, in order to qualify for graduation or certification. The consequence of equating the curriculum with a syllabus is that it limits teachers’ planning to only choosing appropriate content that they want to teach (Kelly cited in Stavrou, 2006:31).

Closely related to this narrow definition of curriculum is its representation in the notion of the national curriculum, in which it often means “the coverage of the prescribed content of learning during compulsory learning” (Ross cited in Stavrou, 2006:31). Several scholars in the past have subscribed to this or similar definitions. For example, Tyler defined curriculum as a student’s knowledge, planned and supervised by the school; Taba described it as a learning plan, while Saylor and Alexander perceived it as a set of learning opportunities provided by school authorities (cited in Stavrou, 2006:31). All these definitions focus on what is taught to students in the classroom.

The National Qualifications Framework and Curriculum Development (2005:6), however, gives a much broader definition of curriculum when it argues that curriculum “refers to all of the teaching and learning opportunities that take place in learning institutions”. The curriculum, according to The National Qualifications Framework and Curriculum Development, includes:

- The aims and objectives of the education system as well as the specific goals of learning institutions;
- What is taught; the underlying values, the selection of content, how it is arranged into subjects, programmes and syllabuses, and what skills and processes are included;
- The strategies of teaching and learning and the relationships between teachers and learners;
- The forms of assessment and evaluation which are used, and their social effects;
- How the curriculum is serviced and resourced, including the organisation of learners, and of time and space and the materials and resources that are made available; and

- How the curriculum reflects the needs and interests of those it serves including learners, teachers, the community, the nation, the employers and the economy.

It is clear from this definition that, to The National Qualifications Framework and Curriculum Development, the curriculum is more than a list of subjects, topics and texts to be included in a course of study. Unlike the earlier definitions which merely focused on the subjects and topics taught in the classroom, The National Qualifications Framework and Curriculum Development sees curriculum as encompassing aspects such as standards setting, learning programme development and delivery, and quality assurance of delivery (2005:6).

However, despite the fact that the definition is broader, it still focuses on the dimension of curriculum, which Stavrou (2006:31) refers to as the “official” or “planned” curriculum. According to Stavrou, there are two dimensions to the curriculum, namely the official and the actual or received. The official curriculum, according to Stavrou, refers to the curriculum in prospectuses and study programmes, whereas the received or actual refers to students’ experiences when the official curriculum is applied. Stavrou adds that, whilst the study of the official curriculum is crucial in evaluating any curriculum, it is equally important to examine the received curriculum because both teachers and students perceive the curriculum in their own personal way or according to the school culture within which it is offered (2006:31-32).

This second dimension of the curriculum is captured in Braslavsky’s (un:1) definition which does not only focus on the content taught in the classroom, but takes into account all the aspects of an institution which have an influence on the students’ learning. According to Braslavsky, curriculum does not only refer to what the department intends to teach, the aims, and objectives and specific knowledge and skills students should acquire, but it also refers to the characteristics of the teaching institution, the characteristics of the learning experience, the resources of learning and teaching, evaluation and the profiles of the teachers. The meaning of curriculum, according to Braslavsky, therefore, embraces not only the syllabus which is offered in the classroom, but it also encompasses those elements of the institution which will determine how both teachers and students perceive their experiences in the institution. As Stavrou (2006:32) observes, “curriculum starts as a legal text, becomes reality only at the point it is applied by teachers under real circumstances with actual students and real teaching environments”.

2.7.3 Definition of curriculum for purposes of this study

In view of the discussion above, the term “curriculum” in this study encompasses two dimensions, namely the official and the received curriculum dimensions. Curriculum, in this study, is defined as a planned process, the actual implementation of the teaching, and students’ experiences of the learning process. It is what Kelly (1999:7) describes as “the *totality of the experiences* the pupil has as a result of a provision made” by school authorities. [Emphasis is mine]. This study will, therefore, not only examine the official curriculum, but it will also interrogate the characteristics of the selected tertiary institutions, for example the profile of the students and lecturers in terms of race, gender and language, as these contribute to the culture of the institutions within which the selected programmes are offered.

2.8 Summary of the chapter

In this chapter, key concepts used in this study were reviewed and defined. These included “journalism” and “journalist”, “transformation”, “democracy”, “education and training”, “theory” and “practice”, as well as “curriculum”. Each concept was examined and the complexities surrounding it highlighted. Thereafter, a working definition for the purposes of this study for each concept was given.

Chapter 3: Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter an overview of scholarly debates and literature on what JE&T curricula should consist of is given. Mouton (2001:87) refers to the review of related literature as a “scholarship review” since the works that are being examined are those of other scholars. The primary aim of a literature review is to contribute towards a clearer understanding of the nature and meaning of the problem that has been identified (Fouché & Delpont, 2005:123). A literature review is important because it will enable the researcher to ascertain how the research question might already have been addressed by previous researchers. According to Mouton (2001:86), the review of literature will provide background, as well as a synopsis of existing knowledge or related studies conducted on the research topic. This would enable the researcher to identify gaps, which have not been researched within the field of study, thus preventing a duplication of previous studies.

Besides, Burton and Steane (2004:120, 127) argue that it is not possible for the researcher to come up with a sound theoretical framework for the study in the absence of a thorough review of related literature. A literature review, therefore, is vital for any study so as to determine current trends and debates in the field and to give the study a proper grounding.

A literature review, according to Rubin and Babbie (1993:104), will also help the researcher make important decisions about methodology. For example, a researcher might decide to replicate a previous study or adapt existing and valid measuring instruments. Maree and Van der Westerhuizen (2007:26) add that the review will enable the researcher to identify methodological, contextual and conceptual weaknesses in previous studies. Knowing these weaknesses and obstacles would help the researcher come up with strategies of how to overcome them (Rubin & Babbie, 1993:104).

Whilst Mouton (2001:90) advises that a literature review has to strive to be exhaustive, it has to be pointed out that this is not realistic, usually due to search, time and resource constraints. However, this researcher can state that every attempt has been made in this study to review key studies pertaining to JE&T curricula reviews.

Extensive research on the question of journalism curricula review has been done both internationally and locally. Several studies and numerous conferences and colloquia have been held globally to discuss journalism curricula changes. The most appropriate and relevant

studies, conferences and colloquia are examined in this chapter. Books, journal articles, conference papers, theses and dissertations, as well as academic and general online library databases, such as EBSCOHost and Sabinet, were consulted. For the purposes of this review, literature was identified also using search engines such as Google and Google Scholar, which consistently provided useful sources.

In an effort to answer this study's central research question, namely "Do the selected JE&T curricula in the three selected tertiary institutions address challenges in a transforming South Africa?", the literature most relevant to the question were identified and discussed in terms of studies on JE&T in the United States of America (USA) and Europe, then JE&T studies related to the rest of Africa, and, lastly, JE&T studies pertaining to South Africa.

In the next section, relevant literature focusing on JE&T in the USA and Europe is reviewed.

3.2 Journalism curricula review: USA and Europe

3.2.1 Introduction

This section focuses on relevant literature which discusses attempts in the USA and Europe to review JE&T curricula. These two continents, especially the USA, were chosen because they have dominated JE&T discourses for most of the 20th century (and continue to do so) throughout the world (Joseph, 2009:45).

3.2.2 Early 20th century debates about the nature of JE&T

Journalism scholars and practitioners in the USA and Europe have for many years "wrestled with curriculum review issues" (Dates, 2004:2). Since the beginning of the 20th century, the "perennial debate between practice and theory" (Holm, 2002:67) has dominated JE&T narratives. The main bone of contention among scholars was whether to focus on craft/skills of the trade or conceptual and theoretical issues in the training of journalists. The main objective of JE&T in the USA in the early 20th century was to prepare journalists for the newsroom and, because of that, emphasis was put on technical matters such as reporting, writing and editing (Mirando, 2002:80). Renowned journalism schools such as those at Columbia, Northwestern and Missouri Universities pursued this technical/vocational model and, as such, became models for other schools (Mirando, 2002:80).

Because of this early fixation with the vocational model, journalism, throughout the 20th century carried the stigma of being unworthy to be called an academic discipline. Flexner (cited in Mirando, 2002:80), for example, contemptuously dismissed journalism lessons as "a

few practical tricks and adjustments that an educated or clever youth would rapidly pick up ‘on the job’”. Others argued that JE&T should neither be mandatory nor the centre of the curriculum and that only a little of it should be for academic credit (Blanchard & Christ cited in Medsger, 1996:11).

It is for this very same reason that journalism was forcibly integrated with communication studies, which, because of its theoretical nature, was believed to be the only way in which journalism studies could gain the “respectability” of being an academic discipline (Rogers cited in Josephi, 2009:45; Medsger, 1996:56).

It could be argued, however, that this belief shows ignorance of the nature of journalism. Journalism, like many academic disciplines, embodies within it intellectual skills such as research, critical thinking, organisation of material and clear expression, which are core skills in introductory journalism courses (Medsger, 1996:12). Writing, which is a core competence for journalism practice, is very often dismissed by critics of JE&T, as not requiring one’s intellect to accomplish it. Medsger (1996:13) dismisses this argument by pointing out that writing is a “critical intellectual skill through which a student would demonstrate most learning”. Writing is certainly more than putting words together in a grammatically correct sentence; it is also a process which requires creativity on the part of the writer so that her/his text leaves a lasting impression in the minds of the readers.

If journalism courses have intellectual skills comparable to those of other recognised university disciplines, one, therefore, wonders why, according to Medsger (1996:55, 56), some scholars, especially those from communication studies, have continually reinforced this stigma of journalism education as trade school training. Medsger strongly believes that this myth was created by communication studies scholars, not only out of ignorance of what journalism entailed, but out of a self-serving need to avoid the bureaucracy involved in creating a new academic discipline within a university. Thus, journalism found itself submerged within communication studies and, according to Medsger (1996:61-62), this led to the stunting of journalism as a discipline for the greater part of the 20th century. The diminishing status of journalism studies resulted in dissatisfaction amongst journalism scholars, which subsequently led to the School of Journalism at the University of Oregon carrying out a study to address these concerns about JE&T. The findings of this study are articulated in what has popularly come to be known as the Oregon Report. The next section discusses the Oregon Report.

3.2.3 The Oregon Report

A two year study, carried out in 1987 at the University of Oregon, showed dissatisfaction with the state of the discipline of JE&T in the USA. The authors of what has become known as the Oregon Report, officially known as “*Planning for Curricular Change in Journalism Education: Project on the future of Journalism and Mass Communication Education*”, early on in the study, concluded that journalism/mass communication in the university, as well as nationally, was in a “dismal” state (Oregon Report, 1987:iii). The report strongly argued that journalism schools were “little more than industry-oriented trade schools” and contemptuously dismissed them as “handmaidens to industry” (Oregon Report, 1987:3), which simply followed industry and not led it. The report further noted with concern that the industry model (vocational model) did not give students sufficient understanding of the media as a whole. The latter knowledge, they claimed, was vital to the advancement of their careers later on.

The model was also viewed as not appropriate for the post-industrial society (also known as the information society) where most of the workforce was concerned with the production of information and manipulation of symbols (Oregon Report, 1987:9). The report sadly noted that, because journalism schools were not poised to play a leadership role in the production of information, their role was now being taken over by other departments in the university, such as Speech Communication, Library Sciences and Business departments. Thus, journalism schools were perceived as stagnant and not innovative in the face of rapid change.

In their discussion of what should constitute a model journalism curriculum, the authors of the Oregon Report made some key recommendations, namely:

- i) that in view of the “communication revolution outside of the university” there should be a move away from the industrial model to what they called a “generic model” (Oregon Report, 1987:9). This model would put emphasis on training students to be generic communicators, who could be fluid as they moved from one communication field to another;
- ii) that this curriculum should have a strong leaning towards liberal arts and sciences. As such the report recommended a ratio of 75% for the liberal arts and sciences and 25% for journalism courses; and

- iii) that journalism students be taught grammar and language usage. So important was this aspect to the authors of the Oregon Report that they listed “competence in the use of the language” first among five elements of communication competency in a model curriculum (Seamon, 2001:61).

The Oregon Report’s recommendation for a generic curriculum proved to be popular among some scholars whose mantra was that “there are few differences among the communication fields – journalism, public relations, advertising and others. We will train all for all” (Medsger, 1996:6). They believed that “to continue to educate for specific industries, especially journalism, would be disastrous” (Medsger, 1996:6). Where this curriculum existed, students were given a little public relations, a little advertising, a little journalism and a lot of theory about communication in general (Medsger, 1996:11).

On the surface, the generic model appeared to be a brilliant idea because it promised to produce versatile practitioners for the communication industry. Its limitation, however, lay in the fact that its disciples were under the mistaken belief that all communication fields are the same. It ignored the fact that journalists, unlike practitioners from other communication fields, should be well grounded in skills such as writing, editing and reporting. Both Overby²¹ (see Medsger, 1996, First Foreword) and Shaver (2005:2) make it clear that journalism’s core values (writing, editing, to mention but two) are critical for journalism practice, and must, therefore, be a fundamental part of the journalism curriculum.

Yet, according to Medsger (1996:11-12), these skills were drastically reduced in the generic curriculum because they were considered not “intellectual” enough to be given currency in an academic discipline. Some scholars even disdainfully said that writing should not be taught in their schools because it is “remedial” (Medsger, 1996:13). This kind of reasoning shows a complete misunderstanding of the nature of journalism skills (see Medsger, 1996:12-13). As already stated above, writing is an intellectual skill, which all students require to demonstrate their learning.

Gene Roberts, the then managing director of *The New York Times* (cited in Medsger, 1996: 56), therefore, concluded that when journalism education accepted this generic model and agreed to be submerged within communication studies, it took a wrong turn, which resulted

²¹ Charles L. Overby was at the time of the *Winds of Change* study the President and Chief Executive Officer of The Freedom Forum, which funded the study. He wrote the first Foreword for the study.

in JE&T being undermined in every respect. He is supported by Gutierrez²² (Medsger, 1996, Second Foreword) who says that students had to look harder for journalism education because “it [was] hidden under such names as mass communication or information sciences or it [had] disappeared altogether into generic communicator courses”.

Thus, Medsger (1996:12) concluded that journalism skills were being undervalued in training institutions which focused more on communication theory than journalism skills; that there was too much preoccupation with academic degrees over professional experience as qualifications for teaching; that there was a heavy load of mass communication theory courses; and that training was more focused on training generic communicators rather than journalists. The study concluded, among other things, that the major goal for JE&T should be to teach journalistic skills and prepare students for their careers in industry. Thus, Medsger cautioned against a journalism programme which dwelt too much on communication theory instead of focusing on the relevant skills that journalists need to carry out their duties.

Another one of the Oregon Report’s key recommendations was that there should be a strong liberal arts component in the journalism curriculum. Many scholars concurred with this argument because they believed that liberal arts would develop the students’ intellect and make them more critical about the world around them (Medsger, 1996:9; Bollinger, 2003:un; Fourie, 2005:153). This is even more vital in the 21st century where the journalism landscape has become more complex because of the multimedia approach and interactivity, the convergence of media platforms as well as the hyper-commercial environment within which the media have to operate. Fourie (2005:155), for example, argues that:

In such an overpowering and constantly changing and challenging environment in which the emphasis is too often on quantity to the detriment of quality, the need to think about journalists’ thinking and to equip future journalists with thinking skills rather than with how-to-do-it skills, has become a prerequisite for future quality journalism.

The importance of liberal arts in journalism education is underscored by Medsger (1996:9) who says that “journalism involves teaching a multifaceted concentration of the mind” and

²² Felix Gutierrez was Senior Vice President, The Freedom Forum Executive Director, Pacific Coast Center. He wrote what amounted to a second foreword for the *Winds of Change* Study by Betty Medsger.

that for this to be possible, the mind should meander “through literature, history, political science and physics”.

However, whilst the *Winds of Change* study acknowledges the importance of liberal arts in a journalism curriculum, it reminds scholars that journalism is a liberal art in its own right. Asking students to take liberal arts courses outside the field should not be viewed as the failure of journalism courses to be liberal arts, but rather it was meant “to force students to study extensively outside the major – to stretch their minds and build their knowledge” (Medsger, 1996:12). Whilst acknowledging that intellectual skills can be acquired through liberal arts subjects such as philosophy, history, languages and literature, Fourie (2005:153) is also of the view that journalism subjects have the potential to teach intellectual skills necessary to question from a critical, evaluative and analytic perspective, journalistic practices and their impact on the world and on humanity. For that reason he recommends the following topics:

- The philosophy and ethic of journalism. These are to be based on philosophical matters such as what is reality, truth, knowledge and meaning and the relevancy of all these to our understanding of journalism and journalism practices;
- Journalistic logic with an emphasis on reasoning, argumentation and validity of inference and the relevance of such an understanding for journalism and journalistic practice;
- Journalistic discourse with an understanding of the power of language, language as a symbolic form, language as a metaphor, language and ideology and the relevance of such an understanding for journalism and journalists;
- Journalistic rhetoric with an emphasis on rhetorical skills and journalism’s power or lack of power to inform, educate, convince and persuade;
- The history of journalism, with an emphasis on the intellectual skills of contextualisation and historical thinking;
- The psychology of journalism, including the study of the behaviour of the journalist and the internal processes that underlie journalistic behaviour,

perception, memory, attention, knowledge representation, reasoning, creativity and problem-solving;

- Critical practice, using the hermeneutic skills of description, interpretation and evaluation for reading and analysis of seminal examples of good journalism and the work of renowned journalists; and
- Media institutional analysis, using the critical and empirical methods of sociology and communication, media and cultural studies towards not only a critique of the media as an institution, but also towards a better understanding of the media as an institution, the reasons for its practices and policies, and how these practices and policies can be changed in favour of an improved institution (Fourie, 2005:153-154).

It has to be noted, also, that asking students to do most of their courses outside the journalism discipline comes with its own complications. The Oregon Report, for example, noted with concern that despite the fact that students were expected to take 75% of their courses elsewhere in the university, “Oregon...[had]...little genuine inter-department cooperation”. This means that the journalism programme was fragmented and that journalism educators had no control over a significant part of what constituted their programme.

The Oregon Report further noted that even within the programme there were problems in trying to integrate the conceptual aspects of the course with the practical skills ones. It argued that “the division between conceptual and craft courses [...] tends to fragment the efforts of a small faculty and a large student body” (Oregon Report, 1987:6). This separation of conceptual and practical courses in journalism tends to lead to tension between those who teach ‘academic’ courses and those who teach ‘vocational’ courses (Amner, 2005:6). The worst part of this separation is the fact that students find it difficult to make connections between theoretical and vocational courses in journalism. It is important, therefore, to conceive ways of integrating these two aspects so as to avoid a disconnection in the journalism curriculum.

The tension between theory and practice has been at the centre of JE&T discourses in the USA and Europe and, therefore requires a closer look, and is discussed next.

3.2.4 The theory versus practice debate

The contentious relationship between theory and practical skills was heightened in 2002 by Lee C. Bollinger, the President of Columbia University, who suspended the search for a dean of the Graduate School of Journalism on the grounds that the school needed to re-think its mission. Bollinger challenged the journalism faculty at Columbia University to think critically and creatively about what a graduate degree in journalism should entail (Glasser, 2002:1). He argued that “To teach craft²³ of journalism is a worthy goal but [it is] clearly insufficient in this new world” (Glasser, 2002:1). He added that whilst “there is a role at the university for skills training, [but] it should not be the dominant position” (Walsh *et al.*, 2002:2). Bollinger, therefore, called for “more intellectually based” journalism schools. He believed strongly that leading journalists should have a functional knowledge of statistics, economics, history and political theory and philosophy (Bollinger, 2003:un).

Bollinger’s move resulted in a storm of reactions from the journalistic fraternity, with some scholars vehemently opposing him and others applauding him for the move to make journalism programmes at Columbia University more intellectually-based. On the one hand, critics accused him for trying to send Columbia “further down the slippery slope toward scholarly arcane” and for wanting to “reward arcane research instead of nuts-and-bolts practice” (Glasser, 2002:1). Others feared that his approach would embrace mass communication studies and media criticism (Walsh *et al.*, 2002:3).²⁴ Ken Bode, the former dean of Northwestern University’s Medill School of Journalism, showed his concern when he said “If we’re turning it into a communications school populated by PhD media critics who can’t find their way through a 40-watt radio station, we’re making a mistake” (Walsh *et al.*, 2002:3).

On the other hand, those who sympathised with Bollinger’s way of thinking, argued that his call did not mean abandoning the craft of journalism and substituting it for an education that has little or no relevance to journalism practitioners (Glasser, 2002:2). Instead, they viewed his call as “an enhancement or augmentation of the [existing] program(s)” (Klatell cited in Walsh *et al.*, 2002:3). There was a general consensus that the craft of journalism was vital to the mission of journalists and that it should form a significant part of the curriculum (Shaver,

²³ Bollinger’s use of the word “craft” is derogatory, implying that JE&T which is not intellectually-based cannot be classified as a profession. This resonates with Flexner’s (cited in Mirando, 2002:80), contemptuous dismissal of journalism lessons as a “few tricks and adjustments that an educated or clever youth would rapidly pick up ‘on the job’”.

²⁴ Betty Medsger (1996:61-62) in *The Winds of Change* study had already blamed communication studies for stunting journalism studies in many universities in the USA.

2005:2; Glasser, 2002:2). It was believed that the teaching of basic journalism skills ensures that journalism educators remain relevant to mass communication professions and that it also guarantees employment and career opportunities for journalism graduates (Shaver, 2005:2).

Whilst the employability of journalism graduates remains a major objective for journalism schools, Bollinger's suggestion is also important for JE&T because it calls for an intellectually focused journalism programme, which would serve to enhance the critical thinking skills of journalists. The question that should dominate in journalism curriculum debates should, therefore, not be "whether journalism programs should teach professional skills or wax theoretical, but how each [could] best be taught to (our) students" (Dates, 2004:2).

The skills versus theory argument is thus considered by many scholars to be redundant in the 21st century, which is characterised by rapid changes in the media and journalism landscape (Wasserman, 2005:161; Glasser, 2002:2; Holm, 2002:67). Deuze (cited in Wasserman, 2005:161), for example, describes the skills versus theory debate as a "battle of clichés". Glasser (2002:2) also argues that discussions "mired in the vocabulary of 'theory versus practice', 'academic versus professional', 'education versus training'... [and] 'chi squares versus green eye shade'" are not helpful in addressing new challenges to JE&T. Scholars identify these challenges as: the increasing multicultural nature of societies; the hyper commercialisation of information systems, which has resulted in the blurring of lines between entertainment and information genres, thus resulting in the formation of new genres such as infotainment; the convergence of digital media technologies (multimedia); and the internationalisation of media journalism and news flow (Fourie, 2005:155; Tumber, 2005:551; Wasserman, 2005:161; Jenkins, 2001:93; Friedland & Webb, 1995:54). As noted by Fourie (2005:155), only those journalists who have been taught to think critically, will be able to handle these challenges.

Although the skills versus theory debate still surfaces in many JE&T forums, there now seems to be a general consensus among journalism educators that a quality journalism programme should produce "critical-reflexive thinkers" (Deuze, 2000:140). According to Dates (2004:2), students need a balance of skills and theory, and Wasserman (2005:161) believes that this balance between these oppositions is possible. This is notwithstanding the fact that JE&T systems vary from country to country and that there is a diversity of educational philosophies in Europe (Frohlich & Holtz-Bacha cited in Deuze, 2001:6).

Whilst there is consensus about the importance of integrating theory and practice in a JE&T curriculum, journalism scholars, however, expressed concern of the American dominance in journalism scholarship (Josephi, 2009: 47; Curran, 2005:xii). According to Curran (2005:xii), JE&T models, other than the American one, existed in the Western world. In the next section, alternative JE&T models used in Western journalism programmes are highlighted.

3.2.5 Alternative JE&T models in Western journalism schools

According to Chalaby (cited in Josephi, 2009:43), journalism is defined today as an Anglo-American invention. This is mainly because, for much of the 20th century, the USA was the main environment to provide journalism as a tertiary study (Josephi, 2009:43). It was only in the 1980s and 1990s that journalism became accepted as suitable for tertiary study worldwide (Josephi, 2009:43). Britain, for example, in contrast to the USA, preferred on-the-job training for journalists (Delano cited in Josephi, 2009:52). It only recently embraced tertiary education for journalists. Pinto and Souza (cited in Josephi, 2009:52) also argue that journalism was looked down upon in Portugal mainly because it was not an academic discipline.

Because of the USA having pioneered the education of journalists at tertiary level, it dominated discourses pertaining to the definition of journalism and JE&T worldwide (Curran, 2005:xii). This, according to Josephi (2009:53), has led to the perception that there is only one valid form of journalism, which should inform JE&T. For example, theoretical subjects, which are part of JE&T, are linked to democracy and as such, JE&T is seen as the exclusive domain of democracies (Josephi, 2009:47). The “American model of fact-based, neutral professionalism [and] the libertarian, market-based model of organizing journalism”, therefore, ignores or gives very little attention to alternative political systems and journalism teaching approaches (Curran, 2005:xii).

Barrera and Vaz (2003:23) for example argue that the Spanish national school of journalism set up in 1941 by General Franco was government controlled. It was placed under the Falangist Party and remained under government control until the early 1970s. Similar government-controlled journalism schools were found in the former states of the Eastern bloc (Josephi, 2009:47) and in developing countries (Gaunt, 1992:157). Thus, according to Barrera and Vaz (2003:23), journalism schools are used in some environments to educate and train journalists in the service of dictatorships.

Whilst this kind of journalism is prevalent in many countries in the world, the norms and values that underpin JE&T in these countries have so far received very little attention (Josephi, 2009:50). It has to be noted that JE&T in some contexts operates in environments which are far from democratic. Hallin and Mancini (2004:97) note, for example, that in Italy one becomes a professional journalist on the recommendation of a party or politician who has direct control over the newspaper or has considerable influence on its management, and yet Italy is considered a democracy because of the numerous elections taking place in that country. Thus, according to Hallin and Mancini, the ideology of loyalty completely dominates the ideology of objectivity and neutrality, which are the bedrock of American JE&T.

It is, therefore, imperative that debates in journalism curricula review should look beyond the American model for answers and acknowledge the existence of other journalism and JE&T narratives. Josephi (2009:53), for example, calls for a need to recognise the global geopolitical shifts taking place in the 21st century. This is because the media are no longer dominated by the USA (Tunstall cited in Josephi, 2009:53). De Burg (2005:2) also dismisses as an old fallacy the idea that “all journalisms were on route to an ideal model, probably Anglophone”. Wan (cited in Josephi, 2009:53) argues that of the 100 highest circulation newspapers in the world, 75 of these are Asian. He further notes that Asia, in particular China and India, has the highest audience numbers, which means they produce the largest number of journalists. Yet in JE&T discussions, Asia hardly features.

Journalism scholars, therefore, are now calling for the recognition of a broader range of journalisms. The perception that there is only one journalism underwriting JE&T should be transcended so that JE&T become relevant to the contexts within which it is offered. Due to the fact that Asian journalism studies are not readily accessible for review, this literature review will have to accede to forego even a brief discussion of approaches and discourses around JE&T in this region.

3.2.6 Summary

The review of relevant literature pertaining to JE&T curricula reviews in the USA and Europe revealed that JE&T is an academic field in its own right because, like other academic fields, it demands intellectual skills. The acts of writing, research, organisation of material, clear expression and critical thinking, which are core skills in introductory journalism courses (Medsger, 1996:12), attest to the fact that JE&T is more than trade school training. The

review also highlighted the importance of integrating theory and practice in the education and training of journalists. There is a general consensus that the theory versus skills debate is redundant in the 21st century journalism landscape. The review also revealed that JE&T institutions should acknowledge the diversity of approaches used in the education and training of journalists. The review underlined that American models are not the only viable ones.

The chapter will now review literature pertaining to JE&T in Africa.

3.3 Journalism curricula review: Africa

3.3.1 Introduction

In this section, relevant literature on journalism curricula review efforts in Africa is discussed. Key concerns of African journalism educators and trainers are highlighted in this section.

3.3.2 Epistemological and philosophical underpinnings of African JE&T curricula

While in the USA and, to a certain extent Europe, curricula debates have revolved mostly around the theory versus skills debate, in Africa, the main concern has been about the epistemological and philosophical underpinnings underlying African JE&T. Several African journalism scholars have expressed concern that JE&T on the continent are framed within Western philosophies and epistemologies, which they argue are totally unsuitable for Africa (Mano, 2009:278; Nyamnjoh, 2005:87; Murphy & Scotton, 1994:36; Mukasa & Becker, 1992:40-41). According to Murphy and Scotton (1994:36), “some of Africa’s journalism programs could be moved to the United States with hardly a change in curriculum, text or instructors”.

This is hardly surprising in view of the fact that early journalism schools in Sub-Saharan Africa were modelled on those in the West, in particular the USA (Mano, 2009:281-283; Murphy & Scotton, 1994:36). Murphy and Scotton note, for example, that the Ghana Institute of Journalism, established in 1958 by Kwame Nkrumah, was patterned along American-style journalism programmes (1994:37). Similarly, the University of Nigeria in Nsukka, initially based on a British model of journalism, moved to an American model of journalism, which was felt to be more practical than the British one. Murphy and Scotton further argue that the American influence spread through UNESCO-supported journalism programmes, and by 1970, such programmes existed in Cameroon, Ethiopia, Kenya, Nigeria, Senegal and Zaire. These programmes attracted students from all over Africa and this meant that the American

influence in JE&T and practice became deeply entrenched in Africa because these students went back to their countries and practiced journalism the American way.

Skjerdal (2009:2) also notes that JE&T in Ethiopia have been heavily influenced by both North America and Europe. He points out that lecturers in various schools have been educated in different countries such as the USA, Britain, Italy, the former Soviet Union, to mention but a few, thus proving that JE&T in Ethiopia are influenced by distinct Western traditions. His own programme, the MA programme in journalism at the Addis Ababa University (AAU), is supported and run by the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD) (Skjerdal, 2009:2).

The power of the American influence on African JE&T curricula is further compounded by the fact that teaching materials originate mostly from American publishing houses (UNESCO, 2002:1). In the next section, relevant literature on teaching materials used in most African JE&T classrooms is reviewed.

3.3.3 Text books used in African JE&T classrooms

According to De Beer (2010:215), the “issue of Northern publication ascendancy is [...] more conspicuous [in Africa] than elsewhere”. He adds that journalism monographs and journals, which form part of “the quest for free access to information”, are still largely confined to the North. This implies that Western epistemologies still have a strong influence on JE&T in Africa. This problem was observed as early as the mid 1980s by Nordenstreng, Brown and Traber (ud:un).

A study done by Nordenstreng, Brown and Traber (ud:un) under the auspices of the International Association for Mass Communication Research (IAMCR) between 1985 and 1986 revealed that Third World regions with Anglophone and Francophone orientation were dominated by literature from Europe and North America, foremost the USA. Out of 316 textbooks surveyed in Anglophone Africa, only 20% were regionally relevant. Francophone Africa was even worse in that of the 99 books surveyed only 8% were regionally relevant. The study thus showed a heavy dependence on Western literature and teaching materials, which has led to the entrenchment of the journalism approach of these Western countries into the journalism curricula in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Almost two decades after this study, the situation does not seem to have changed much in Sub-Saharan Africa. A paper submitted at the 2007 World Journalism Education Conference

(WJEC) in Singapore by De Beer, Mukela and Banda (2007:1) also pointed out the dominance of American published books in English-speaking African countries. The writers described this as a “new kind of knowledge colonialism [which] exists in the world today” (De Beer *et al.*, 2007:1). They argued that the Northern (Western) publishing hegemony is the one now defining international journalism theory and research and, as such, is now entrapping African journalists in the American “way of doing things”. Even journals such as *Critical Arts*, *Journal of African Communications*, *African Media Review*, *Ecquid Novi/African Journalism Studies*, to mention but a few, which originated on the African continent and are supposed to be looking at African issues, are dominated by a non-African editorial staff (De Beer *et al.*, 2007:6). This has guaranteed the continued hegemony of Western epistemologies on African scholarship.

So powerful has the American influence on African journalism scholars been that even books written by African journalism scholars for Africa read like American textbooks (Scotton & Murphy, 1994:40-41). Examples of such books are Ralph Akinfeleye’s 1982 book, *Essentials of Modern African Journalism* and the 1985 ACCE-promoted *Reporting Africa* edited by Rowlands and Lewin (Scotton & Murphy, 1994:40). The same can be said of the *Handbook for African Journalists* (1987) by 15 leaders in African journalism, which seems to affirm Western standards of news reporting. This is not surprising, because this book, whilst written by African scholars, was sponsored by the World Press Freedom Committee based in Washington DC.

Another study done by Mano in selected Sub-Saharan universities in 2009 also underscored the fact that African journalism and media programmes are heavily reliant on Western philosophies. Mano’s (2009:278-282) extensive survey on the teaching of journalism and media studies in African universities, such as the University of Nsukka in Nigeria and Makerere University in Uganda also revealed that there is an over-dependency on syllabuses conceived in the West; that most students and staff are still trained abroad; and that major books and theories used in African institutions were mainly written by Westerners for Western students. He specifically underlined the fact that Western influence on Africa should not be characterised as homogenous, but that a distinction should be made between American and European influences (see Skjerdal, 2009:4-5).

Mano also called for closer links between African journalism and media studies and those of other emerging economies such as Latin America and Asian countries. In this, he is supported

by Thussu (2009:21-22) who notes that emerging economies, such as those of China and India, are challenging the dominance of the West on the global communication markets. In his view, the “Chindia” challenge may have a long-term challenge on how capitalism evolves and international relations are managed. He believes that it is necessary to “think beyond the idea of the West versus the Rest and the de-Westernizing discourse [...] and to ‘decolonise’ the way research in and about the majority world is conceived and conducted”. Thus, it could be argued that Africa cannot afford to ignore these new powers, which are playing a significant role on the world stage. African journalism scholars should thus understand the way global communication systems are developing in the 21st century.

In the next section, the researcher discusses the various responses of African scholars on how JE&T curricula could be de-Westernised so as to make them relevant to the African context.

3.3.4 Debates on de-Westernising African JE&T curricula

African scholars argue that journalism systems rooted in colonial models produce journalism practitioners who are entirely out of touch with the social realities of the developing countries (Murphy & Scotton, 1994:39). According to Fourie (2005:154), Western epistemologies were influenced by the Enlightenment and, therefore, put a lot of emphasis on cause and effect, observable and measurable facts and individualism. Thus, scholarship in the Western context means being scientific and being detached from the social concerns of the day (Murphy & Scotton, 1994:39). Journalists educated in this academic tradition would, therefore, be expected to be “neutral” and “objective” in their reporting. Their task would be to report events without taking into consideration the consequences of their stories on the communities they are reporting on.

Golding (cited in Murphy & Scotton, 1994:42) rejects this notion of a “neutral professional communicator” and argues that “traditional communication processes [...] tended in general to be closely wedded to social and political processes” and “that the very act of receiving and transmitting messages called for some display of agreement and acceptance”. In his view, the conveyor of information in an African context was never detached. Instead, he couched his messages in words that would have the most impact on his audiences (Golding cited in Murphy & Scotton, 1994:42). Thus, according to Golding, journalists should be interested members of their communities. Instead of reporting stories as mere observers or outsiders, they should be committed to the welfare and development of their communities.

This argument resonates with that made by the proponents of Ubuntu philosophy, who argue that Ubuntu should serve as a foundation for journalism programmes in Africa (Thloloe, 2008:134; Botha & De Beer, 2007:201-202; Rabe, 2005:4).²⁵ Wasserman (2007:12) concurs when he argues that, despite its many contradictions, Ubuntu was worth exploring as a possible normative framework for African JE&T, as it offered the best opportunities for counteracting Western narratives. However, a journalism programme which is framed within Ubuntu would need to reinterpret concepts such as “freedom of expression”, “public interest”, “national interest” and “objectivity” which, in Western epistemologies, are defined within a liberal-democratic framework (Fourie, 2005:154).

This is in line with De Beer *et al.*'s (2007:3) argument that press freedom should not be considered within a liberal-democratic framework. The same point of view is articulated by Nyamnjoh (2005:2-3) who argues that the West has imposed its “national and world cultures” on African media, which has effectively marginalised entire world views and cultures in Africa. Merrill (cited in De Beer *et al.*, 2007:3) supports this view when he says that:

Certain soils produce some kinds of media cultures and other soils produce quite different ones. In a modern world, journalists (and journalism scholars) must take various cultures into consideration. It makes things difficult for everyone, for example, if a libertarian journalist tries to insert his or her values into an authoritarian society. It is natural to expect trouble.

This argument resonates with that made by Josephi (2009:53) who argues that future writings on JE&T will have to accept a broader range of journalisms, rather than just focus on the American models.

The need to have a context-sensitive type of journalism also prompted UNESCO to propose a generic model journalism curriculum for developing countries and emerging democracies (UNESCO, 2007:6). UNESCO's proposal was an acknowledgement that “journalism education is offered in many different [...] settings, circumstances and cultures, and in many different political conditions” (2007:6). The UNESCO model curricula, therefore, takes into cognisance the socio-economic, political and cultural contexts of developing countries. To that end, French-speaking African countries were encouraged by UNESCO to design their own generic model, separate from the English-speaking countries.

²⁵ Ubuntu philosophy is discussed in detail in chapter 4 of this study.

The model curriculum was further buttressed by a decision taken at the WJCE preparatory conference in 2009 at Rhodes University, South Africa, which called for the conceptualisation, research and design of a series of syllabi on reporting the African continent. The draft of four course outlines, authored by Banda, UNESCO, Salawu, University of Fort Hare, South Africa and Chibita, Makerere University, Uganda (2010), took its cue from the UNESCO model curricula for JE&T. What is worth noting about this curriculum and the syllabi on reporting Africa is the emphasis on adjusting the models to suit local conditions.

However, whilst it goes without saying that African JE&T need to be freed from their dependence on Western epistemologies, it is equally important for journalism scholars to guard against a simplistic and essentialist approach to the de-Westernisation of African journalism curricula.

3.3.5 Summary

The review revealed that the major concern of journalism scholars in Africa is the de-Westernisation of JE&T curricula so that it could be made relevant to Africa's socio-political and economic conditions. To counteract Western epistemologies in African JE&T curricula, journalism scholars have called for the de-Westernisation/Africanisation of these programmes. Ubuntu philosophy has been proposed as a possible normative framework and a generic curriculum, deemed appropriate for Africa's socio-political conditions, has been designed. Another pertinent issue which emerged from the review is that there is a serious shortage of research and textbooks produced by African scholars. This is detrimental to the drive to de-Westernise/Africanise African JE&T curricula.

Next, literature concerning curricula development in South Africa, specifically, will be discussed.

3.4 Journalism curricula review: South Africa

3.4.1 Introduction

In South Africa, JE&T is under-researched (De Beer, 2008:185; De Beer & Steyn, 2002:14). According to De Beer "potential academic journalism researchers have, largely, turned their attention to the more profitable domain of public relations, marketing and other forms of corporate communication in a market-driven media environment" (2008:185). As a result, not many studies on journalism curricula have been done in South Africa. In fact, most studies done in the country have focused more on journalism practice in the industry and not what is

happening in the journalism classroom.²⁶ Despite this limitation, several conferences and colloquia have been held since 1979 to discuss what should be taught in journalism schools, how, where and by whom. In this chapter, significant conferences, colloquia and papers will be reviewed. First to be discussed is the first South African JE&T conference held in 1979.

3.4.2 South African Conference on the Survival of the Press and Education for Journalism

The earliest conference called the “South African Conference on the Survival of the Press and Education for Journalism” was held in 1979. At this ground-breaking conference, three different training providers, namely the major English and Afrikaans press groups (which offered cadet and in-service training), technikons and universities were represented. Two major questions that were addressed at the conference were: What should journalism students be taught, and by whom?

Based on the deliberations at this conference, it is clear that participants were more concerned about teaching practical skills than theory. There seemed to be a general consensus, especially from industry representatives, that journalism students should be taught practical skills such as report writing, news gathering, interviewing, shorthand, speed reading and note-taking (Dunn, 1979:5; Hall, 1979:2). Nothing was said by these scholars about the epistemological foundations that should inform journalism curricula in South Africa at the time.

However, Pakendorf (1979:3), who represented the Perskor group, argued that journalists’ education should go beyond practical skills. In his view, “a man²⁷ with a broad education – say with a bit of political science, economics, history, sociology, physics, and a language – who has thrown in a course or two on the basics of journalism, is worth more to a newspaper than a man who is full of the jargon of the communications industry and little else” (Pakendorf, 1979:3). Pakendorf, however, envisaged this liberal arts education for journalism being offered by institutions of higher learning. In his view, universities were not places to teach the basics of journalism, such as typing and shorthand, but places to educate the mind.

²⁶ Some of these studies include the two Glass Ceiling studies (SANEF, 2006; SANEF, 2007) whose main concern was to examine the challenges facing women journalists in South African newsrooms; the Goga study (2002) which investigated issues of racial and gender balance in the media; the South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC) (2000) study, which investigated issues of race and racism, human rights and freedom of speech in the media; and the Braude study (1998) which studied the role of the media during the apartheid years.

²⁷ In the idiom of the time, journalists were mostly referred to as being male.

Pakendorf also expressed disappointment at the quality of students emerging from the universities. He argued that these students' English was appalling; that their general knowledge was non-existent; and that students coming out of universities then were no different from those who had not gone to university. Tertiary institutions were thus asked to review what they taught in the journalism classroom.

De Beer (1979), however, differed from other presenters in that he focused more on the paradigm informing JE&T at Afrikaans-speaking universities. He pointed out similarities between the American model and that informing journalism programmes in these universities. He, however, did not interrogate the model, but seemed to believe that it was appropriate for dealing with the challenges of both the 1980s and the 21st century. He noted, for example, that because of the information revolution and new technologies in the media, there was growing public awareness of the media. De Beer also called for a closer relationship between industry and academy. In his view, a closer relationship between the two would improve JE&T in terms of research and the product emerging from tertiary institutions. He, however, did not interrogate what this close relationship with the media industry entails for JE&T.

Clearly, issues of theory and epistemology were not burning issues for participants at this conference. This was, however, not the case with post-1994 JE&T conferences and colloquia held in South Africa.²⁸ Issues pertinent to this study raised at these conferences are discussed next. In order to avoid repetition, the subsequent sections of this review will be organised according to the key issues raised and not in terms of the conferences/colloquia where they were raised.

3.4.3 Theory versus practice debate

A key issue raised at the first colloquium to mark the 10th anniversary of South Africa's democracy, held at Rhodes University in October 2004, was the traditional theory versus

²⁸ Since democracy in 1994, several conferences have been held. These include: "Learning about the learning sector", Conference with the South African National Editors' Forum – SANEF (1997); "Training for media transformation and democracy", Colloquium by Chair of Media Transformation at Rhodes University and SANEF (2001); "Cooking up a community of media trainers", Founding conference of Southern African Media Trainers Association (Samtran) (2001); "Taking Stock of ten years of media training and education at tertiary institutions: addressing an agenda for the next decade", Rhodes University (2004); "Journalism Education and Training: The challenges", Stellenbosch University (2008); Precon for the 2nd World Journalism Congress, Rhodes University (2009).

skills question. There was a general consensus among scholars that the traditional divide between “theory pushers” and the “vocational trainers” was not enough to teach students how to write (Wright, 2005:7; Du Toit, 2005:6). Wright, therefore, called for “a balance between vocational-practical aspects of journalism and the rich academic-theoretical component” (2005:7). She argued that it was not enough to teach students how to write, but that they also needed to be taught how to reflect critically and interpret issues.

The importance of teaching students to reflect on their practice was taken up further by the participants at the second colloquium held in June 2005 (Amner, 2005:6; Fourie, 2005:155; Garman, 2005:26; Jones, 2005:22; Wasserman, 2005:165). Fourie (2005:155), for example, proposed an education which focuses on the development of intellectual skills such as “reasoning, argumentation, rhetoric, contextualization, historical thinking, description, interpretation and evaluation”. He argued that teaching these skills would “raise the intellectual depth of journalism studies” and that professional skills such as interviewing, writing and editing should be preceded by the teaching of intellectual skills.

Wasserman (2005:165) took the argument a step further when he recommended the praxis approach to the teaching of South African journalists. Mosco (cited in Wasserman, 2005:165) describes praxis as “a conception of practice that sees intellectual work as a form of social intervention”. In praxis, teaching is informed by research, the research agenda is influenced by practical problems, and practical skills are informed by sound theoretical knowledge, and so on (Wasserman, 2005:166). Because of its integrative nature, the “pluralistic approach” to the teaching of journalism, is thus seen as ideal in optimising journalism education’s role in social intervention. Praxis balances academic and vocational perspectives and allows them to “cross-pollinate” instead of setting them against each other (Wasserman, 2005:166). This would ensure that JE&T produce journalists who are equipped with the intellectual and practical skills to contribute positively to South Africa’s democratisation.

Thus participants at these two colloquia emphasised the vitality of integrating academic and vocational aspects in JE&T curricula. Integrating theory and practice in a journalism curriculum would “equip students with a particular skill set and broad social knowledge” which would show them “how journalism participates in the production and circulation of meaning” (Skinner *et al.*, 2001:342). It would also enable journalists to understand “power and uses of power, its constructions of knowledge and information, its manifestations in

narratives and news formats” (Garman, 2005:210). This way, “self-reflexivity” will become a habit for journalists in their practice (Garman, 2005:210).

Another key issue which has come up in almost every conference and colloquia since 1994 is that of de-Westernising South African JE&T curricula, in order to make it relevant to the South African context. The debates on de-Westernising JE&T curricula are discussed next.

3.4.4 De-Westernising/(South) Africanisation of the JE&T curricula

At different conferences and colloquia held after 1994, South African JE&T scholars expressed concern that South African journalism curricula were still firmly grounded on Western epistemologies and philosophies (Fourie, 2005:154; Rabe, 2005:6). Fourie for example, argues that this dependency on Western epistemologies was detrimental to journalism practice because it did not provide “for an understanding of the deep-rooted spirituality of African culture(s) and ethics”.

Wasserman (2007:15) concurred with this argument when he noted that the post-apartheid normative framework which informs the South African media is strongly influenced by the North (West). He noted, for example, that the Press Ombudsman and the BCCSA codes put emphasis on individual freedom, which is an ideal of liberal democracy. This liberal normative ethical framework is founded on neo-liberal ideals for freedom and human dignity, which Harvey (2005:35, 37) argues only upholds the dignity of the world’s elite and completely undermines the dignity of millions of vulnerable people in the world. John Pilger (cited in Wasserman, 2007:5) refers to these “hidden voices and faces” as “Unpeople” because these vulnerable people are not afforded any human dignity.

The consequence of grounding the world’s media on neo-liberal ideals is that the subaltern has been obscured from the attention and sympathy of the media (Wasserman, 2007:12). The media, in fact, has been heavily implicated in promoting neoliberal ideals, which have resulted in misery for the world’s “Unpeople”. The world’s marginalised people have had to contend with increased inequality while at the same time remaining excluded from the global media discourse (McMillin cited in Wasserman, 2007:9).

In South Africa’s case, Wasserman (2007:15) acknowledges that the current neo-liberally influenced normative media framework of media freedom is preferable to the one that existed during the repressive apartheid era. However, the heavy influence of Western ethical liberal values on South African media has meant that the formerly marginalised and disadvantaged

majority remain outside the ambit of the national and global media discourses. Representation in the South African mainstream media, for example, is still heavily skewed in favour of white South Africans. Wasserman (2007:16), for example, cites the instance when a prominent white historian was murdered in KwaZulu-Natal. His death led to a media frenzy which lasted for many weeks and even ended up with one South African bank embarking on an advertising campaign to persuade newspaper readers to write letters to the press to the then president of South Africa, Thabo Mbeki, to demand a tougher stance against crime. What is interesting, however, is that on the same day eight people were murdered on the Cape Flats, an area designated for “Coloureds” during the apartheid era. Wasserman notes that except for one tabloid newspaper, the *Daily Voice*, none of the mainstream commercial media deigned to report the murders.

Thus, according to Wasserman (2007:18), if journalism is to contribute positively to the transformation of South Africa into a viable democracy where the formerly marginalised and disadvantaged people are given space in the media to participate in national media discourses, then it is vital that the normative ethical framework that informs the national media should be redefined. True transformation means allowing these people to reclaim their human dignity by giving them the opportunity to play an active role in contributing to national and global media narratives. The normative ethic that should operate in South Africa should be one that takes a genuine interest in the material conditions of these people, not one that takes them as an oddity of nature that is displayed for the voyeuristic pleasure of the elites of this world (Sontag cited in Wasserman, 2007:18). To achieve this, Sontag cautions against a type of journalist who views the concerns of the subaltern with detachment and with the gaze of a disinterested spectator.

Taking the above into account, all this has serious implications for JE&T in South African journalism schools. Journalism schools have to produce journalists who will genuinely engage media audiences, that is, both the elites and the marginalised, on issues of interest to them. This should be a journalist who understands the forces that have created the massive inequalities prevailing both nationally and globally; a journalist who will understand the power of global forces influencing the national ethical normative framework and how these are implicated in the perpetuation of the marginalisation of the “Unpeople” in South Africa; and a journalist who has the intellect to challenge the current global and national media discourses which have kept millions of the world’s vulnerable on the periphery of existence.

It is clear from the above arguments that South African journalism educators should be in the forefront of challenging and revising current normative media frameworks and the traditions from which they derive (Wasserman, 2007:9). The journalism curriculum offered in South African schools of JE&T should not just reinforce the existing normative media theories. Instead, it should serve as a platform from which journalists who are well-equipped with intellectual skills strong enough to challenge the prevailing status quo, are launched into the world.

To that end, South African journalism scholars (Wasserman, 2007:12; Fourie, 2005:154; Rabe, 2005:23) call for an Afro-humanist/Ubuntu paradigm for South African journalism, which they argue would counteract the dominance of Western narratives on JE&T curricula.²⁹

The need to ground African JE&T in epistemologies that would appeal to African sensibilities was reiterated by journalism scholars and professionals at the “Journalism Education and Training: the Challenges” conference held at Stellenbosch University in 2008. Thloloe (2008:134), for example, argued that the only way to make JE&T answer the numerous challenges and problems on the continent was to embed them in Ubuntu philosophy. Groepe (2008:137) also called for the training of journalists with “a distinct African focus”, whilst Ankomah (2008:162, 163) stated that African journalism curricula must be Africanised and that it should not be fashioned after inherited colonial models, but on indigenous knowledge. Other scholars who have thrown their weight behind Ubuntu are Botha and De Beer (2007:201-202), Rabe (2005: 23) and Blankenberg (1999:45). Scholars argue that vital journalism concepts such as “freedom of expression”, “objectivity”, “newsworthiness and ethics” and “news values” should be reinterpreted and redefined within an African humanist sensibility (Fourie, 2005:154; Rabe, 2005:23; Wasserman & De Beer, 2005a:200).

Even though Ubuntu has its own contradictions (these are discussed in detail in chapter 4 [4.3.3]), Wasserman argues that it is worth exploring as a possible normative framework for South African JE&T curricula so as to displace the Western epistemologies which are dominant in these curricula (Wasserman, 2007:12). However, Wasserman (2007:13) cautions against essentialising Ubuntu because he argues that indigenous knowledge systems, such as Ubuntu, evolve all the time in line with global changes around them. Post-colonial scholars

²⁹ Ubuntu philosophy is discussed in detail in chapter 4 of this study.

such as Bhabha (cited in Wasserman, 2007:13) and Morley (1994:151) also reject cultural meanings which are fixed and argue that the contact between two cultures always results in the creation of new identities. Thus, Wasserman (2007:13) advocates for a normative framework which integrates elements of both Ubuntu and Western epistemologies.

3.4.5 The role of the media industry in JE&T

The role that the media industry should play in JE&T was also raised at some of the conferences. Wasserman (2005:164), for example, argued that, whilst it was ideal for JE&T to work in consultation with industry, this, however, did not mean that journalism educators should wait for industry to set the standards for academia. He expressed concern at the prevailing system in South Africa in which the accreditation process for media and journalism programmes is driven by the Sector Education and Training Authorities in collaboration with industry in the form of SANEF (representation of training institutions is minor). What this means is that the normative standards for media and JE&T in South Africa is set by the industry and a statutory body (Wasserman, 2005:165).

The downside of allowing industry to set up the normative standards for JE&T is that journalism schools might end up being “a factory for big business” (Tomaselli cited in De Beer, Tomaselli, Burger & Grobler, 2004:368) or as Wasserman (2005:164) describes it “a production line delivering a work force for industry”. Once that happens, the university’s critical function would cease. University programmes, by their nature, should produce intellectuals who contribute to their societies by being critical of the prevailing status quo. If JE&T merely produces journalists who fit media requirements as suggested (as cited in Wasserman, 2005:164), then journalism would not be able to address the challenges posed by transformation in post-1994 South Africa. Journalism educators, therefore, should wrestle the role of setting normative standards for JE&T from industry so that they can produce journalists with the ability to critique the status quo, both in society and industry. Such a journalist would contribute to the rejuvenation, revitalisation and transformation of the media industry itself.

However, whilst there is some discomfort amongst scholars of JE&T in them playing second fiddle to the media industry, journalism educators and trainers have never lost sight of the importance of the industry working together with journalism schools. Wasserman (2005:164), for example, acknowledges the fact that it would be pointless for journalism schools to transform and produce journalists who are expected to do things differently from industry’s

expectations. It is for that reason that both Wasserman (2005:164) and Rabe (2005:23) argue that industry should also transform itself so that it could also benefit from these “‘transformed’ journalists”. The two (academe and industry) have to work together to effect transformation in both journalism schools and industry. Rabe (2002:118) adds that a synergy between academe and the media industry would ensure that the minds (conceptual skills) and the hands (practical skills) are fully developed. She argues that journalism curricula should be a result of a “triumvirate of role players, namely the industry, the teachers and media publics” (Rabe, 2005:23).

Rabe (2005:23) also insists that journalism schools should interact with community media so as to make students aware of the primary task of journalism, which is “to give a voice to the voiceless”. Amner (2005:20) takes this argument further when he argues that the current structure of JE&T prepares students for mainstream media, which is serving a dominant public. The subaltern, that is the formerly disadvantaged and marginalised people of South Africa, have no media platforms from which they can articulate their interests and concerns. Whilst accepting the presence of community media in South Africa, Amner questions whether journalism schools really train students to work in this type of media. He, however, acknowledges that students are not keen to work in community media because of the poor remuneration packages they offer as well as the “stigma” associated with them.

The point that Amner (2005:20) raises is fundamental to the attempts by journalism schools to produce journalists who will play a critical role in promoting South Africa’s democratisation process. Journalism, as already observed earlier by Wasserman (2005:164), is expected to play a fundamental role of upholding and strengthening South Africa’s democracy. However, the voices of South Africa’s majority or the subaltern are not represented in the mainstream media. The only possible platforms where their voices can be heard, the community media, do not appear to promote these voices (Amner 2005:19). According to Amner, these community media serve a general public sphere, which tends to be dominated by dominant groups. To ensure that journalism plays its role of fostering democracy in South Africa, it is important for journalism schools to teach different journalistic approaches and practices, and not just those which would feed the mainstream media. There is thus a need to teach students to also handle “alternative” or “oppositional” media, which is where the voices of the subaltern are most likely to be represented.

3.4.6 Summary

In this section, the review of related literature revealed that prior to 1994 the major emphasis in JE&T was on teaching practical skills. Not much was said about educating and training journalists to be critical thinkers nor were the epistemological foundations on which JE&T were rooted interrogated at the 1979 conference. After 1994, emphasis shifted from a practical skills-oriented curriculum to one which integrated theory and practice. Journalism educators and trainers argued that for journalists to contribute effectively to South Africa's transformation, they needed to be equipped with both skills.

The review also revealed that there is a general concern by South African scholars about the dominance of Western epistemologies in the country's JE&T curricula. Thus calls have been made by many South African JE&T scholars that the curricula should be de-Westernised so as to make it relevant to South Africa's socio-political environment. However, some scholars were quick to note that this does not mean a complete disregard of Western philosophies. They warned against regressing into nativism.

Another key issue which emerged from the literature is that journalism schools should work closely with industry. However, some cautioned against allowing industry to set up normative standards that should prevail in the education and training of journalists.

3.5 Conclusion

This chapter reviewed scholarly debates and relevant literature on journalism curricula. The discussion focused on literature on JE&T curricula in the USA and Europe, Africa and South Africa. It is evident from the literature review that whilst a significant number of studies on JE&T curricula have been done in the US, Europe and Africa, in general, nothing has been done in South Africa. This is despite the fact that since 1994, several conferences and colloquia have been held and several articles written on the urgent need to review JE&T curricula in South Africa so that it would not only address the challenges posed by the rapidly changing global journalism landscape, but would also be informed by epistemologies and philosophies relevant to the South African context. The review reveals that, in South Africa, the discourse of JE&T curricula has largely been theoretical and commentary. No studies have been done so far to establish whether JE&T curricula in tertiary institutions are transforming in line with the socio-political changes that have taken place since 1994. In the light of this gap in knowledge, this study seeks to establish whether South Africa's socio-political changes are reflected in the JE&T curricula of selected tertiary institutions. JE&T

curricula of three tertiary institutions were examined to establish whether they address the challenges in a transforming post-1994 South Africa

The next chapter will proceed to discuss the theoretical frameworks chosen for this study.

Chapter 4: Theoretical Paradigms

4.1 Introduction

In order to establish whether the challenges of a transforming society are reflected in the JE&T programmes of the three selected tertiary institutions, three theoretical frameworks, namely the post-colonial theory (together with its sub-theory, the post-colonial feminist theory), the developmental journalism model and Ubuntu philosophy were chosen to analyse the curricula of these programmes. The three theoretical frameworks are discussed in the order outlined above and the reasons for choosing them are given.

4.2 The post-colonial theory

4.2.1 Defining post-colonial theory

Post-colonial theory was a creation of literary studies, which, according to Ashcroft, Griffiths and Tiffin (2006:1), came into being once the colonised peoples had cause to reflect on and express the tension that ensued from the “interaction between imperial culture and the complex of indigenous cultural practices”. The term “post-colonial”, however, has proved to be problematic as several scholars grapple with the questions of when or what the post-colonial is (Lunga, 2008:194; Childs & Williams, 1997:1). According to Childs and Williams, the “obvious” and “common sense” implication of the term “post-colonial” is that it refers to “a period coming after the end of colonialism”.

However, as Childs and Williams note, this definition begs the questions: After whose colonialism? After the end of which colonial empire? They argue that, whilst the putting up and dismantling of colonial empires by European nations in the 19th and 20th centuries was unprecedented in the history of colonialism because of its global repercussions in the contemporary world, there has not been one period of colonialism in the history of the world. Colonialism, according to Ahmad (1995:9), is a:

[T]rans-historical thing, always present and always in the process of dissolution in one part of the world or another, so that everyone gets the privilege of being coloniser, colonised and post-colonial – sometimes all at once, in the case of Australia, for example.

The chronological separation between colonialism and its aftermath has also been challenged by some scholars who claim that the post-colonial condition began with colonisation rather than after decolonisation (Sil, 2008:22). Ashcroft *et al.* (2006:3), for example, argue that the

term “post-colonial” covers “all the culture affected by the imperial process from the moment of colonisation to the present day”. In their view, all post-colonial societies are still subject in one way or the other to overt or subtle forms of neo-colonial domination and that independence has not solved this problem.

Slemon (1991:3) concurs with this argument when he postulates that:

Definitions of the ‘post-colonial’ of course vary widely, but for me the concept proves most useful not when it is used synonymously with a post-independence historical period in once-colonised nations, but rather when it locates a specifically anti- or *post-colonial discursive* purchase in culture, one which begins in the moment that colonial power inscribes itself onto the body and space of its Others and which continues as an often occulted tradition into the modern theatre of neo-colonialist international relations.

Post-colonial theory, therefore, subscribes to the notion that colonialism did not end with the end of colonial occupation, but rather that it mutated and found new forms of expression in the independent nation states (see Lunga, 2008:194; Fourie, 2007a:175).³⁰ Its main objective is to interrogate these new forms of expression and to expose the continued power of the colonisers and how the independent states are still dominated by the West economically, culturally and militarily (Fourie, 2007a:175).

It does this by questioning all master narratives which project global inequalities as natural and inevitable (Wasserman, 2007:10; Dirlik, 2005:565). According to Wasserman (2007:10), media which is informed by the post-colonial theory would ask critical questions about the impact of current global economic, political and social conditions on the human dignity of people around the world. This is because the ultimate aim of the post-colonial theory is to restore the dignity of the vast majority of the world’s population whose voices remain unheard (Wasserman, 2007:10).

Post-colonial theory also questions Western discourses about the colonised or the Other, which, according to O’Reilly (2001:104), were an integral part of establishing and maintaining colonial control. O’Reilly goes on to say that discourses have a set of rules which determine who can speak and what statements or knowledge will be regarded as valid and

³⁰ George Lamming (cited in Ashcroft *et al.*, 2006:9), for example, found it intriguing that Britain, without its Empire, could still maintain its cultural authority in post-colonial societies.

what will be deemed implausible.³¹ Said in his seminal book *Orientalism* (1978), for example, clearly articulates how and with what effect the Occident invented the “Orientalist discourse” and through it developed “one of its deepest and recurring images of the Other” (cited in Ashcroft *et al.*, 2006:24), in order to subjugate the North African Arab and Middle-Eastern peoples and their cultures. The “Orientalist discourse” and the notion of the “Other” are discussed next.

4.2.2 The “Orientalist discourse” and the notion of the “Other”

O’Reilly (2001:106) argues that the concept of the “Other” is central to thinking about the identity of the colonial and post-colonial subject. According to Cairns and Richards (2006:135), otherness is a Western philosophical concept which was used by the coloniser to justify his continued subordination and repression of the colonised, as well as to consolidate his imperialist self. Spivak (cited in Parry, 2006:46) adds that the construction of the English cultural identity was inseparable from the native as its objective. This concept is aptly illustrated in Said’s Orientalist discourse in which the North African Arabs and the Middle-Eastern people are depicted as the exact opposite of the Westerner.

Orientalism, according to Said (2006:25), is a “style of thought based upon an ontological and epistemological distinction made between ‘the Orient’ and ‘the Occident’”. This thought was accepted by many writers, such as poets, novelists, philosophers, political theorists, economists and imperial administrators as:

[T]he basic distinction between the East and West as the starting point for elaborate theories, epics, novels, social descriptions and political accounts concerning the Orient, its people, customs, “mind,” destiny, and so on (Said, 2006:25).

The West used this discourse to define Europe (or the West) as its “contrasting image, idea, personality and experience”. Said further argues that the Orient was Europe’s cultural contestant, the opposite of the Occident; the inferior Other, which the European detested.

Thus, according to Said, the West invented the Orientalist discourse, in order to define Europe (or the West) as its binary opposite. Through this discourse, the Orient was represented as “a place of romance, exotic beings, haunting memories and landscapes, remarkable experiences” (Said, 2006:24), and its people, the “Other” as degenerate, lazy, weak, lustful, criminal and immoral, that is everything morally negative in comparison to the

³¹ The subject of knowledge production and power is discussed in Chapter 4 [4.2.4].

West's moral superiority (Said, 1978:3). The stark differences between the coloniser and the colonised are captured in Lord Cromer's³² words as follows:

The European is a close reasoner; his statements of fact are devoid of any ambiguity; he is a natural logician, albeit he may not have studied logic; he is by nature sceptical and requires proof before he can accept the truth of any proposition; his trained intelligence works like a piece of mechanism. The mind of the Oriental, on the other hand, like his picturesque streets, is eminently wanting in symmetry. His reasoning is the most slipshod description [...] They are often incapable of drawing the most obvious conclusions from any simple premises of which they admit the truth. Endeavour to elicit a plain statement of facts from an ordinary Egyptian. His explanation will generally be lengthy, and wanting in lucidity. He will probably contradict himself half-a-dozen times before he has finished his story. He will often break down under the mildest process of cross-examination (Cromer cited in O'Reilly, 2001:107).

Thus, as revealed in Lord Cromer's words, the Oriental was represented by the coloniser as a bizarre and irrational being in sharp contrast to the "rational normality" of the Western being.

Colonial master narratives were thus organised around the binarism of rationality/irrationality, civilised/primitive and pacifying/disorder (Chennells, 1999:112). The othering of the North African Arab and Middle-Eastern peoples and their cultures was, to use Achebe's words (1988:3), "in Western psychology to set up [the Orient] as a foil to Europe, as a place of negations at once remote and vaguely familiar, in comparison with which Europe's own state of spiritual grace will be manifest". Thus, as noted by O'Reilly (2001:104), the West's creation of the Other was a deliberate act aimed at justifying the need to control them and also to heighten the West's own superiority and power.

The Orientalist discourse is critical in this study because, even though Orientalism initially referred to generalisations and stereotypes used to describe the North African Arab and the Middle-Eastern peoples and their cultures, it now has a universal appeal (Nozaki, 2009:144). It has come to epitomise "Western style [...] domination" (Said, 1978:2) in contexts other than North Africa and the Middle East. Apartheid, for example, presented itself in a manner

³² Lord Cromer was England's representative in Egypt between 1882 and 1907. This extract is taken from his book, *Modern Egypt* (O'Reilly, 2001:107).

similar to that of Orientalism because it assumed the inherent superiority of the white man and inferiority of other races.

Like the Westerner in the Orientalist discourse, the apartheid state controlled knowledge production and reproduction through its social institutions such as schools and universities so as to promote the discourse of the racial superiority of the white people (Esakov, 2009:71). Racial segregation was used to colonise the mind into accepting “hierarchical constructs” of the superiority of the white man as “pre-ordained truths” (Esakov, 2009:71). According to Berger (2002a:4), this was all done by the apartheid state for the purposes of maintaining political power and the domination of the subordinate races. It could be argued, therefore, that the use of the Orientalist discourse in this study is appropriate as the apartheid state deployed similar characteristics to those of the Orientalist discourse. The Orientalist discourse does not only help the researcher think critically about how the world is being represented, but it also highlights the link between 18th century colonial practices in Africa and the Middle East and exclusionary practices during the apartheid era (see Ashutosh & Winders, 2009:551, 552).

Orientalist tendencies were replete within the subordinate groups as well. Post-colonial feminists, for example, observe that the process of othering occurred not only between the coloniser and the colonised, but also amongst the colonised subjects themselves (Anderson, Kirkham, Browne & Lynam 2007:178). Unlike post-colonial theorists who ignore the important issue of gender difference and subsequently construct one single category of the colonised, post-colonial feminist theorists argue that women suffered “double colonisation” at the hands of both imperial and patriarchal ideologies (Ashcroft *et al.*, 2006:233). Spivak (cited in Turkmen, 2003:198) concurs when she states that:

Between patriarchy and imperialism, subject-constitution and object-formation, the figure of the woman disappears, not into a pristine nothingness, but into a violent shuttling that’s the displaced figuration of the “third-world woman” caught between tradition and modernization, culturalism and development.

Thus, in order to understand the condition of the woman in post-1994 transforming South Africa, the post-colonial feminist theory was deemed necessary for this study because, unlike the post-colonial theory, it extends its argument beyond the colonial discourse of domination and highlights “a number of the unexamined assumptions within post-colonial discourse”.

One of these beliefs is that the only major cause for concern for the colonised subjects is their marginalisation by the coloniser, nothing else (Ashcroft *et al.*, 2006:233).

In the next section, the post-colonial feminist theory, a sub-theory of the post-colonial theory, is discussed and a rationale given for including it in this study.

4.2.3 Post-colonial feminist theorists and the concept of the “Other”

As already stated above, post-colonial feminist theory, argues that women in different societies suffered not only at the hands of the coloniser, but that they were relegated to the position of the Other by various forms of patriarchal domination within their societies. Post-colonial feminist theory argues that even though both colonialism and patriarchy have been closely entwined historically, an end to colonialism did not mean an end to the oppression of women in former colonies (O’Reilly, 2001:111). Katrak (2006:240) concurs when he argues that “patriarchy [that] preceded and continues after colonialism and that [it] inscribed the concepts of womanhood, motherhood, traditions such as dowry, bride-price, polygamy”. Katrak adds that the woman’s predicament has worsened within a capitalist system introduced by the colonisers.

Petersen (2006:236,237) points out how in the process of decolonisation and cultural restitution, issues of women’s oppression and repression within different societies are relegated to the periphery. The fight against cultural imperialism not only resulted in women’s issues being ignored, but it also led to the conscription of the women’s issues in the “service of dignifying the past and restoring the African self-confidence” (Petersen, 2006:237). For example, Achebe, one of Africa’s renowned writers, presents the traditional Igbo woman as a happy and harmonious member of the community, and yet when Okonkwo beats his wife during the week of peace, he is punished not for beating her, but for beating her during the week of peace, thus underscoring the gender inequalities that existed in the Igbo society (1958:21-22).

Thus the othering of women by both the colonial master and patriarchy impacted negatively on women, resulting in them being perceived as second class colonial citizens unfit to determine their own destiny (Oyewumi, 2006:259). One can conclude that the second-class status that African women in South Africa suffer in the contemporary era is rooted in the way they were represented by patriarchy, the colonial state and apartheid.

The above argument is critical, especially in view of the fact that South Africa's post-colonial/post-apartheid government has pledged to redress the inequalities of the past and to open up space for the formerly disadvantaged and marginalised voices (see Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996). The assumption behind this pledge is that the voices of women which had been marginalised and silenced during the colonial and apartheid eras would be reclaimed and amplified. For transformation to be successful in the post-1994 South Africa, all forms of repression, including the marginalisation of women by patriarchy, should be addressed.

In redressing the woman's status in the post-colonial state, Mohanty (2006:244), however, cautions against treating women as a homogenous group as is the case in many feminist discourses. Whilst one could argue that women are bound together by the notion of "sameness" of their oppression, it is equally important to recognise that women are "material subjects of their own history" (Mohanty, 2006:244). Petersen (2006:234) concurs when she observes that the concerns of the Western feminists are different from those of African feminists. She notes that one very important area of difference is that Western feminists "discuss the relative importance of feminist versus class emancipation" while African feminists discuss "feminist emancipation versus the fight against neo-colonialism".

Oyewumi (2006:257) extends the argument when she points out that whilst women of all races suffered discrimination within their societies, the black woman was in a worse situation than her white counterpart. Colonisation for black women was thus seen as a twofold process of "racial inferiorization and gender subordination" (Oyewumi, 2006:256). This belief gave rise to the notion of "Womanism", a distinct type of feminism which took into consideration "the peculiarities of Black females" (Ebunoluwa, 2009:228). Unlike feminism which concentrated on the needs of middle class white women in Britain and America, Womanism "recognizes the triple oppression of Black women [that is] racial, classist and sexist oppression" (Ebunoluwa, 2009:230). According to Ebunoluwa, Womanism makes it clear that the needs of black women differ from those of their white counterparts.³³

³³ Even though Womanism is a global ideology which defines the experiences of Black women in the Diaspora, as well as those residing in Africa, the way African-American women such as Alice Walker, who first coined the term, use it, differs slightly from the way African women use it (Ebunoluwa, 2009:230). However, it is outside the scope of this study to delve further into the notion of "Womanism" as the study focuses on all women in the selected JE&T programmes regardless of colour.

One can, therefore, conclude from the preceding argument that in the process of transformation, women should not be lumped under one group. What is important is to uncover “the material and ideological specificities that constitute a particular group of women as ‘powerless’ in a particular context” (Mohanty, 2006:244). Women’s circumstances vary depending on various circumstances, for example, their economical, intellectual and historical circumstances.

The preceding argument has also shown how the “inferiorization” (Oyewumi, 2006:256) of particular groups of people in society disempowers them. The process of othering within both the colonial state and patriarchy placed the dominant subjects in positions in which they could claim to have the power to know and create the Other. In the next section, the link between the act of othering certain social groups and power is discussed.

4.2.4 Power, knowledge production and the “Other”

In the colonial context, the Westerner became the all-knowing being who could claim to “know” the Other better than he knew himself. Ashcroft *et al.* (2006:1) argue that the business of “knowing” other people was part of the grand plan by the colonialist to impose his will on the colonised. Said concurs (1978) when he argues that the Orientalist discourse was used by the coloniser to impose colonial domination on the pretext that Western values and beliefs are vital in order to counter the negative traits of the colonised. This argument shows how power is linked to the production of knowledge, a thesis which is founded on Foucault’s theory of the link between power and knowledge (Ashcroft *et al.*, 2006:10).

Foucault, whose thesis influenced the thought of post-colonial scholars like Edward Said, (see Said, 1978:3) argues that those who create and maintain knowledge create us through the knowledge they pass on to us (Foucault, 1990:1131). According to Foucault, our world view is limited to the world view of those who create knowledge; they decide who we are and what we should discuss. O’Reilly (2001:104) concurs when he says that discourse is governed by a set of rules which determine who can speak and what knowledge is regarded as legitimate and what is unacceptable. Thus according to O’Reilly, through knowledge production, the coloniser was able to establish and maintain control of the colonised subject.

Following on this thesis, Ashcroft *et al.* (2006:10) see the link between power and knowledge production in the 21st century and argue that it is just as important today as it was during the colonial era. In the latter period, the West had the power to “know” the Orient and that power manifested itself through the construction of the Oriental as a particular subject of discourse

(Ashcroft, *et al.*, 2006:10). The consequence is that the West, through its power and ability to construct the Other, prevented certain indigenous knowledge from being produced and disseminated (Fourie, 2007a:175). This means that they placed limits on what knowledge could be produced and circulated and also controlled who could speak and on what subject. Hall concurs with this argument when he points out that the Western discourse of stereotyping, dualism and splitting to undermine the Rest (non-Western) has institutionalised itself by working its way into “classic works of sociology such as those of Marx and Weber” and that “its effects can still be seen [...] in the language, theoretical models and hidden assumptions” of modern sociology and the other social sciences (Hall, 1992:318).

Similarly, several African journalism educators note with concern that the West’s tendency to place the non-Westerner in a position of the inferior Other and the disregard of the Other’s voice, continues to manifest itself in the control, production and circulation of knowledge in the 21st century (De Beer, 2010:215; Mano, 2009:278-282; De Beer *et al.*, 2007:1, 6). Western philosophy and epistemology continue to dominate African JE&T curricula well after the colonising powers relinquished the reins of power to the black political elite in now independent states (Banda, 2008:50; Ramose, 2004:138). Western dominance of the dissemination of knowledge and information can also be seen in the over-reliance on Western textbooks. UNESCO made this observation when it said:

The source of inspiration of teachers, curricula and textbooks is Western. Teachers are mostly Western educated, curricula are drawn from Western models and most textbooks are authored and published in the West and North America (UNESCO, 2002:1).

Theory and practice in JE&T, according to Banda (2008:50), are still defined and determined by Western institutions and scholars. The roles of journalists are also still informed by Siebert *et al.*’s normative libertarian and social responsibility theories (Kanyegirire, 2006:161). According to Gunaratne (cited in Fourie, 2007a:208), for example, Siebert *et al.* “drew their concepts only from Western philosophers and theorists, and yet tried to give the impression of universality to the theories they created as evident from their attempt to examine the

degrees of press freedom in various non-Western countries”.³⁴ The over-reliance on Western epistemologies is seen by post-colonial scholars as limiting the scope and history of freedom of expression to Eurocentric thought patterns (Fourie, 2007a:208), especially on important issues such as class, race, gender and sexuality.

Fanon (2006:120) also argues that the colonialists’ imposition of his supposedly superior value and culture resulted in a sense of alienation in the self-identity of the non-white colonised people. In his words:

Colonialism is not satisfied merely with holding a people in its grip and emptying the native’s brain of all form of content. By a kind of perverted logic, it turns to the past of the oppressed people and distorts, disfigures and destroys it.

Because of this, the colonised subject developed a strong sense of inferiority, which resulted in him adopting the coloniser’s language, culture and customs to the detriment of his own, all this in an effort to compensate for his feelings of inferiority (see Fanon, 1986:10-11). The consequence of all this is the creation of a divided sense of self in the formation of one’s identity. In Fanon’s view adopting the language and representational forms of the coloniser “infantilise, primitivise, decivilise, and essentialise” the colonised (Wyrick, 1998:34). In journalism, this dependency on Western philosophy and theory is seen as resulting in the production of journalists who cannot deal with the complex post-colonial continent that is Africa (Mazrui cited in Banda 2008:51).

It is against this background of the continued dominance of Western narratives to the exclusion of indigenous knowledge that movements such as Negritude and Pan-Africanism, which promoted the “black is beautiful” narrative, were born. They placed “African ideals in the centre of any analysis that involves African culture” (Asante cited in Botha, 2007a:205). These two movements challenged Western narratives about Africa’s past and sought to introduce new narratives which would de-bunk the imperialist ones. They tried to rally the colonised black people against the dominance of Western supremacy and to focus them on discourses which would uphold the rights of the black people.

³⁴ Philosophers, theorists who and institutions which have informed Western thought systems are Plato, Machiavelli, Hobbes, Hegel, Milton, Locke, Smith, Paine, Jefferson, Stuart Mill, Marx, Stalin and the United States Commission on Freedom of the Press (Gunaratne cited in Fourie, 2007a:208).

African nationalists urged the people to return to an intact and untainted indigenous culture, what Cabral (1974:60) calls “a return to the source”. Cabral believed that there is an authentic African identity from which Africans were diverted at the time of colonialism. For Fanon (2006:119-120), the struggle against the West’s dominance on non-Westerners involved the claiming back of the colonised subject’s history and culture. Africa was viewed as “a site of pristine cultural authenticity” (Ang, 1996:53), which was now subverted and corrupted by foreign influence (Morley, 1994:151). The idea of nation is, therefore, often based on “naturalized myths of racial and cultural origin” (Ashcroft *et al.*, 2006:137). However, some scholars (Frello, 2005:2; Martin, 1999:66; Bhabha cited in Meredith, 1998:2; Morley, 1994:151) challenge the notion of “cultural authenticity” when they argue that national cultures and identities are “hybrid” by nature, a concept which is discussed next.

4.2.5 Hybridity

“Hybridity” is one of the most disputed terms in post-colonial studies because in colonial discourse it was used as a term of abuse for those who were products of miscegenation (Meredith, 1998:2). Hybrids were considered as inferior races, weak and second rate persons, which imbued the term with racist overtones (Farahzad & Monfared, 2010:2). However, post-colonialists reclaimed the term and used it to commonly refer to “the creation of new transcultural forms within the contact zone produced by colonization” (Ashcroft *et al.*, 1998:20). Farahzad and Monfared (2010:2) argue that hybridity is an inevitable result of globalisation and internationalisation. They argue that because of globalisation, cultural borders are mixed and are subject to great changes.

The concept was developed by Bhabha who argued that it is the process by which the colonial governing authority undertook to translate the identity of the colonised, the Other (Bhabha cited in Meredith, 1998:2). Bhabha argued that a new hybrid identity or subject-position emerges from the interweaving of elements of the coloniser and colonised, thus challenging notions of “authenticity” which buttressed the African Nationalist’s discourses of returning to an intact and untainted indigenous culture from which they believe the colonised had been momentarily distracted (Cabral, 1974:60). Bhabha describes hybridity as a form of liminal or in-between space (between the coloniser and the colonised), which he terms the “third space”, a space where new forms of cultural meaning and production are negotiated (Bhabha cited in Rutherford, 1990:211) Thus Bhabha dismissed as dangerous the notion of “fixity” and “fetishism of identities” (Meredith, 1998:2), which is embodied in African

Nationalist discourses, and argues instead that “all forms of culture are continually in a process of hybridity” (Rutherford, 1990:211).

According to Ashcroft *et al.* (2006:137), whilst it was crucial for African Nationalists in the early stages of the struggle against colonialism to assert such myths of origin, in order to foster collective political resistance, these myths have proved problematic in the post-independent state in which national identities are much more hybrid than was originally understood. The assumption that pre-colonial African cultures were static is not borne by history.³⁵ History shows that African cultures have always been in flux and continue to be in the 21st century. Thus, Mngadi (cited in Botha, 2007a:206) warns that the process of Africanisation, which some journalism scholars have touted as an antidote against Western ideals and values should not be reduced to “a simple binarism: an insulated, consensual black Africa versus an equally insulated and consensual white Europe”.

This is in line with Gilroy’s (1993) argument in his book *The Black Atlantic* in which he argues that “hybridization” is not peculiar to the African continent. He cites the slave trade, colonialism and the Berlin Conference as historical experiences which resulted in the redefinition, both culturally and politically, not only of Europe and America, but of Africa as well. The Atlantic ocean during the slave trade was not only a conduit for the trade, but it was also a passage for cross-cultural exchanges. Appiah (1992:147-152), for example, argues that even though the English culture is perceived as Anglo-Saxon, it is in reality a hybrid of several cultures. He, therefore, concludes that all world cultures are syncretic by nature.

Morley (1994:151) concurs with this argument when he says “every culture has ingested foreign elements from exogenous sources with the various elements becoming ‘naturalized’ within it”. In fact, Massey (cited in Strelitz, 2004:627) notes that there is a “reverse invasion” seen through the “periphery” [read former colonies] infiltrating the “colonial core” [former coloniser]. This means that “mass culture” which is associated with the West is also heavily influenced by the cultures of the former colonies (Hall cited in Strelitz, 2004:627; Robertson, 1994:46). The “creolisation of cultures, therefore, is a global phenomenon which has been going on for centuries” (Martin, cited in Strelitz, 2004:626). One can, therefore, conclude that

³⁵ Kasfir (1999:93) quotes pre-colonial warrior masquerades which took place in South-Eastern Nigeria. At first the warriors who participated in these masquerades wore human skulls as masks, but with time, these changed into carved wooden imitations, showing that culture, also in pre-colonial times, was always evolving.

it is difficult, if not impossible, to draw a line between “Western” culture and “African” culture, as the two have influenced and counter-influenced each other.

In South Africa’s case, Martin (1999:66) describes how in the latter half of the 19th century, different races in Cape Town lived side by side:

Africans, coloureds, white colonialists and foreigners lived together, worked together, frequented taverns, canteens and hotels. During the nineteenth century and until the dawn of the twentieth century, intermarrying was not infrequent.

This, therefore, suggests that the identity of black people in South Africa is neither pristine nor can it be pinned to a specific historical epoch. According to Kasfir, (1999:93)

[t]here are innumerable before and afters in this history, and to select the eve of European colonialism as the unbridgeable chasm between traditional, authentic art and an aftermath polluted by foreign contact is arbitrary in the extreme.

This suggests that there is no authentic past or identity – and there never was.

Identity formation for any group of people is thus an ongoing process which is determined by the experiences that those people undergo. Achebe (cited in Appiah, 1992:173) affirms this when he says “...the African identity is still in the making. There isn’t a final identity that is African. But at the same time, there is an identity coming into existence...” Achebe’s observation underlines the fact that defining the African identity is complex as it cannot be pinned down to specific indicators.

However, it has to be acknowledged at this stage of the discussion that the concept of “hybridity”, has come under a lot of criticism within the field of post-colonial theory (Cawley, 2011:un). Some critics of the concept argue that the concept denies the traditions from which it springs and that it sets itself up as an absolute category to which all post-colonial forms inevitably subscribe to (Ashcroft *et al.*, 2006:138). Others criticise the concept for relying (for its existence) heavily on the existence of the non-hybrid or authentic, which they argue does not exist in reality or is a myth (Friedman cited in Frello, 2005:2). If the non-hybrid does not exist or has never existed, then it means the whole concept of hybridity is built on a faulty foundation.

Radhakrishnan (1993:775) also argues that the contact between a dominant and subordinate culture always results in a kind of hybrid culture which leans closer to the ideals and values of the dominant culture on the continuum of change. To illustrate this point, he asks a pertinent question:

Why is it more fashionable and/or acceptable to transgress Islam towards a secular constituency rather than the other way round? Why do Islamic forms of hybridity, such as women wearing veils and attending western schools [...] encounter resistance and ridicule?

Frello (2005:3) concurs with Radhakrishnan when she argues that the concept of hybridity in its endeavours to work in favour of the powerless and the excluded can mask unequal power relations. Ang (cited in Frello, 2005:4) cites the example of Australia where the discourse of multiculturalism, which has replaced the ideal of whiteness, has been used to deny and gloss over the history of racism against the aboriginal population. This would seem to suggest that the celebration of hybridity can be potentially as oppressing as the celebration of purity (Frello, 2005:4).

However, despite the criticisms levelled against it, Brathwaite (cited in Ashcroft *et al.*, 2006:138) argues that the “creole” is not “predicated upon the idea of the disappearance of independent cultural traditions, but rather on their continual and mutual development”. Ashcroft *et al.* (2006:138) add that the interweaving of practices will produce new forms even as older forms continue to exist.

To conclude this section on post-colonial theory, it is important to note that whilst the theory has been lauded for its usefulness in interrogating the long history of colonialism and the way it continues to manifest itself in the contemporary world in processes such as globalisation and the production of knowledge as well as the link between knowledge and power, the theory has come under a lot of criticism. The next section discusses these criticisms.

4.2.6 Criticisms of the post-colonial theory

Whilst post-colonial theory purports to be restoring the dignity of those whose voices have been silenced during the colonial era by unmasking the historical causes of inequalities in the contemporary world (Wasserman, 2007:10), the theory may itself mask and even perpetuate unequal economic and cultural relations (Ashcroft *et al.*, 2006:2). This is seen through the fact that the bulk of literary and cultural theories comes from metropolitan centres (Ashcroft

et al., 2006:2). This means that Western voices determine the kind of knowledge that is suitable/unsuitable for dissemination to the people. Rao (2003:8), for example, points out that one of the most prominent post-colonial and feminist thinkers, Spivak, situates her scholarship within metropolitan theories such as Marxism, French Feminism and Deconstruction. She rejects the possibility of an indigenous theory (Rao, 2003:10).

Closely related to this criticism is the argument that the post-colonial theory is the child of a “comprador intelligentsia: a relatively small, Western-trained group of writers and thinkers who mediate the trade in cultural commodities of world capitalism at the periphery” (Appiah, 1991:348). These scholars, who include, among others Spivak, Chakrabarty, Said, Bhabha, Appiah and Mazrui have been educated in “some of the most celebrated temples of learning in colonial and metropolitan countries” and are fluent in Western languages, humanities and social sciences (Sil, 2008:26, 27). Sil further argues that these scholars have constructed their theories on those of Western intellectuals from France, Germany, the UK and the US. This has prompted Gandhi (1998:175) to argue that the post-colonial theory “continues to be spoken through a Western lexicon and vocabulary”. Thus, Sil concludes that the post-colonial theory is a “product of the West, informed [...] by the wisdom of the West” (2008:27).

Post-colonial scholars who came up with the theory have also been accused of eliticism (Sil, 2008:27). They are accused of being condescending and elitist in their attitude by considering themselves as qualified enough to “voice the concerns and aspirations of the subalterns who are not ready yet to stand for themselves”. In Turkmen’s (2003:199) words, “When we talk about the rights of those who cannot speak, we indirectly inscribe another stereotype too”. Parry (2006:44-47), for example, lambasts Spivak for a “deliberate deafness to the native voice where it is to be heard” and for claiming that the subaltern cannot speak. She obliterates “the native’s subject position in the text of imperialism” and writes “out the evidence of native agency” (Parry, 2006: 45). Implied in Spivak’s denial of the subaltern woman’s voice is that intellectuals such as herself should speak for her (Turkmen, 2003:199).

Despite these limitations of the post-colonial theory, Dirlik (2005:565) argues that its power lies in its ability to repudiate all master narratives. Behdad (cited in Sil, 2008:29) argues that post-colonialism can offer a “historical corrective to the celebratory theories of globalisation” by exploring “the unequal geography of globalisation and its historical links with European colonialism and the process of decolonisation”. Wasserman (2007:7) concurs that the post-colonial theory provides us with a critical vocabulary needed to engage with epistemological

power imbalances, as well as incorporate cultural differences in a dynamic manner. He adds that the theory makes visible how present global relations are related to colonial power relations (Wasserman, 2007:8). This is vital in the interrogation of post-apartheid relations and how these relate to the colonial and apartheid power relations.

4.2.7 The relevance of the post-colonial theory to the study of the selected JE&T curricula

The post-colonial theory was deemed suitable for this study because South Africa is a country which is struggling to transform itself from a 350-year old construct of colonialism and apartheid into a democracy. According to Dirlik (2005:580), the post-colonial theory is useful in understanding the “replications in societies internally of inequalities and discrepancies once associated with colonial difference”. Gikandi (2005:612) also argues that “the post-colonial theory is ideal for pointing to the similarities between the contemporary situation and earlier marginalisation”. Meaningful transformation in South Africa can only be achieved if the legacies of oppression and marginalisation associated with colonialism and apartheid have been expunged from contemporary South African society.

This theory was, therefore, chosen to analyse the JE&T curricula of the selected tertiary institutions because it would enable the researcher to establish whether sixteen years after the dawn of democracy in 1994, the curricula had shed the colonial and apartheid legacies. The theory would enable the researcher to determine whether any significant transformation had taken place in the JE&T curricula of the selected tertiary institutions.

The developmental journalism model is discussed next.

4.3 Developmental journalism model

4.3.1 Defining developmental journalism

Before defining the concept “developmental journalism”, it is important to note that the concept is caught up in the historical evolution of the theory of development communication (Banda, 2006:1; Ogan, 1982:3-5). According to Banda, the fortunes (misfortunes) of the former are closely linked to those of the latter. For example, he argues that the “demonisation” of developmental journalism in the contemporary world stems from the fact that development communication went through phases where, firstly, the West imposed its culture and values on the “Third World” and, secondly, where the post-colonial state blatantly interfered with the development process for the benefit of the elites. As will be shown later in this discussion, these earlier conceptualisations of what “development” is,

came to be associated with the West's callous disregard of the values and ideals of non-Western cultures (Adams, 2006:171) and "the postcolonial state's blatant interference in the practice of journalism" (Wong cited in Banda, 2006:1). The negative perceptions people had of development communication, thus rubbed off on the concept of "developmental journalism".

It is, therefore, imperative that before giving the definition of developmental journalism as used in this study, the historical "moments" through which the concept of "development communication" passed be discussed as each one of these "moments" determined how developmental journalism was defined then. Some scholars (Adams, 2006:171-172; Banda, 2006:1) identify three of these historical moments as the modernisation paradigm, the dependency-dissociation paradigm, and emancipatory journalism. These paradigms are discussed next, starting with the modernisation paradigm.

4.3.2 The modernisation paradigm of development

Proponents of the modernisation paradigm argue that the problem of underdevelopment and "backwardness" could be solved by applying economic and political systems of the West on "Third World" countries (Servaes, 1996b:31). Under modernisation, communication was seen as a process of transmitting the message from the sender to the receiver and not the reverse. Lerner (cited in Adams, 2006:171), in a 1958 landmark study, theorised that the "Third World" could catch up with the West as a result of receiving information through the media. He argued that, through a process he called "empathy", people would project themselves into the programmes they watched and adapt their way of life to the models they were exposed to through the media. Through the media, people in the "Third World" would develop Western tastes and acquire Western values and ideals, and this, it was believed, would help them break out of the bonds of traditionalism and adopt modernising values and practices (Melkote, 1991:24-29).

Rogers (cited in Adams, 2006:171) extended the argument with his "diffusion of innovations" model in which he argued that social change is a two-step process, involving opinion leaders in the community whose adoption of innovation in society influences the wider population. The diffusion theory, according to Guaaybess (cited in Adams, 2006:171), argues that media is capable of spreading knowledge and innovations, encouraging social and political participation, as well as "compress[ing] time" for the "poor people" to catch up with

the “rich people” and, eventually, increasing the beneficial effects of development programmes.

Thus the modernisation theory advocated for a top-down, one-way flow of information approach to development. It could be argued that proponents of the modernisation paradigm subscribed to the strong media effects theories such as the Magic Bullet theory, the Hypodermic Needle theory and the Two-step theory, which assumed that the media penetrate people’s minds and conditions them to behave in whatever way the media want them to behave. A nation was, therefore, considered to be developing well if it closely followed the path of Western industrial nations in terms of its politics, economic behaviour and institutional attitudes towards technology and innovation (Banda, 2006:2; Melkote, 1991:38).

This development paradigm, however, had its weaknesses. For example, it negated the cultural institutions and values which existed within these societies. Adams (2006:171), for example, argues that there was a misfit between traditional societies and the model of industrial democracy that was being promoted. Modernisation also assumed that people were passive and mere “sitting ducks” to the machinations of those controlling the media. This perception was later disproved by theories such as the Uses and Gratifications theory which argued that audiences are active and often use the media in a highly selective and intentional way to satisfy fundamental needs (Adams, 2006:173).

The modernisation paradigm also assumed that failure to develop in the “Third World” countries was because of internal factors (Adams, 2006:171). However, there are some who blame the underdevelopment in the “Third World” not on lack of resources but on imperialism (Adams, 2006:171). Servaes (cited in Adams, 2006:171), for example, describes this dependency as “the conditioning situation in which the economies of one group of countries are conditioned by development and expansion of others”. Thus these scholars argue that for developing countries to develop, they needed to free themselves from their dependency on the West.

In the next section, the second historical moment of development communication, the dependency-dissociation paradigm, is discussed.

4.3.3 The dependency-dissociation paradigm of development

According to Banda (2006:2), the dependency-dissociation paradigm of development is associated with the aspirations of newly independent nations of the “Third World”, which sought political, economic and cultural self-determination and an ideological distancing from Western models of modernisation. Modern-day African nations, for example, were dissatisfied with the coverage of their nations in the Western media. They complained that the coverage was “cursory, colored by colonialist idioms and preoccupied with corruption, political turmoil and natural disaster” (The Word War of the Worlds, 1977:1).

Newly independent African countries believed strongly that the media had an important role of creating national unity and fostering development (Odhiambo, 1991:23). Odhiambo argues that journalists were expected to be patriotic. Thus, many African governments took over control of the media, an act which was considered by some as “an act of liberation and emancipation” (Odhiambo, 1991:24). Nkrumah, the first president of independent Ghana, for example, argued that a journalist should be a political activist and party member, and that:

his newspaper [should be] a collective organizer, a collective instrument of mobilization and a collective educator, a weapon first and foremost for the overthrow of colonialism and imperialism and to assist total African independence and unity. The true African journalist often works for the organ of the political party to which he himself belongs and in whose purpose he believes (Odhiambo, 1991:24).

For Nkrumah, therefore, “the truly African revolutionary press” should exist in order to “present and carry forward our revolutionary purpose” and “establish a progressive political and economic system upon our continent that will free men³⁶ from want and every form of justice” (Ainslie, 1966:19). Other African leaders, such as Kenneth Kaunda of Zambia and Julius Nyerere of Tanzania came up with philosophies such as “humanism” and “Ujamaa” (collective) respectively, to justify the state control of the media, in order to promote national and continental unity, encourage economic development and educate the people (Banda, 2006:3; Odhiambo, 1991:22). Jawaharlal Nehru of India also justified government control of the media when he said that in the developing world, states must be “armed with the authority to deal with dangerous language” and that states “cannot imperil the safety of the whole

³⁶ The researcher is of the view that in this context the term “men” is used to mean the human species, that is both women and men.

nation in the name of some fancied freedom which put an end to all freedom” (cited in Oloyede, 2005:107).

With the help of UNESCO, the “Third World” nations promulgated a New Information and Communication Order (NWICO), whose main objective was to rectify the situation and allow these countries more control of reports about themselves (Banda, 2006:3). The Pan-African News Agency (PANA) was, for example, created by the Organisation of African Unity (OAU) to “rectify the distorted image of Africa created by international news agencies and to let the voice of Africa be heard on the international news scene” (Bourgault, 1995:175).

However, like the modernisation paradigm, this definition of development communication had its shortcomings. The greater state control of the media, which was a consequence of this paradigm was open to abuse by some African leaders who used it to garner votes at election time and also to propagate state propaganda (Odhiambo, 1991:25). According to Odhiambo, national development became an:

[E]xcuse for suspending individual liberties, the expansion and entrenchment of state capitalism, and for the growth of unwieldy bureaucracies fraught with corruption, nepotism and every variety of patronage (1991:22).

Adams also notes that this paradigm also failed in the sense that it turned a blind eye to internal factors and concentrated on external factors of underdevelopment. Some of these internal factors include:

[T]he staggering proportions of graft, ineptitude, lack of accountability as well as the corruption, mismanagement, bribery, roguery and official stealing within the ruling bourgeoisie class (Ogbonnah cited in Oloyede, 2005:107).

Adams (2006:172) adds that the dependency-dissociation paradigm of development was no different from the modernisation paradigm in that it also followed the top-down process of development, which on the one hand assumed that people are passive and incapable of determining their own destiny, and, on the other, that government was the only expert in development issues. According to Freire (cited in Adams, 2006:172), “the mere transfer of knowledge by an authority source to a passive receiver does nothing to help promote growth in the latter as a human being, with an independent and critical conscience”.

The dissatisfaction with the dependency-dissociation paradigm led to the introduction of a third paradigm of development, the emancipatory journalism paradigm (Shah, 1996:144), also known as “the multiplicity or another development” paradigm (Banda, 2006:4). This paradigm is discussed next.

4.3.4 Emancipatory journalism

Emancipatory journalism puts people at the centre of development (Adams, 2006:172). This paradigm of development involves increasing the capacity of individuals and communities to manage their own affairs and resources (Woods cited in Adams, 2006:172). Woods adds that it empowers individuals and communities and allows them to express themselves freely on development issues. Servaes (1991:51) argues that a key component of emancipatory journalism is the notion of “participatory communication”, which stresses the value of democratisation and participation at all levels of society. Also central to participatory communication are the concepts of participation, cultural identity and empowerment (Servaes, 1996a:15).

In emancipatory journalism, people are involved in “decision-making, implementation and evaluation” (Adams, 2006:172). This model also taps onto Freire’s (1983:76) dialogical pedagogy which argues that true development means liberating the receiver from her/his mental inertia, in order to see through ideologies imposed on them by the elites. Freire insists that the other should be respected and given a voice to chart her/his own destiny. In his words: “this is not the privilege of some few men, but the right of every man³⁷. Consequently, no one can say a true word alone – nor can he say it for another”.

MacBride (cited in Servaes, 1996a:15) concurs when he says true participation involves an understanding of the diversity and plurality of views, as well as full respect for the dignity and equality of peoples living in different conditions and acting in different ways. This resonates with the argument of the Xavier Institute (cited in Servaes, 1996a:15) which says that “people are intelligent and have centuries of experience”. This experience should be drawn out to enable people to determine the kind of development they want. In participatory development communication, therefore, the receivers are liberated from their mental inertia and enabled to interrogate the worldview of the elites and to perceive the realities of their existence (Freire cited in Banda, 2006:4).

³⁷ The researcher is of the view that in this context the term “men” is used to mean the human species, that is both women and men.

In the next section developmental journalism as used in this study is defined.

4.3.5 What then is developmental journalism?

The definition of developmental journalism adopted in this study is closely linked to the participatory approach to development communication. Shah (1996:144) describes developmental journalism as emancipatory journalism because it empowers the people (even at grassroots levels) to participate actively in their development. Banda (2006:4) is also of the view that developmental journalism exists for the people and that its ultimate goal is to emancipate them (see Skjerdal, 2011:62).

Developmental journalism like participatory communication puts people at the centre of development and empowers them to actively contribute to their own development (Banda, 2006:5). Shah (1990:1035-36) adds that developmental journalism should assist people to evaluate and be more critical of government development plans and policies. He sums up developmental journalism as follows:

[It] should examine critically, evaluate and interpret the relevance of development plans, projects, policies, problems and issues. It should indicate the disparities between plans and actual accomplishments and include comparisons with how development is progressing in other countries and regions. It also should provide contextual and background information about the development process, discuss the impact of plans, projects, policies, problems and issues on people, and speculate about the future of development. And development news should refer to the need of people which may vary from country to country or from region to region, but generally include primary needs, such as food, housing, employment; secondary needs such as transportation, energy sources and electricity; and tertiary needs such as cultural diversity, recognition and dignity.

Sen (cited in Banda, 2006:6) adds to this list by arguing that developmental journalism should help people actualise the notion of freedom in their lives. In his view, a people's understanding of what freedom entails is an essential ingredient to development. This would involve a focus on freedoms such as freedom of expression, conscience, assembly and media, to mention but a few (Banda, 2006:6).

Banda (2006:11) further argues that developmental journalism is concerned with providing access to marginalised members of society. By enhancing the participation of all people in

society, one could conclude that developmental journalism stresses the value of democratisation and participation at all levels of society (Banda, 2006:4).

However, despite the fact that developmental journalism is acclaimed for treating people as citizens and not consumers and also for its commitment to democracy (Banda, 2006:4), this model has its shortcomings. The next section discusses these shortcomings.

4.3.6 Criticisms of the participatory developmental journalism model

Whilst participatory developmental journalism aims to assist people to evaluate and interpret government plans and policies of development, this would not be easy in communities where there is no tradition of free speech (Bessette, 2004:17). According to Bessette, in such environments where participation is not part of the community's culture, participation takes a long time and may lead to frustration for both journalists and communities that they are dealing with. This means that participation is not automatic and that it has to be learned by everyone. The environment should also be permissive of participatory approaches, including democracy and the right of the people to express themselves (Bessette, 2004:17).

Jennings (2000:2) also highlights the danger of taking non-participatory practices and embracing them under the banner of participation. He is supported by Bessette (2004:13) who argues that the concept of "participation" covers many "non-participatory" approaches. He argues, for example, that those facilitating the participation should guard against the danger of using participatory techniques in a context where they have already decided on the issue. For example, merely consulting or mobilising the people, without really making them contribute to the ideas cannot be classified as participatory (Bessette, 2004:13). Participatory development journalism, therefore, should go beyond merely consulting or mobilising the community on development issues, but it should give people power to make decisions about their own development.

For developmental journalists, it is also possible that the communities whose voices they are trying to magnify might not have the financial and material resources to enable them to participate in development activities (Bessette, 2004:12). Rural communities, for example, might not have the communication technologies which might enable them to participate actively in national debates on development. This could result in the unintended marginalisation and isolation of these audiences (Adams, 2006:180).

Besides, as Adams (2006:174), observes, audiences do not have complete control of the messages coming through to them over the media. The journalist still has to work within an environment where the producers, directors and editors make conscious decisions about what “reality” they want to disseminate to the people. In an ideal situation, participatory communication is “practiced spontaneously by the people without mediation” (Chin cited in Adams, 2006:172). However, because journalists work for media organisations, which have their own visions, it would be difficult for them to allow stories that they have not mediated to be published.

However, despite these limitations of the developmental journalism model, there is a general consensus that people participation in development endeavours is fundamental to sustainable development (Bessette, 2004:12). Besides, its emphasis on the active participation of people at all levels of society, make it an ideal model for South Africa, which, through its 1996 Constitution, committed itself to democratising its socio-political institutions and redressing the injustices of the past.

4.3.7 The relevance of the developmental journalism model to the study of selected JE&T curricula

The developmental journalism model was chosen as a framework for studying journalism curricula in the selected institutions because South Africa, as a developing nation, requires a type of journalism that would become an integral part to the country’s development programmes (Fourie, 1994:49-50). Through its democratic Constitution of 1996, South Africa committed itself to the democratisation of its socio-political institutions. Thus, Teer-Tomaselli and Tomaselli (2001:123) argue that for journalism to do that, it should play an important role in serving as a *site* and *instrument* of transformation by providing a platform on which the hitherto unheard voices of the marginalised people of South Africa could be amplified. Wasserman (2005:172) adds that “the imperative of social transformation remains incumbent upon journalists” and that to achieve that:

Journalism education has an important role to play in the process of transformation by educating journalists about how they are implicated in socio-political, cultural and economic networks.

It is, therefore, important that the JE&T curricula that produce South African journalists should prepare them for the task of playing their role in transforming the post-1994 South African society. The developmental journalism model would allow the researcher to establish

whether these curricula are committed to playing their transformative role by giving the formerly marginalised people a platform on which they can actively participate in the development of South Africa.

Ubuntu philosophy is discussed next.

4.4 Ubuntu philosophy

4.4.1 Defining Ubuntu philosophy

As discussed in the introduction, Ubuntu philosophy has featured prominently among African journalism scholars as a possible route to Africanising/de-Westernising JE&T curricula, in order to establish a “true African media” (Thloloe, 2008: 134; Botha & De Beer, 2007:201-202; Fourie, 2007a:8; Rabe, 2005:4). Several African scholars argue that Ubuntu is a unique African moral philosophy which transcends the cultural linguistic and ethnic diversity of African people (Christians, 2004:242; Higgs, 2003:14; Diop, 1962:7). Nussbaum (2003:1) describes Ubuntu as:

A social philosophy, a collective African consciousness, a way of being, a code of ethics and behaviour deeply embedded in African culture ... [with the] capacity ... to express compassion, reciprocity, dignity, harmony and humanity in the interest of building and maintaining a community with justice and mutual caring.

The term Ubuntu is derived from the Zulu and Xhosa maxim “umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu”, meaning that “a person is a person because of others” (Thloloe, 2008:134).³⁸ The maxim implies that an individual’s personhood can only be achieved within a communal context (Christians, 2004:241). Emeritus Archbishop Desmond Tutu says that “Africans have this thing called UBUNTU [...] the essence of being human [...]. When I dehumanize you I inexorably dehumanize myself” (Nabudere, 2008:50). An individual who upholds the philosophy of Ubuntu will, therefore, put the welfare of his society first (Letseka, 2000:182-183). Mbiti (1970:108) describes the individual’s relationship to society thus:

Whatever happens to the individual happens to the whole group, and whatever happens to the whole group happens to the individual. The individual can only say ‘I am, because we are; and since we are, therefore, I am’.

³⁸ The Sotho have a similar saying, namely “*motho kemotho kabatho*”, while the Shona in Zimbabwe say “*munhu (person) munhu nekuda kwevanhu*”.

Ubuntu, therefore, puts a lot of emphasis on community and collectivity (Fourie, 2007a:210). According to Fourie, Ubuntu moves beyond “an emphasis on the individual and individual rights” in sharp contrast to the “Western” liberal thought where the individual “exists [...] separately and independently from the rest of the community and society” (Louw, 1999:4). In Western society, the individual is viewed as a self-sufficient being who does not need society to define herself/himself. In such a society, those who boast that they are self-made are admired (Wanless, 2007:117). For that reason, the dominant values in Western liberalism are competitiveness and individualism (Beets & le Grange, 2005:1201). Individual interests take precedence over those of society.

On the contrary, the core values of Ubuntu are communalism, interdependence, humanness, caring, respect, sharing and compassion (Olinger, Britz & Olivier, 2007:8-10; Beets & Le Grange, 2005:1202). Having these qualities would ensure that the individual is committed to the advancement and development of his society. According to Fourie (2007b:9), in Ubuntu, a person is first and foremost a participatory being dependent on others for her/his development.

The emphasis on the collective which characterises Ubuntu is, however, different from the kind of collectivism which was upheld by communism or First World socialism in which the individual was swallowed (Fourie, 2007a:211). In Ubuntu, the individual is acknowledged as a “unique centre” of shared life (Blankenberg, 1999:43). Fourie (2007a:211) adds that the individual is not in the service of self, but in the service of others.

The respect for individual initiative within the group attests to the fact that Ubuntu respects a diversity of views in society. Ubuntu, according to Louw (1999:5-6), enhances the self-realisation of the other. It does not reduce the other to specific characteristics, conduct or function. In an environment where Ubuntu is the basis of society, racism and ethnocentrism would not thrive. In the South African context, for example, Louw (1999:4) argues that:

Ubuntu dictates that, if we are to be human, we need to recognize the genuine otherness of our fellow citizens [...] we need to acknowledge the diversity of languages, histories, values and customs, all of which constitute South African society.

Van der Merwe (cited in Louw, 1999:3) is also of the view that “to be human is to affirm one’s humanity by recognising the humanity of others in its infinite variety of content and

form”. Whilst Ubuntu philosophy has gained currency amongst African scholars as a possible normative framework for JE&T, many of these scholars have raised critical questions about its efficacy in this role. In the next section, the criticisms levelled against Ubuntu philosophy are discussed.

4.4.2 Criticisms of Ubuntu philosophy

Both Fourie (2008:112) and Christians (2004:242), however, challenge this notion when they point out that there are many entrenched examples of Ubuntu thought in Western and Eastern philosophies. Christians (2004:236-242), for example, argues that Ubuntu can be described as a combination and extension of European and North American communitarian philosophy and that it embraces the characteristics of political, feminist and dialogic communitarianism. Fourie (2008:112) adds that Ubuntu is similar to Western communitarianism and North American civic journalism. The former, just like Ubuntu, emphasises the “politics of the common good, social fairness and participation guided not by social contracts but by obligations”, while the latter puts emphasis on the close relationship between the media and community. Similarly, Blankenberg (1999:45) also sees an intersect between Ubuntu, developmental models and other media theories when he argues that the kind of journalism that is driven by the principles of Ubuntu would combine “elements of the development journalism, participatory communication and other media theories”. Thus, viewing Ubuntu philosophy as distinctly African, according to Fourie, can be problematic as there is an overlap between Ubuntu philosophy and some Western philosophies.

Another major criticism against Ubuntu philosophy is that “it is not codified in a set of fixed rules or principles” but rather that it is understood as a “lived expression of an instinctive moral attitude and a predisposition towards seeing and experiencing the self, others, life and the world in a communitarian way” (Fourie, 2008:113). According to Fourie, normative theory is usually based on a framework of ethical values derived from a religious doctrine and/or a political/ideological philosophy, but this is not the case with Ubuntu.

What further complicates the possibility of Ubuntu as a possible normative framework is that African culture is always evolving. This means that the traditional values and traditional cultures advocated for by Ubuntu philosophy may not exist in their pure form in the contemporary world (Fourie, 2008:113). Traditional African cultures have, over the years, interacted with other cultures such as Christianity and Islam (Fourie, 2008:113). European colonialism also introduced new moral and cultural values, all of which have eroded

traditional African culture (Fourie, 2008:113). In the 21st century, African nations are exposed to global cultures, meaning that traditional cultures and communities have now almost disappeared and that traditional values may be unfamiliar to the experiences of the Africans in the 21st century. What this means is that in considering Ubuntu as a possible normative framework, journalism educators and trainers have to guard against regressing into essentialism and nativism.

Louw (2001:5) also notes that Ubuntu has a potentially darker side to it. He points out that the desire for consensus in society can lead to the victimisation and marginalisation of those whose voices are dissenting. Sono (1994:7) says the desire to enforce group solidarity can be “overwhelming, totalistic, even totalitarian”. Ubuntu, therefore, according to Louw and Sono, has the potential to demand conformity within the group and punish those who fail to do so. Mbigi and Maree (1995:58) add that Ubuntu philosophy can easily lapse into intolerance of any oppositional opinions or deeds, which include an intolerance of media criticism and exposure.

For this reason, Fourie (2008:114) also observes that like any moral philosophy, Ubuntu is prone to political misuse. Phiri (cited in Fourie, 2008:114) argues that emphasis on traditional values has led African leaders to constrain foreign influences and ideas through various means, such as nationalisation and tight control of the media. Popper (cited in Fourie, 2008:114) also warns that moral philosophies can lead to the establishment of a closed society with rigid institutions, rigid social customs, irrational attitudes towards social life, no room for criticism and no room for individuals to take personal responsibility for their lives. Sidane (cited in Nolte-Schamm, 2006:378) concurs when she says Ubuntu can be abused by those of a higher rank and status in society.

Ubuntu has also been dismissed as a post-colonial “Utopia” invention or a philosophy crafted by the African elite to hoodwink the suffering masses in the age of globalisation (Nabudere, 2008:1). Wilson (cited in Krog, 2008:354), describes Ubuntu as “the Africanist wrapping used to sell a reconciliatory version of human rights talk to Black South Africans”.

Louw (1999:3), however, argues that Ubuntu does not require “universal sameness or oppressive communalism”. Instead, it requires an honest appreciation of differences amongst people and an honest respect for human, individual and minority rights. Any attempt to enforce group decisions is seen as a derailment and abuse of Ubuntu and African culture

(Louw, 1999:5). Wasserman (2007:13) also challenges the argument which views Ubuntu as still entrenched in traditional ideals and values. He argues that like any culture, Ubuntu is dynamic and has evolved over the years to suit the society of the time.

4.4.3 The relevance of the Ubuntu philosophy to the study of selected JE&T curricula

The choice of Ubuntu philosophy as a theoretical framework of this study was partly motivated by the fact that many African journalism scholars argue that, because of it being uniquely African, it should be explored as a possible normative framework for African JE&T curricula, in order to displace the Western epistemologies on which most African JE&T curricula are rooted (Botha & De Beer, 2007:201-202; Fourie, 2007a:210; Wasserman, 2007:12; Fourie, 2005:154; Moge kwu, 2005:15-16; Rabe, 2005:4). It was also motivated by the fact that in 1994, South Africa adopted a democratic dispensation whose agenda is to give the once marginalised and disadvantaged people a voice in the decision-making processes of the country.

Ubuntu, therefore, was deemed appropriate for this study because of the emphasis it puts on community participation (Fourie, 2008:109), which is a key element in the democratisation process (see Servaes, 1991:51). Christians (2004:248-249) is of the view that Ubuntu will promote a kind of journalism which will go beyond giving people information, but will also foster participation at grassroots levels and strengthen democratic processes and institutions. This is the kind of journalism South Africa as a country needs since through its democratic constitution it pledged to “lay the foundations for a democratic and open society in which government is based on the will of the people” (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996:1243). This theoretical framework is, therefore, ideal for this study because it would enable the researcher to ascertain whether the JE&T curricula in the selected tertiary institutions are geared towards producing journalists who will engage people on key national issues so that they can play their role in the democratisation process.

4.5 Summary of the chapter

This chapter defined and discussed the three theoretical frameworks chosen for this study, namely the post-colonial theory, which encompassed aspects of the post-colonial feminist theory; the developmental journalism model; and Ubuntu philosophy. The strengths and weaknesses of these theoretical frameworks were discussed and the researcher also justified why each paradigm was chosen for the study. The next chapter discusses the research methodology used in this study.

Chapter 5: Research Methodology

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the research methodology used to address the research problem is discussed and justified. To select an appropriate research methodology, the researcher was guided by her research objectives and questions which sought to establish whether the journalism curricula of selected tertiary institutions address the challenges of a transforming post-1994 South Africa. The chapter, therefore, states the aim and the research questions which guided this study. Other key aspects that are discussed in the chapter are the research design, the sample and sampling procedures, the methods used to collect data, the data analysis procedures, as well as ethical considerations. The strengths and weaknesses of each specific approach chosen in the methodology are also discussed.

5.2 Aim of the study

The aim of this study is to establish whether JE&T curricula in the three selected tertiary institutions address challenges in a transforming post-1994 South Africa. In order to realise this aim, the study was guided by the following central research question:

Do the selected JE&T curricula in the three selected tertiary institutions address challenges in a transforming South Africa?

5.3 Sub-questions

The following sub-questions are addressed:

1. What are the epistemological and theoretical underpinnings of journalism curricula in the selected tertiary institutions?
2. What role does the media industry play in shaping the JE&T curricula of the selected tertiary institutions?
3. What is the perception of journalism educators and trainers in the selected tertiary institutions towards the transformation of JE&T curricula in their institutions?
4. Do the selected journalism programmes in the selected tertiary institutions take cognisance of the diverse nature of the South African society (that is, what are the demographics of the student cohort and faculty in these programmes)?

5.4 The research design

The research design is a vital aspect of the research process. Mouton (1996:107) describes it as a pre-condition for any study. Babbie (2007:107) also notes that the research design is formulated before the actual research process begins. Hofstee (2006:108) argues, for

example, that the phrase “research design” can have two meanings, namely, “the way you choose to design your study, that is, how you went about coming to a conclusion about your thesis” or “the general technique/s themselves, for example, interviews, a case study, content analysis or an experiment”. Rubin and Babbie (cited in Fouche & De Vos, 2005:133) concur with Hofstee when they define the research design as the overall plan for conducting the whole research process and those “compact formulas ... given names such as case study, survey, classic experiment”. In this study, the research design refers to the latter definition of the term. In the next section, the researcher will present the research design used in this study.

5.4.1 Collective case study

For purposes of this study, a collective case study, also known as the “multiple instrumental case study” (Mark, 1996:219) was utilised to address the central research question. Babbie (2010:311) refers to this kind of case study, where more than one case is studied in depth, as a comparative case study. For purposes of uniformity, the term “collective case study” will be used throughout the study.

According to Babbie (2010:309), there is no consensus on what constitutes a “case”. However, the term is used broadly to refer to a programme, an event, an activity, a process or one or more individuals (Creswell, 2003:15). Both Creswell (2003:15) and Henning (2004:32) argue that the case is bounded by parameters such as time and activity. In this study, three cases, namely the PGDip (RU), the BPhil (SU) and the BTech (TUT) journalism programmes were selected for the study. To ensure that the “bounded system” criterion was met, only data pertaining to the 2010 academic year was gathered. This meant studying the 2010 programme documents, interviewing the 2010 programme coordinators of these programmes and sampling the 2010 students enrolled in these programmes.

The collective case study was found to be suitable because the study had three cases to focus on. Moreover, as observed by Du Plooy (1995:122), a collective case study provides an insight into an issue or theme. The researcher did not choose other types of case studies because of their limitations. For example, the intrinsic case study was not chosen because it focuses on one unusual/unique case or phenomenon (Mark, 1996:219) and would, therefore, not have been suitable for a study with three cases. Similarly, an instrumental case study was not considered, as, according to Mark, it only provides insight into one issue or theme. By using the collective case study design, the researcher anticipated not only to gain an in-depth

knowledge of the journalism programmes of these selected tertiary institutions, but also to compare them so as to determine whether transformation is reflected in their curricula.

The researcher chose the collective case study design cognisant of the fact that like every other design, it has its strengths and weaknesses. One major advantage of the collective case study design is that while it attempts to address the issue in question, it adds to the literature base which would help us better conceptualise a theory (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006:33). Collective case studies also often generate hypotheses that can be more rigorously tested by other research methods (Babbie, 2010:309; Lindegger, 2006:461; Du Plooy, 2002:162). As pointed out in chapter 1 of this study, most of the studies done so far have focused on journalism practice in the media industry rather than on journalism curricula in South Africa,³⁹ meaning that JE&T is under-researched (De Beer & Steyn, 2002:14). There is, therefore, need to generate hypotheses which other researchers can pursue. Whilst the main goal of this study is to establish whether the challenges of a transforming society are reflected in the curricula of the three selected tertiary journalism programmes, it also hopes to generate interest amongst journalism educators and trainers to look critically at the journalism curricula offered in their schools/departments.

Another key strength of the collective case study is its use of multiple-sources and techniques of collecting data. This convergence of several sources within this design, according to Du Plooy (1995:122), improves the validity of the findings as the methods used will compensate for each other's weaknesses and fill the gaps left by another. Babbie (2010:311) also argues that the risk of coming up with findings which are not generalisable is reduced when more than one case is studied.

A major limitation of the collective case study, however, is that the cases studied might be too small to represent a wider population. Thus in comparing the institutions, the researcher was mindful of the fact that the selected programmes were of varying sizes, ranging from 20 enrolled students in the PGDip programme, 26 in the BPhil programme, to 60 in the BTech programme. However, because these cases were "culturally defined group[s]", "there is relatively little need to be concerned about the equivalence of units" being examined (Neuman, 1994:390). The aim of the study was not to generalise the findings, but to identify factors that are constant or vary among the three cases (Neuman, 1994:390). The cases were, therefore, chosen for an in-depth rather than broad understanding of the topic being studied.

³⁹ Refer to chapter 1 [1.3], of this study for examples of studies done so far.

While the researcher is mindful of the weaknesses of the design, she is also of the view that the information generated from the study will be valuable not only to the three selected journalism tertiary institutions, but also for other South African journalism tertiary institutions, as well as for future research in the area of journalism curricula.

5.4.2 Mixed methods approach

The overarching approach used to address the research problem is the mixed methods approach. The mixed methods approach utilises both quantitative and qualitative data sources of information in a single study so as to enable the researcher to understand the research problem more completely (Creswell, 2003:15). According to Ivankova *et al.* (2007:262), in this approach, the researcher collects both numeric information and text information.

The mixed method approach was chosen because of the use of the collective case study design in this study. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:282) “using multiple sources is important in case studies of all kinds”. Du Plooy (1995:122) also concurs that the success of any case study lies in the use of multiple data sources to examine the phenomenon. According to Creswell (2003:17), the mixed method approach uses both pre-determined and emerging methods, both open-ended and closed-ended questions, as well as multiple sources of data. The ultimate aim of the mixed method approach is to gather both qualitative and quantitative data to study the phenomenon.

The mixed method approach can be traced back to Campbell and Fiske’s “multimethod matrix”, which called for the use of multiple methods to study the validity of psychological traits (Creswell, 2003:15). The call to mix methods, according to Creswell (2003:15), arose from the realisation that all methods have limitations. Thus he argues that the strength of a mixed methods approach lies in the fact that the “biases inherent in any single method could neutralize or cancel the biases of other methods”. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:15) concur with this argument when they point out that the goal of the mixed methods approach is “not to replace either of these approaches but rather to draw from the strengths and minimize the weakness of both in single research and across studies”.

The term “mixed” suggests that the data or the findings are integrated or connected at some or several points within the study (Ivankova *et al.*, 2007:264). Creswell (2003:16) notes that the mixing takes place either to elaborate an understanding from one method to another, or to confirm findings from different data sources. In the former, the study is done sequentially, with the researcher starting off with either the qualitative or quantitative method and then

using the findings to carry out another study, this time using the method they did not use in the first place. In the latter, the researcher collects both qualitative and quantitative data at the same time and then integrates them during the data analysis stage. It is the latter approach that the researcher used in this study.

In this study, the multiple sources used to collect data were programme documents from the selected journalism tertiary institutions, a semi-structured questionnaire and a structured questionnaire. These multiple sources of data are discussed next.

5.4.2.1 Programme documents (Addendums 1, 2.1 and 2.3)

The study of documents is often neglected in the collection of qualitative research (Strydom & Delport, 2005:314; Henning, 2004:99). Yet, according to these scholars, documents are valuable sources of information. Documents can be classified as either primary or secondary (Neuman cited in Strydom & Delport, 2005:315), or personal or official (Arkava & Lane, 1983:188-190), or private and public (Creswell, 2003:188). Strydom and Delport (2005:315-317) synthesise these classifications and classify documents as personal, official, mass media and archival.

In this study, programme documents for the PGDip programme (RU), BPhil (SU) and BTech (TUT) were sourced from the programme coordinators of these programmes. These documents included course outlines and visions and/or mission statements of these departments. Going by Strydom and Delport's (2005:319) classification of documents, curriculum documents would fall under the category "official documents". Official documents, according to Bailey (1994:294), are documents which are compiled and maintained on a continuous basis by large organisations, such as government institutions. Documents which fall under this category include minutes and agendas of meetings, inter-office memos, financial records, statistical reports, annual reports and process records (Strydom & Delport, 2005:317). Official documents can be used to study, among others, the culture of an organisation and its objectives (Baxter & Babbie, 2004:350). Thus, the programme documents sourced for this study can be classified as official documents because they were processed, not for personal reasons, but to further the selected tertiary institutions' cultures and objectives.

To analyse the programme documents, qualitative content analysis methodology was used. Qualitative content analysis, according to Hsieh and Shannon (2005:1278), is "a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic

classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns”. Mayring (2000:2) defines qualitative content analysis as:

[A]n approach of empirical, methodological controlled analysis of texts within their context of communication, following content analytic rules and step by step models, without rash quantification.

Patton (2002:453) adds to the definition by defining qualitative content analysis as “any qualitative data reduction and sense-making effort that takes a volume of qualitative material and attempts to identify core consistencies and meanings”. According to Zhang and Wildemuth (ud:1), qualitative content analysis goes beyond merely counting words or extracting objective content from texts to examine meanings, themes and patterns that may be manifest or latent in a particular text. They add that it allows researchers to understand social reality in a subjective but scientific manner.

Qualitative content analysis differs from quantitative content analysis in that the former approach involves “no physical counting of data” but tends to be “more critical in nature and can be used when we need to penetrate the deeper layers of a message”, while the latter “involves some form of counting, and applies the scientific method rigorously” (Wigston, 2009:4).

To carry out the qualitative content analysis, the programme document data were initially coded. Coding means reading one’s data and developing a set of categories, themes and basic organising ideas (Ryan, 2006:98). Wigston (2009:19) defines coding as “the process of transforming raw data into a form suitable for analysis”. Punch (1998:204) points out that this process involves “putting tags, names or labels against pieces of the data”. Punch further observes that the process of assigning tags or labels is to attach meaning to these pieces of data so that the researcher may index and summarise the data by pulling together themes and identifying patterns (Punch, 1998:204–205).

For the programme documents, the researcher did open coding, which Corbin (cited in Babbie, 2010:401) describes as the breaking down of data into discrete parts and closely examining and comparing them for similarities. Those ideas which were similar in nature or related in meaning were grouped under more abstract concepts called categories (Corbin cited in Babbie, 2010:401).

In the coding phase of the analysis, three broad categories relevant to the research questions was identified, namely, content and activities done in the classroom and activities done outside the classroom and textbooks used. These categories were further sub-categorised as shown in the table below:

Table 5.1: Categories and sub-categories emerging from the programme documents

Categories	Sub-categories
Content and activities done in the classroom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Theory of journalism practice b. Critical theory c. Practice within the classroom
Content and activities done outside the classroom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Experiential learning/internships b. Compiling actuality programmes for community radio stations c. Producing multi-media clips for the media industry d. Producing departmental newspapers e. Attending seminars and guest lecturers
Textbooks used	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Prescribed textbooks: African/South African published b. Prescribed textbooks: Western published c. Recommended textbooks: African/South African published d. Recommended: Western published

The presentation of the findings of the programme documents was done in the order in which the categories are listed above.

The researcher chose qualitative content analysis cognisant of its strengths and weaknesses. One of the major strengths of qualitative content analysis is its “unobtrusive and non-reactive nature” (Wigston, 2009:33). Unlike people who act differently when they know that they are being observed, content from documents such as the programme documents studied in this study, allows the researcher to study the phenomenon without any effect from the content (Wigston, 2009:33). Writers of documents do not write their documents anticipating that they will be analysed in future. Therefore, the data from documents is more authentic than that derived from human subjects who might behave artificially in the presence of a researcher and who might also provide information that they think the researcher wants, not what they

really believe in (Strydom & Delpont, 2005:318). Qualitative content analysis is also cost effective compared to other data collection methods and it can cope with large volumes of data (Wigston, 2009:33; Strydom & Delpont, 2005:318).

The limitations of qualitative content analysis are that the method is limited to examining data that has been recorded in some or other retrievable format (Wigston, 2009:34). Besides, some documents might not have all the details that the researcher wants to analyse. For example, instead of getting detailed course outlines, which show a breakdown of the topics being taught as well as the recommended reading lists, some tertiary institutions selected for this study provided programme documents which simply stated the title of the module being taught without really specifying the topics in that module or the prescribed or recommended books. Another problem that the researcher encountered was that the documents were not of standard format. This, according to Strydom and Delpont (2005:319), makes comparing these documents difficult, if not impossible. Bauer (2000:148) also adds that it is easy to misunderstand citations made out of context, as is the case with qualitative content analysis. The researcher avoided these weaknesses by using multi-sources of data to study the selected programmes. This gave context to the researcher's interpretations and dealt with misunderstandings that might have arisen from just using one data source to gather information.

5.4.2.2 Semi-structured questionnaire for programme coordinators (Addendum 2.3)

Initially, the researcher had planned to carry out face to face semi-structured interviews with the programme coordinators. The semi-structured interview would have been ideal for this study because it would have ensured that the respondents answered a set of pre-determined questions, while allowing the researcher to probe and clarify answers (Nieuwenhuis, 2007:87). The semi-structured interview would also have been appropriate because the interview process "defines the line of inquiry" (Nieuwenhuis, 2007:87). This means that as the participants respond to the questions posed by the researcher, new emerging lines of inquiry that are directly related to the phenomenon being studied could emerge and the researcher could explore and probe these as well (Nieuwenhuis, 2007:87). However, owing to several constraints such as the difficulty of securing appointments with the coordinators, as well as travel costs, a decision was made to send them a semi-structured questionnaire with twenty open-ended questions to enable the respondents to "write a free response in their own terms, to explain and qualify their responses" (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000:248). This

fulfilled the researcher's goal of obtaining qualitative information on the journalism programmes being studied.

Compared to the other types of questionnaires, namely unstructured and structured, the semi-structured questionnaire was preferred because "it sets the agenda, but does not presuppose the nature of the response" (Cohen *et al.*, 2000:248). Unlike the unstructured questionnaire which is "akin to an open invitation to write what one wants", the semi-structured questionnaire has a clear structure, sequence and focus (Cohen *et al.*, 2000:248). The semi-structured questionnaire also differs from the structured questionnaire in that in the former the format is open-ended and generates qualitative data, while in the latter it is largely numerical.

The open-ended nature of the semi-structured questionnaire allowed the respondents to provide their own answers (Babbie, 2010:256). A common problem, however, with open-ended questionnaires, is that "people differ in their ability and willingness to write answers" and they also might give answers which are too difficult to interpret (Hofstee, 2006:133). This problem was evident in some of the responses given by the programme coordinators. Some answers were either too difficult to interpret or too short to give the in-depth qualitative information that the researcher sought. The researcher had anticipated this problem and addressed it by sending the semi-structured questionnaires with a proviso to clarify issues either telephonically or by email if the researcher needed clarification on some of the programme coordinators' responses. The researcher used this proviso to later seek clarification for some of the answers given which were either too short or too difficult to interpret. Another weakness is that allowing the respondents to express themselves freely in a semi-structured questionnaire might result in irrelevant information which is not necessary to the study (Babbie, 2010:256).

As was the case with the programme documents, qualitative content analysis was used to analyse the data obtained from the semi-structured questionnaires. The data was coded according to a number of themes that corresponded with the research questions and through the coding process five broad categories were identified, namely:

- What the programmes consisted of;
- Relationship between the departments and the media industry;

- The views of the programme coordinators towards transformation of JE&T curricula in their institutions;
- Issues of diversity; and
- Transformational challenges faced by the departments.

The researcher then grouped related ideas under each category as illustrated in Table 5.1 below.

Table 5.2: Categories and sub-categories emerging from the semi-structured questionnaires

Categories	Sub-categories
What the programmes consisted of	a. Activities and content taught in the classroom b. Activities and content taught outside the classroom.
Relationship between the departments and media industry	a. The media industry's contribution to the departments b. The influence of the media industry on the programmes.
The programme coordinators' views on transformation of JE&T curricula	a. Views towards Africanisation of the programmes b. Views towards Developmental journalism as a possible normative framework c. Views towards <i>Ubuntu</i> as a possible normative framework
Issues of diversity in the selected programmes	a. Demographics of students in the programmes in terms of gender and race b. Demographics of lecturing staff in terms of gender and race c. The issue of indigenous languages in the programmes.
Transformational challenges faced by the departments	a. Educational and professional backgrounds of the lecturing staff; b. Students' attitudes towards alternative approaches and indigenous languages; c. Absence of literature by African scholars; d. Lack of support from government, the university and media industry; e. Media industry demands on selected departments; and f. Poor pre-tertiary South African education system.

5.4.2.3 Structured questionnaire for students (Addendum 2.4)

The third source of data used in this study was the structured questionnaire which was sent to students in the selected programmes. This questionnaire was emailed to the students just before they completed their programmes towards the end of the second semester in the case of RU and SU students and after the completion of their programme for TUT students. Sending the questionnaire to students towards the end of their studies or after completing

their studies was a vital requirement of the study because the students had been exposed to the full academic year of their curricula and could, therefore, give informed responses to the questions asked.

Questions in a structured questionnaire are closed and contain closed items or questions with pre-determined multiple-choice or yes/no responses which always yield quantitative data (Ivankova *et al.*, 2007:258; Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000:118). Bell (cited in Maree & Pietersen, 2007:161) identifies six types of closed questions, namely, list, ranking, category, quantity, grid, and scale. Maree and Pietersen (2007:161-167) explain these different types of questions as follows:

- List questions: These include dichotomous questions, that is those questions where there are only two possible answers or multiple-choice questions which have three or more response categories;
- Ranking questions: These are used where the researcher wants to explore how respondents rank certain issues in terms of their importance or preference;
- Category questions: These require respondents to choose only one of a set of categories. Biographical questions fall under this type of question.
- Quantity questions: These require respondents to provide some detail, such as their Maths grade at the end of a particular level;
- Grid questions: These are also known as table questions. They require students to provide responses to two or more questions simultaneously; and
- Scale questions: these are used to measure how respondents feel or think about something by using scales. These responses are intended to help researchers discover strength, feeling or attitude. A commonly used scale is the Likert scale.

In the structured questionnaire used in this study, the researcher used a variety of questions. Question 1 to 5 were biographical questions which sought to obtain information such as the respondent's sex, race, age, institution and the degree programme they were studying. Biographical questions are important because they enable the researcher to build a profile of the sample (Maree & Pietersen, 2007:164). In this study, the biographical details enabled the researcher to explore possible relationships between biographical variables such as race and

English grade obtained at Matric, race and institution, gender and institution as well as gender and race (Maree & Pietersen, 2007:164). Question 6 was a quantity question as it requested the respondents to indicate the English grade they obtained in their Matric. This question sought to establish their English language proficiency at the time they were admitted to the programmes they were studying. Question 7, 8 and 9 were all Likert scale questions, which had among them a total of sixty-seven Likert scale items.

The Likert scale, according to some scholars (Maree & Pietersen, 2007:167; Du Plooy, 2002:141) is the most widely used scale to measure the degree to which respondents feel about something. Bell (cited in Maree & Pietersen, 2007:167) argues that the scales are intended to help researchers discover strength of feeling or attitude about the phenomenon amongst the respondents. The most common use of the Likert scale is to ask the respondents to say the extent to which they agree or disagree with a statement (Maree & Pietersen, 2007:167; Du Plooy, 2002:137). Four to seven respondent categories are often used to measure the intensity of the respondents' response (Maree & Pietersen, 2007:167). In this study, the researcher used four categories, namely Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree and Strongly Disagree for questions 7, 9 and 10. Question 8 used a different measure, namely, Completely Satisfied, Satisfied, Dissatisfied and Completely Dissatisfied.

The Likert scale questions were arranged in a logical manner so that those which belong together were put together (Du Plooy, 2002:141). The items under question 7, for example, focused mostly on the content of the curriculum, while those in question 8 sought to measure the respondents' satisfaction with their programmes. Question 9 sought to establish the respondents' strength of feeling about whether their programmes had a balance of theory and practice or whether it was skewed towards the former or the latter. The question also sought to ascertain the place of publication of the prescribed and recommended books used in the three programmes. Question 10 sought to determine the theoretical/philosophical underpinnings of the programmes. This enabled the researcher to see issues in a holistic manner.

In choosing the closed-ended questions to solicit the students' responses to the phenomenon, the researcher was mindful of the strengths and weaknesses of these questions. One reason why the researcher used closed-ended questions was their ability to provide greater uniformity of responses, as well as the fact that they are more easily processed than open-ended ones (Babbie, 2010:256; Maree & Pietersen, 2007:164). The researcher was also

mindful of the fact that the students would be preparing for examinations at the time data was to be collected. There was, therefore, need to design a questionnaire that would be convenient and easy to complete, but at the same time provide the researcher with relevant information.

According to Hofstee (2006:133), making the questionnaire convenient and easy to complete would improve the response rate. For this study, a response rate of 59.4% was realised, and according to Rubin and Babbie (1993:340), a response rate of 50% is usually considered adequate and 60%, good. Maree and Pietersen (2007:164) add that closed-ended questions make it possible for sensitive questions to be answered. The questionnaire also ensures objectivity and reliability of gathered data, thus eliminating or minimising subjectivity of judgment (Matveev, 2002:un).

However, a major weakness of the closed-ended questions is that they limit the respondent to the options given by the researcher. The answer the respondent wants to give may not be one of the options given (Maree & Pietersen, 2007:164). Du Plooy (2002:139) concurs when he argues that possible answers are limited to the number of categories included as options. There is a very high possibility that the researchers' structuring of responses may overlook some important or possible responses (Babbie, 2010:256). Thus, one of the major difficulties of drafting closed-ended questions is ensuring that the options given to the respondents are exhaustive.

The closed-ended question also limits the possible information that the researcher might get from the respondents because they do not allow the researcher to probe (Neuman, 1994:233). The closed-ended questions may also suggest ideas that the respondent would otherwise not have thought of (Maree & Pietersen, 2007:164; Neuman, 1994:233). This could be described as putting ideas in the respondents' minds. Besides, the respondents can easily answer such questions even if they have no opinion or knowledge of the phenomenon being studied (Maree & Pietersen, 2007:164; Neuman, 1994:233).

Basically, one can conclude that in a structured questionnaire, the respondents are being channelled to view the phenomenon from the researcher's point of view. They are not given an opportunity to express their own perspective of the problem being studied. Respondents are forced to make choices they would not make in the real world (Neuman, 1994:233).

The quantitative data obtained from the students' structured questionnaire was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18. Before entering the data, it was

first coded to turn it into “machine readable form” (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:412). In quantitative data analysis, data coding involves giving numerical values to non-numerical responses so as to enable the computer to read them (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:412). For example, the variables female and male were given the values 1 and 2 respectively. The Likert scale categories were given the following values:

- Strongly Agree = 4
- Agree = 3
- Disagree = 2
- Strongly Disagree = 1.

After coding the data, the researcher then arranged the questionnaires per institution and then numbered them. The questionnaires were assigned numbers such as RU1, RU2 up to RU16 for RU. Similar numbering was done for the other tertiary institutions, with the number for those from SU and TUT being preceded by SU and TUT respectively. This was a vital pre-analysis activity which was meant to avoid mixing up the questionnaires or even capturing data from the same questionnaire twice. A total of 63 out of a possible 106 questionnaires were coded.

For data management, the raw data was first entered into Microsoft Office (MS) Excel. MS Excel was ideal for this stage of the process because it enabled the researcher to check for data entry errors. Once the researcher had eliminated errors from the entries, the data was then exported to the SPSS for purposes of analysis. SPSS was preferred by the researcher over other statistical packages because it is user-friendly. The researcher could command it to compare variables and represent the information in tables and graphs for easy analysis. Information generated through this software could also be easily exported to MS Word at the touch of a button. This was ideal for the researcher’s circumstances because she was able to transmit the data to her supervisor via email.

Through SPSS, the researcher was able to generate frequencies and percentages, as well as graphs and tables. Cross-tabulations, that is analysing the relationships of variables to each other, were also done. The tables and graphs generated through SPSS were used to analyse the data and describe the phenomenon. Through the students’ responses, the researcher was able to measure their strength of feeling about the different items asked on the questionnaire, as well as corroborate the findings from the other data sources.

The use of these three methods to collect data is referred to as triangulation (Denzin cited in Babbie & Mouton, 2001:275). Triangulation is briefly discussed below.

5.4.3 Triangulation

Du Plooy (2002:39) identifies four different types of triangulation, as follows:

- Use of two or more methods to collect data;
- The collection of data using different types of sampling;
- The analysis of the same data from two or more theoretical and conceptual perspectives (theory triangulation); and
- Conducting observations or analysing data using more than one investigator (investigator triangulation).

In this study, two types of triangulation were used, namely, methods triangulation and theory triangulation. The former was achieved by using three different data collection instruments, namely, programme documents for selected programmes, semi-structured questionnaires for programme coordinators and the structured questionnaire for students. The latter was realised through analysing the same data from three different perspectives, namely the post-colonial theory, the developmental journalism model, as well as Ubuntu philosophy.

This triangulation of the three methods, as well as the three theoretical perspectives used to analyse the data, ensured that “personal biases that stem from single methodologies” or from a single perspective were avoided and the reliability and validity of observations, analyses and findings increased (Du Plooy, 2002:40; Denzin cited in Babbie & Mouton, 2001:275). The underlying assumption of a multi-method approach is that “because various methods complement each other, their respective shortcomings can be balanced out”. Thus, using different methods to collect data in a single project enabled the researcher to compensate for the limitations of each (Strydom & Delpont, 2005:314; Mouton, 1996:157). The gap left by another method is, therefore, filled in by another, thus giving the researcher a fuller, more comprehensive and reliable picture of the phenomenon being studied. As already discussed above, some of the programme documents had gaps of information which needed to be filled. These were filled by the data from the programme coordinators and the students. Similarly, gaps of information in the students’ structured questionnaire were compensated for by data from the programme documents and the semi-structured questionnaire for programme coordinators.

Thus, as stated by Denzin (cited in Babbie & Mouton, 2001:275) and McMillan and Schumacher (2001:428, 429), triangulation of data sources proved to be the best way to enhance the validity and reliability of data obtained in this study. However, the researcher also ensured the validity and reliability of the data obtained by doing a pilot study of the research instruments. In the next section, the researcher discusses the concept of a pilot study.

5.4.4 Pilot Study

A pilot study was also used in this study to ensure the reliability and validity of the instruments and data obtained through them. Neuman (1994:130) argues that a pilot study is vital to ensure that the research instrument is clear and helps the researcher obtain the information s/he wants. Mouton (1996:205) argues that one of the commonest errors in doing research is that researchers do not do a pilot study.

The New Dictionary of Social Work (cited in Strydom, 2005b:206) defines a pilot study as “a process whereby the research design for a prospective study is tested”. A pilot study can be a small-scale trial run of all the aspects planned for use in the inquiry (Monette, Sullivan & De Jong cited in Strydom, 2005b:206). Mitchell and Jolley (2001:13-14) add that a pilot study helps the researcher fine-tune the study for the main inquiry. A more comprehensive definition of a pilot study is given by Bless and Higson-Smith (2000:155) who argue that a pilot study is a “small study conducted prior to a larger piece of research to determine whether the methodology, sampling, instruments and analysis are adequate or appropriate”.

In this study, however, the pilot study was confined to the testing of the research instruments so as to ensure that they did not have ambiguous items which would confuse the respondents. Initially, the pilot study for the structured questionnaire was to be done with students from RU, one of the selected tertiary institutions. The reason for choosing RU was that, unlike the other selected tertiary institutions, it had a large pool of students studying journalism in different programmes within the school. The researcher asked for the email addresses of students in their fourth year in the Bachelor of Journalism and randomly selected fifteen students to whom she emailed the questionnaire.

At the end of the questionnaire was a section where the respondents could write their comments on what they thought were the weaknesses of the questionnaire. The respondents were expected to comment on whether the questions were clear enough; whether questions touched on some sensitivities; the length of the questionnaire; or anything that they felt needed to be addressed. The questionnaire was sent electronically because that was how the

researcher planned to distribute the questionnaire in the main study. This was in line with Strydom's (2005b:210) advice that a pilot study should be executed in the same manner as the planned main investigation. If this was not done the pilot study would be of little value as the researcher would not know if the method s/he had in mind would be effective.

Only four students out of the fifteen who received the pilot questionnaire responded. Despite the numerous reminders the other eleven did not respond. The researcher put this down to the fact that they did not know her and also that they did not have a personal investment in the study. The researcher could not, therefore, make decisions based on the comments of only four students.

To rescue the pilot study, the researcher then decided to use her own students at the University of Venda. The University of Venda was not one of the selected tertiary institutions. These students were similar to those in the selected institutions in that they were studying BA Media Studies. The researcher randomly selected eighteen students in the final year of their studies and sent the questionnaire to them electronically. The researcher notified the students in class that she would be sending out a questionnaire, but she did not say to whom the questionnaire would be sent. She briefly explained what the study was about. In doing this, the researcher was trying as much as possible to execute the study in the way she would do the main one.

Fifteen questionnaires were returned. Four of the respondents forgot to attach the questionnaire after completing it. The students had replied instead of forwarding the attachment. This led to the loss of valuable information. This was, therefore, a valuable lesson for the researcher because in the final questionnaire she put in bold letters an instruction that the respondents should forward and not reply so as to avoid losing the attachment. This paid off because only one respondent amongst all those who responded in the main study made the mistake of not forwarding but replying.

The improved return rate from the pilot study also alerted the researcher to the need to talk to the students and explain the objectives of the study prior to sending the questionnaire. For the main study, the researcher either talked to the students in person, as was the case with RU students, or asked the coordinators to help explain the study to the students and emphasise the importance of the study. This was the case in two of the universities, namely, SU and TUT. The result of this was an improved return rate from the students. As stated earlier in this

chapter, 59.4% of the students who received the questionnaire completed and returned it, a response rate considered to be good by Rubin and Babbie (1993:340)

Through the students' comments after the pilot study, the researcher was able to fine-tune the questionnaire. For instance, many noted that the questionnaire took them over thirty minutes to complete. The researcher realised that that was too long, and, according to Hofstee (2006:133), a questionnaire which is too long can lead to respondent boredom and a poor response rate. The researcher, therefore, reduced the number of items on the questionnaire. This final questionnaire was again pilot tested with five of the researcher's students and it took them between eight and ten minutes to complete.

The pilot study questionnaire had five response categories for the Likert scale questions, namely, Strongly Agreed, Agreed, Not Sure, Disagreed and Strongly Disagreed. Quite a number of the respondents avoided committing themselves to giving a substantive answer by choosing the "Not Sure" option. The researcher, therefore, decided to drop this option from the final questionnaire so that respondents could give answers which commit them to either agreeing or disagreeing. Finally, the qualitative questions on the questionnaire were dropped because the answers were too varied and did not really bring out what the researcher expected.

The questionnaire for coordinators was sent to two scholars known to the researcher, one in the UK and another in South Africa. They pointed out some ambiguities in some of the questions. The researcher fine-tuned these questions to remove the ambiguities. They also advised that she cut down the number of questions on the questionnaire as coordinators are likely to be busy people who would not like to spend too much time on a questionnaire. The questionnaire was thus scaled down from twenty-nine questions to twenty questions. They, however, noted that the questionnaire was user-friendly and easy to complete. Both pilot studies, therefore, increased the validity and reliability of the questionnaires

Having discussed the research methodologies employed, the strengths and weaknesses of these methodologies, as well as how data gathered were analysed, the researcher now proceeds to discuss the sample and sampling procedures used in the study.

5.5 The sample and sampling procedures

5.5.1 Sampling procedure

According to Nieuwenhuis (2007:79), sampling is “the process used to select a portion of the population for study”. Kumar (2005:164) defines sampling as:

the process of selecting a few (a sample) from a bigger group (the sampling population) to become the basis for estimating or predicting the prevalence of an unknown piece of information, situation or outcome regarding the bigger group.

The term “population” refers to all the members of a given group about whom the study wants to draw conclusions (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:100). It is a group of individuals which possesses one characteristic that distinguishes them from other groups (Creswell, 2005:358). In research, however, “population” does not only refer to people, but it also makes reference to a collection, objects or events having a common characteristic that the researcher is interested in studying (Babbie, 2010:199; Walliman, 2001:232; Roscoe cited in Mouton, 1996:134). The population of this study comprised of all tertiary institutions in South Africa, which educate and train beginner journalists.

A sample, according to Arkava and Lane (1983:27), comprises elements of the population considered for actual inclusion in the study. Strydom (2005a:194) argues that it is a subset of measurements drawn from a population in which the researcher is interested. The sample is studied in an effort to understand the population from which it is drawn (Strydom, 2005a:194). To select this sample, researchers either use probability or non-probability sampling procedures (Creswell, 2005:146).

Probability sampling is a term used to describe samples selected in accord with the probability theory (Babbie, 2010:196). It involves the random selection of the elements (Strydom, 2005a:198). In probability sampling, each person or sampling unit in the population has the same known probability of being selected (Strydom, 2005a:198). Gravetter and Forzano (cited in Strydom, 2005:198) add that the odds of selecting a particular individual are known and can be calculated. The advantages of probability sampling are that it removes the possibility of bias on the part of the researcher (Mouton, 1996:139). The application of the principles of probability theory also makes it possible to estimate the accuracy of the sample.

What makes non-probability sampling different from probability sampling is that sampling is done without randomisation (Strydom, 2005a:198). In non-probability sampling, there is no assurance that each unit in the population will be included (Kumar, 2005:177; Frankfort-Nachmias, 1996:183). In this study, non-probability sampling was utilised.

According to Babbie (2010:192), there are four types of non-probability sampling procedures, namely convenience sampling, snowball sampling, quota sampling and purposive sampling. Convenience sampling, also known as haphazard sampling, relies on available subjects, while in snowball sampling the researcher collects data on the few members of the target group that s/he can locate and then asks those individuals to provide information needed to locate other members of the population (Babbie, 2010:193). Quota sampling is defined by Babbie as:

[a] type of non-probability sampling in which units are selected into a sample on the basis of specified characteristics, so that the sample will have the same distribution of characteristics assumed to exist in the population (Babbie, 2010:194).

In purposive sampling, also known as judgemental sampling, the sample is selected on the basis of the researcher's judgement about which ones would be the most useful or representative (Babbie, 2010:193). According to Singleton, Straits, Straits and MacAllister (1988:153), this sample usually contains "the most characteristic, representative or typical attributes of the population". In this study, purposive sampling was used to select the sample. How this was done is discussed below.

5.5.2 Sampling journalism tertiary institutions

Three tertiary journalism institutions, namely RU, SU and TUT were sampled purposively. All three were selected on the basis that they were identified as potential centres of excellence in a survey done by UNESCO (Berger & Matras, 2007:16). The researcher worked on the assumption that a study of the magnitude of the one done by UNESCO would not declare these institutions potential centres of journalism excellence if they did not offer quality journalism programmes. Thus the researcher concluded that these three institutions would offer rich information on JE&T in South Africa.

It is, however, important to note that the UNESCO study identified four potential centres of excellence in South Africa, namely the three mentioned above and one Black English-

oriented university.⁴⁰ Initially, the researcher intended to study all four potential centres of excellence so as to get a holistic picture of the state of JE&T in South Africa. However, even though the JE&T department in the Black English-oriented university indicated its willingness to participate in the study, and even participated to a certain extent, repeated appeals for information, such as the list of students enrolled in the programme and the programme documents, were not successful, making it impossible for the researcher to include that university in the study. The researcher was, thus, forced to exclude that university from the study.

Despite this limitation, the three journalism tertiary institutions selected for the study contained some key characteristics of tertiary institutions in South Africa, which would make this study valuable to other tertiary institutions which offer JE&T to beginner journalists. For example, both RU and SU are traditional universities offering academic degrees at both undergraduate and post-graduate levels, while TUT is a university of technology with a technikon tradition whose main mandate is to offer vocationally focused courses (Raga, 2010:15). The three universities also represent the linguistic traditions that have characterised South African universities since before 1994, namely the English and Afrikaans traditions. RU is an English language-oriented university while both SU and TUT were historically Afrikaans language-oriented. These characteristics make the three universities fairly representative of the JE&T tertiary institutions in South Africa. The absence of a Black-English university would also not affect the findings in a significant way as the objective of the study was not to compare these four institutions.

However, it has to be noted that results obtained from a sample selected using non-probability sampling and its subtype purposive sampling, cannot be used to make generalisations about the whole population (Babbie, 2010:196). In this study, for example, there is a possibility that the findings from the three institutions might not be representative of all journalism institutions in the country. For example, because of the reasons stated above, historically Black English-oriented universities are not represented in this sample. Notwithstanding these limitations, the researcher chose purposive sampling because it is useful if one needs to reach a targeted sample quickly or where “sampling for proportionality is not the primary concern” (Trochim, 2006:un).

⁴⁰ For ethical reasons, the name of the Black English-oriented university has been withheld.

5.5.3 Sampling the journalism programmes for this study

Having selected the three journalism institutions for this study, the researcher then moved to the second phase of selection, which involved choosing the journalism programmes to be studied. All three tertiary institutions have a variety of journalism degree programmes on offer. It was not possible or purposeful to study all of them in this study. Consideration had to be given to the characteristics of these programmes so as to identify those with similar attributes. This would enable the researcher to learn more about each individual programme. The three programmes which were finally selected were, in alphabetical order according to institution:

- the Post-Graduate Diploma in Journalism (PGDip) (RU);
- the BPhil in Journalism (SU); and
- the BTech in Journalism (TUT).

These three were chosen because they all aimed at producing beginner journalists after an initial three year tertiary education programme. Both the PGDip and BPhil programmes for example, enrol only those students who had completed a bachelor's degree in an appropriate discipline determined by the School/Department. For the BTech, aspiring students have to complete a three year Diploma in Journalism or similar qualification to be admitted into the programme. The duration of study for all three programmes is one year. This makes the one year they spend doing these programmes equivalent to a fourth year in their studies.

5.5.4 Sampling the key informants for each programme

The next to be selected were the key informants. Initially, the researcher had intended to interview the chairpersons of the three departments. However, an ethical problem arose in that the researcher's supervisor is the chairperson of the Department of Journalism at SU. Therefore, the researcher made a decision to interview coordinators of the programmes instead. This did not only solve the ethical problem, but it also improved the result as the programme coordinators were more involved in the application of the programmes.

The researcher would have liked to interview more members of the faculty in each university so as to strengthen her findings. However, she was forced to confine the study to only one key informant per department, as some departments, such as the Department of Journalism at SU, had very few full-time staff to draw a sample from. SU had three full-time members of staff at the time data was collected, one of whom was already out of contention because of being the researcher's supervisor. However, the researcher is fully satisfied with the quality

of information she got from the programme coordinators because their expertise and closeness to the programmes made them the most suitable persons to interview in the departments.

5.5.5 Sampling the students

The students were sampled to be part of the study so as to establish how they experienced their different programmes and also to corroborate the programme coordinators' responses. Their being the recipients of the JE&T offered in these programmes meant that they had the potential to give the researcher vital information needed to get an in-depth understanding of the programmes. Only those students enrolled in the selected programmes in the 2010 academic year were selected for the study. Because of the small numbers of students enrolled in these programmes, the researcher decided to use all the students enrolled in them for that year. The following are the numbers of students who were enrolled in each programme in the 2010 academic year:

- RU: 20
- SU: 26
- TUT: 60.

This gave the researcher a total of 106 potential participants for the study. Sampling all the students enrolled in these programmes increased the validity of the results.

5.6 Ethical considerations (Addendum 2.5 and 2.6)

Social research takes place within a social context (Babbie, 2010:62) and because of that, it is vital that ethical concerns become an integral part of the research process, right from the planning stage through to implementation (Du Plooy, 2002:90; Durrheim & Wassenaar, 1999:65). Ethical research planning ensures that the human and civil rights of the participants are protected at all times (Du Plooy, 2002:90; Durrheim & Wassenaar, 1999:65). Babbie (2010:63) cautions that the problem with social research is that ethical considerations are not always apparent to the researcher. In his argument, he alludes to the fact that even the most innocent looking social research has ethical issues to consider. It is, therefore, incumbent upon the researcher to devote some time at both the planning and implementation stages of the research process, to identifying the potential ethical problems in her/his study.

In this study, several measures were taken to ensure that the necessary ethical concerns were addressed so as not to violate the rights of the participants, as well as the institutions they belonged to. To conduct a study in the selected institutions, the researcher first sought formal

approval through the SU's research ethics committee to carry out the study. This, according to Hofstee (2006:118), is a vital step because it will ensure that one's study adheres with one's university guidelines. Permission to carry out the study was granted in July 2009.

The researcher also submitted an informed consent form to the same university body for approval. This informed consent form met the demands of the three broad principles on which many ethical guidelines are based, namely, the principle of autonomy; the principle of non-maleficence; and the principle of beneficence (Durrheim & Wassenaar, 1999:66). According to Durrheim & Wassenaar, the principle of autonomy requires the researcher to address the issues of voluntary and informed consent, the freedom to withdraw from the research anytime and the participant's right to anonymity, while the principle of non-maleficence emphasises the need for the researcher to consider potential harm that the researcher might inflict on the participants. This latter principle reminds one of Cohen and Manion's (1994:363) advice that "if the research involves subjects in a failure experience, researchers must ensure that the subjects do not leave the situation more humiliated, insecure and alienated than when they arrived". The third principle, that of beneficence, stipulates that research should be designed to benefit, if not the participants, other researchers and society at large.

The informed consent form met all the conditions spelt out by the three broad principles. For example, by spelling out the topic and purpose of the study to the participants, the voluntary nature of the participation, the participants' right to withdraw any time they wanted, the potential risks [or absence of risks] involved and the fact that they would not be remunerated for their participation, the form met the ethical condition of informed consent. Informed consent means that the participants are informed of all the positive and/or negative consequences of participating in the study (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000:100; Durrheim & Wassenaar, 1999:66). This means that when they go into the study, the participants know exactly what they are letting themselves into.

The informed consent form also assured the respondents that their information would be treated confidentially and for academic purposes only. This was in line with Christensen's (1994:147) argument that "information obtained about the research participants during the course of an investigation is confidential unless otherwise expressed upon". To ensure confidentiality, the student's actual names are not referred to in the study. In addition, it was

pointed out to them that the study aimed to contribute to the improvement of the journalism curricula, not only in the selected institutions, but in other similar institutions in the country.

This consent form was emailed to selected students in the participating institutions, together with the questionnaire. The students were asked to put an X in the space provided as an indication of their consent. The form was to be emailed back to the researcher together with the completed questionnaire. (See Addendum 2.5 for the informed consent form.)

Seeking the student's consent had to be preceded by other more fundamental considerations. The researcher could not just walk into an institution/department and distribute questionnaires to students without permission from authorities in those institutions. The researcher first approached the chairpersons of the selected departments to ask for their permission to carry out the study in their departments. She also took the opportunity to find out from the chairpersons if there were other university-wide ethical processes she had to undertake. She explained to the chairpersons the purpose of the study and also submitted her proposal and questionnaire, as well as the formal approval from the SU to show that she was a bona fide student of that institution. All three chairpersons granted formal approval of the study. (See Addendum 2.6 for the letters of approval from the participating chairpersons.) It was only after this permission was granted that the researcher began the process of collecting data. Throughout the study, the researcher was guided by these ethical considerations.

5.7 Summary of the chapter

In this chapter, the researcher outlined, discussed and justified the methodology used in this study. Aspects of the methodology which were discussed include the research design, the data collection instruments, their advantages and disadvantages, as well as how the data gathered through these instruments were analysed. The chapter also discussed the pilot study, the sample and the sampling procedures, as well as the ethical considerations and procedures.

The next chapter presents the findings of the study.

Chapter 6: Presentation of Findings

6.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the methodology employed in this study was described. The chapter discussed the research design, the data gathering strategies and data analysis methods. In this chapter, the findings of the study are presented. The data presented were gathered from three selected tertiary institutions in South Africa, namely RU, SU and TUT. In total, three different instruments were used to collect data. These were:

- Programme documents for the three selected journalism programmes;
- A semi-structured questionnaire for programme coordinators; and
- A structured questionnaire for students in the selected programmes.

The qualitative data yielded by the programme documents and the semi-structured questionnaire were analysed using qualitative content analysis. This involved organising data into manageable themes and categories which would serve as the basis for the analysis. The quantitative data obtained from the students' structured questionnaire were analysed using the SPSS version 18. Through SPSS, the researcher was able to generate frequencies and percentages, as well as graphs and tables which were used to analyse the data and describe the phenomenon.

First to be presented are data obtained through the programme documents, so as to ascertain what the programmes consisted of in 2010 when this data was collected. Next to be presented are findings from the programme coordinators' semi-structured questionnaire, in order to complement the findings obtained from the programme documents. Finally, findings from the students' structured questionnaire are presented so as to determine how the students experienced their programmes and also to corroborate the findings from the other data sources. The presentation will be done alphabetically, starting with RU, then SU and, finally, TUT.

6.2 Findings from programme documents of the selected tertiary institutions

6.2.1 Introduction

Programme documents submitted by the programme coordinators included vision statements and course outlines for each module offered in the departments. The presentation of the findings will commence with an analysis of the vision statements submitted by the

programme coordinators as these spell out the main goals of the school/departments in which the selected programmes are situated.

6.2.2 The mission and vision statements of the departments

6.2.2.1 The vision statement for the RU School of Journalism and Media Studies

The following is the vision statement of the RU School of Journalism and Media Studies:

The Department⁴¹ of Journalism and Media Studies strives to contribute to the commitment expressed in the South African Constitution to “heal the divisions of the past and establish a society based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights; [and] lay the foundations for a democratic and open society ...”

Our vision is informed by the following understanding of the media:

- The media constitute one of the powerful institutions that mediate our relation to and experience of the world.
- The nature of such mediation is conditioned by the media’s particular political, economic, technological and historical contexts.
- Consequently, these mediations contribute to the production and reproduction of the dominant relations of inequality that structure social life, and are implicated in questions of gender, class, culture, race, geography, sexuality, etc.

Journalism and Media Studies aims to produce self-reflexive, critical, analytical graduates and media workers, whose practice is probing, imaginative, civic minded and outspoken. Such graduates are equipped to act as thoughtful, creative and skilled journalists and media practitioners able to make meaningful and technically proficient media productions.

Moreover, Journalism and Media Studies seeks to make valuable intellectual contributions to the broad African media environment, to research, and to the integrated and ongoing education of media practitioners.

An analysis of the RU vision statement reveals a commitment by the school to do three things, namely:

- To produce journalists who will play a transformative role as stated in the South African Constitution of 1996. Journalists from RU are expected to play a unifying role by healing the divisions of the past and also establish “a society based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights”. They are also expected to lay a foundation for a democratic society, by providing a platform on which all the voices can be articulated;
- To produce practitioners who are “self-reflexive, critical, analytic graduates and media workers, whose practice is probing, imaginative, civic minded and outspoken”. In this statement, there is also an acknowledgement that the core business of the department is to produce journalists for the media industry; and
- To contribute to scholarship on the African continent through research.

⁴¹ In the vision statement, the School refers to itself as a department.

In all this, the RU vision statement recognises that the media's role in society is conditioned by the media's "particular political, economic, technological and historical contexts". This is an acknowledgement by the RU School of Journalism and Media Studies that the media in South Africa is shaped by its environment. In transforming South Africa's journalism and media, therefore, it is vital to realise that what might have worked in one environment, might not work in South Africa because of the uniqueness of the context within which the media is working.

6.2.2.2 The mission and vision statements for the SU Department of Journalism

The following is the mission and vision statements of the SU Department of Journalism:

Mission ("core business") of the department: *Education and training in conceptual and practical skills for beginner-journalists in our journalism school; critical reflection and research in our advanced postgraduate programmes.*

1.1 Mission and vision

1. Introduction

1.1.1 On a macro level

The aim of the Department of Journalism at Stellenbosch University (SU) is to provide, by means of its programmes professional journalists, media workers and media scholars to South Africa in particular, but also to Southern Africa and the continent of Africa as a whole. It strives to serve the broader community with relevant curricula, research and community interaction. It offers instructional programmes and is involved in research and community interaction that focus on how messages in various media are produced, used, and interpreted within and across different contexts, channels and cultures, and it prepares individuals to apply journalistic and communicational, conceptual and practical skills professionally.

1.1.2 On a meso level

The Department supports the mission and vision of the SU and that of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences. Its programmes and activities in terms of education, research and community interaction dovetail with these goals.

1.1.3 On a micro level

Prospective students have the following options to choose from: a full-time postgraduate course on an Honours level, the BPhil in Journalism; a structured, modular master's programme, the MPhil in Journalism; a full thesis for masters and doctoral degrees.

In its honours level course it strives to be the ideal "journalism school", offering a professional, vocational course in which beginner journalists are educated and trained as multimedia, multi-skilled journalists on a conceptual/academic as well as a practical level. In the 2002 Skills Audit of the South African National Editors' Forum (SANEF) the Department was credited for being a "centre of excellence" in terms of journalism education and training.

In its master's and doctoral courses it has a more academic, theoretical and reflective approach. Students can choose from various options.

An analysis of the SU Department of Journalism's mission and vision statement shows that it also emphasises the following:

- The production of practitioners who are trained in the practical skills required to execute their duties in the media industry. However, the department also underlines the vitality of producing critical and reflective graduates. To fulfil this mission and vision, the department has rooted its programmes on two key pillars, namely, education and training;⁴²
- Situating the department's mission and vision statements within the greater mission and vision of the university. This implies that whatever transformational changes the department embarks on, they have to be in line with those of the institution at large; and
- It also makes an undertaking not to produce graduates just for the South African market only, but for the African continent as a whole. This implies situating the department's scholarship on the broader context of the African continent. By promising to come up with relevant curricula to serve the broader community, the mission and vision statement is, thus, responsive to the needs of the southern African region and the African continent.

6.2.2.3 The vision statement for the TUT Department of Journalism

The following is the vision statement of the TUT Department of Journalism as enunciated by the programme coordinator:

To deliver competent graduates with an entrepreneurial focus who actively contribute to the media industry in the best interests of society.

An analysis of the TUT's vision statement reveals the following:

- That its primary focus is to satisfy industry's needs; and
- The vision statement says nothing about contributing to media and journalism scholarship in South Africa in general and Africa in particular nor does it say anything about producing critical and reflective journalists.

It is possible that this difference in the visions of TUT and the other two institutions can be attributed to the type of institutions that these departments are situated in. TUT is an institution which emerged from a merger of Technikon Northern Gauteng (TNG), GaRankuwa and Pretoria technikons. Traditionally, technikons produced skilled personnel for the labour market (see Prinsloo, 2010:190), which would explain why the vision statement has an industry orientation. RU and SU are traditional universities whose main

⁴² The distinction between education and training is discussed in chapter 2.5 of this study.

mandate goes beyond equipping students with practical skills, to making them more critical and reflective of their practice and to contribute to scholarship. In the next section an overview of the modules offered in the selected programmes is presented.

6.2.3 Overview of the modules offered in the selected programmes in 2010

6.2.3.1 Overview of modules offered in the RU PGDip programme in 2010

The 2010 students in the RU's PGDip programme did a total of four modules, three of which were compulsory, namely Media and Society, Reporting Skills and Principles of Journalism, and Critical Media Production. The rest of the modules in the programme were optional and students had to choose one of these options, which they did in the fourth term⁴³ of the programme. Students who may register for this programme have to have completed a Bachelor's degree. Table 6.1 summarises the modules which were offered in the course in 2010.

Table 6.1: Summary of the modules offered by RU in the PGDip programme (Addendum 2.1):

PGDip programme (2010)⁴⁴	
Compulsory modules	Optional modules (to choose one)
Media and Society	Art of Fact
Reporting Skills and Principles of Journalism	Television Journalism
Critical Media Production	Online Journalism
	Economics Journalism
	Web Design
	Photojournalism

6.2.3.2 Overview of modules offered in the SU BPhil programme in 2010

A total of seven modules were offered in the SU BPhil programme and all were compulsory. These seven modules were in turn subdivided into sub-modules as indicated in Table 6.2. Students who may register for this programme have to have completed a Bachelor's degree.

⁴³ The RU academic year is divided into four terms, two in the first semester and two in the second. A term is, therefore, about six weeks long.

⁴⁴ It was not possible to get the Economics Journalism and Web Design course outlines for the study.

Table 6.2: Summary of the modules offered by SU in the BPhil programme (Addendum 1):

BPhil programme (2010)	
Journalism Practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Journalism Practice: News • Journalism Practice: Features, reviews and columns • English for Journalists • Afrikaans vir Joernaliste (Afrikaans for Journalists) • Internship
Broadcast Media	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Radio Journalism • TV Presentation • TV documentary
Journalism Technique	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Newspaper and Magazine Production • Internet Journalism • Computer Ability
Media Studies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Media Ethics • Media and Society • Research Methodology
Media, Culture and History	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultural Literacy • Media History
Specialist Journalism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • S & T Journalism • Health Journalism • International Journalism • Photojournalism • Financial Journalism and Numeric Literacy
In-depth Project	

6.2.3.3 Overview of modules offered in the TUT BTech programme in 2010

TUT's BTech programme offers six modules, two of which are compulsory, namely Basic Research Project and Editorial Management IV. Students are then expected to choose two specialist reporting modules, as indicated in Table 6.3. Students who may register for this programme have to have completed a three year Diploma in Journalism or the equivalent.

Table 6.3: Summary of the modules offered by TUT in the BTech programme (Addendum 2.2):

BTech programme (2010)	
Compulsory modules	Optional Specialist modules(to choose two)
Basic Research Project	Print IV OR Broadcasting IV
Editorial Management IV	Politics IV OR Features and Reviews IV

What is important to note is that, except for the Basic Research Project, all TUT BTech modules are suffixed by the Roman numeral “IV” implying that students would have done I, II and III of the same modules prior to entering the BTech programme. A study of the modules in the Diploma in Journalism programme obtained from the programme coordinator at TUT shows that these modules are done at levels 1, 2 and 3 of the Diploma. This implies that students who do the BTech have to complete the Diploma in Journalism programme or a similar programme to be able to register for the BTech. This makes the BTech programme different from the PGDip and BPhil programmes in that these two programmes admit students who might be coming into contact with JE&T for the first time in their educational experiences, while the TUT BTech programme appears to be a continuation of the Diploma in Journalism, though at an advanced fourth year level.

It is also important to note that RU and SU are different from TUT in that the former are traditional universities and the latter is a university of technology (Study SA, 2012:14).⁴⁵ This difference means that RU and SU have epistemological foci which are different from that of TUT. For example, RU and SU offer different tiers of degrees (Bachelor, Honours, Master’s and Doctoral), have a strong research focus and a high proportion of postgraduate students, whereas TUT, being a university of technology, offers vocational qualifications. Some postgraduate work is done in the latter and there is some research capacity, though not with the intensity of traditional universities (Study SA, 2012:14). The BTech programme was introduced in 1994 to replace the National Higher Diploma, and to be an equivalent to the university-based Honours degree (Du Pré 2010:3). The Committee of Technikon Principals (1995:10) pointed out that the BTech was introduced to broaden the theoretical knowledge base and higher order transferable cognitive skills, which they felt were missing in the diploma programme. Thus, it could be argued that, though the BTech is a vocationally-oriented degree, it places more emphasis on theory than the diploma so as to qualify to be an academic programme.

6.2.4 Emerging themes and categories

In the coding phase of the analysis, three broad categories relevant to the research questions were identified, namely, content and activities done in the classroom and activities done outside the classroom and textbooks used. These categories were further sub-categorised as shown in Table 5.1 in chapter 5.

⁴⁵ South Africa has a third type of university, namely a comprehensive university. Comprehensive universities offer both Bachelor degrees and career focused or vocational qualifications. Their focus is mostly teaching, though some research and postgraduate studies are done on a small scale (Study SA, 2012:14).

However, before the presentation is done, it is important to point out that the TUT programme documents only listed the titles of the modules offered in the programme and gave a very brief description of the aims of the modules. These were unfortunately not detailed enough for the researcher to determine the specific content/activities done in each module or establish the textbooks used in the classroom. The researcher, however, did request for detailed course outlines, but it was not possible for the programme coordinator to comply. This limitation of the documents is, however, made up for in the programme coordinator’s and students’ responses. The following presentation, therefore, reflects information gathered from the RU and SU programme documents mostly. The presentation of the findings will follow the order in which the categories are listed above.

6.2.5 Content and activities done in the classroom

6.2.5.1 Content and activities done in the classroom in the RU PGDip programme

Table 6.4 sums up the classroom content and activities in the PGDip programme.

Table 6.4: Summary of classroom content and activities in the RU PGDip programme:

SUB-CATEGORY	PGDip (RU)
Content and activities done in the classroom	<p>Theory of journalism practice: What is news? Who is a gatekeeper? Finding a story; News writing basics; 5Ws and 1H; interviewing techniques; Angling and selling a story</p> <p>Critical theory: information society and media; the liberal-pluralism perspective (normative theories); ethics and regulations; technological perspective; political economy perspective; public sphere; civic journalism; social democratic perspective; development perspective</p> <p>Practice within classroom: Pitching a story; writing leads and paragraphs; writing news features</p>

The Table shows that students do theory of journalism practice such as “What is news?” “Angling and selling a story” “News writing basics” “5Ws and 1H”, among others. There is evidence in the RU PGDip programme documents that students also do practical work in the classroom. This includes successfully pitching a good story, writing leads and paragraphs for news, writing news features and taking photographs to accompany the story.

However, the RU programme teaches students critical theory as well. This theory, according to the course aims, does not only inform the students’ work as journalists, but it also familiarises them with the different theoretical perspectives on media and society and also enables them to critically assess them.

6.2.5.2 Content and activities done in the classroom in the SU BPhil programme

Table 6.5 sums up the classroom content and activities in the SU BPhil programme.

Table 6.5: Summary of classroom content and activities in the SU BPhil Programme:

SUB-CATEGORY	BPhil (SU)
Content and activities done in the classroom	<p>Theory of journalism practice: What is news? News values; How to write news; Principles of news writing; Newsroom ethics; Interviewing techniques</p> <p>Critical theory: Media ethics; Media and society (power relations and how media influences news production); Media, culture and history; Cultural literacy</p> <p>Practice within the classroom: Writing news reports, creating own websites, producing feature stories</p>

As in the PGDip programme, SU students also do theory of journalism practice such as “What is news?”, “News values” “How to write news” among others. The SU BPhil programme documents also show that students do practical activities in the classroom, such as writing weekly news reports, writing news reports at short notice when news break, creating their own websites and using social networks such as Facebook and Twitter to gather information. Each student is also encouraged to produce at least one feature for the department’s *Stellenbosch Media Forum* (SMF). The students are also expected to produce the newspaper, *Lip*, during the Word Festival.

The BPhil programme also has a strong component of critical theory. Normative theories and other perspectives of the media are taught in the programme. Modules such as Media Studies and Media, Culture and History help journalists understand the relationship between the media and society, the power relations and how the media influences news production. They provide students with the critical theory to explain the interaction between media institutions and audiences. The Media Ethics sub-module equips students with ethical decision-making skills. It also helps them to understand that cultural setting has significant influence on the ethical decisions made by journalists.

There is also evidence in the documents that the SU programme contextualises its media ethics module within the broader African context. As one of its outcomes, the Media Ethics sub-module states that “The student should be able to understand the theories in relation to cultural complexities, especially those of greater Africa”. It goes on to note that “South

Africa is not an isolated island, but an integral part of the African continent”, an awareness which is raised in the department’s vision and mission statement.

The BPhil programme, also through its Cultural Literacy sub-module, for example, makes it clear that to understand the present, we need to understand the past; also that the Western lens is not the only way of looking at the world, but that there are many other ways of knowing. The Media History sub-module emphasises the importance of knowing the history of the media in South Africa. This, in a way, is a continuation of the argument posited in the Cultural Literacy sub-module, that the past has shaped the present. Implied in these sub-modules is that South African journalists cannot begin to understand their own practice unless they understand how media started and how it has evolved to be what it is today.

6.2.5.3 Content and activities done in the classroom in the TUT BTech programme

As pointed out above, it was not possible to ascertain through the documents obtained from the department the details of content and activities done in the classroom.

6.2.6 Content and activities done outside the classroom

The programme documents also show that both RU and SU enjoy a close relationship with the media industry. Though it is apparent from the TUT programme coordinator’s responses that the TUT programme also has a close relationship with the media industry, this is not spelt out in the programme documents. The findings show that RU PGDip students do a one week internship in a newsroom. They also do experiential learning for the whole of term three at *Grocott’s Mail*. During this time, they learn to put theory learnt in the classroom into practice. For example, they look for stories, successfully pitch and write them. At *Grocott’s Mail* they are also taught to edit copy, proofread final proofs, subedit and make defensible ethical decisions. Students are taught and assessed by both the newspaper’s editors and the RU lecturers. The students also do several assignments for the *Grocott’s Mail*. For example, in term 1 students are involved in the ongoing project for *Grocott’s Mail* entitled “What does Human Rights Day mean to Grahamstown?” As early as February, they are expected to write 400 words for *Grocott’s Mail*. They also practice their reporting skills through *SciCue*, a daily newspaper for the National Science Festival.

The SU BPhil students also do practical work at *Eikestadnuus*, a local bi-lingual community newspaper. They write stories for *Eikestadnuus* from mid-February to the end of October, as well as for other media. They also compile actuality programmes for MFM and other community radio stations. In addition, they produce multi-media video clips for *Die Burger*.

The students also produce the paper *Lip* for the annual Word Festival, as well as the *Stellenbosch Media Forum* (SMF).

Students also do a four week internship at an approved media institution. This internship is assessed by the media institution and contributes 3% to the student’s final mark. The close relationship between the SU department and the media industry is also seen through the fact that some of the students in the programme are funded by media institutions. Students are advised in the study guide to do their internships in line with the conditions set by their funders. The Department also regularly invites guest speakers from the media industry to address or hold seminars with students on pertinent issues.

As already stated above, it was not possible to ascertain the activities done by the TUT students outside the classroom through the programme documents obtained from the department.

6.2.7 Textbooks used in the selected programmes

An analysis of the prescribed and recommended books which are used to teach the theory of journalism practice such as defining news, news values and journalism ethics, was done. The Table below gives a summary of the number of prescribed and recommended books for each programme according to whether the book was published in the West or in Africa/South Africa.

Table 6.6: Summary of the prescribed and recommended books by programme and by publisher (Refer to Addendums 1 and 2.1 for details of other readings):

	PGDip (RU)		BPhil (SU)		BTech (TUT)	
	African/South African publisher	Western Publisher	African/South African publisher	Western Publisher	African/South African publisher	Western Publisher
Prescribed	1	3	-	2	Not indicated	Not indicated
Recommended	2	-	4	49	Not Indicated	Not indicated
Total	3	3	4	51	N/A	N/A

The overall picture emerging from the Table above is that there is a lack of textbooks published locally. The percentage of books published by Western publishing houses far outnumbers that of books published in Africa/South Africa. The table shows that the prescribed books, that is, those books which are the main sources of information for the students are predominantly Western published. For RU only one book, *Writing for the Media*

by Francois Nel, is published in South Africa, while for SU none of the prescribed books used to teach the theory of journalism practice are published in South Africa.

Evidence from the Table also shows that Western published recommended books in the SU programme outweigh, by far, those published in Africa/South Africa. The TUT programme documents do not give details of prescribed and recommended books. It was, therefore, not possible to ascertain the type of textbooks used in the programme. The overall impression arising from the above results is that students in at least two selected programmes use more books published in the West, especially the USA, than those published elsewhere in the world.

6.2.8 Summary of findings from programme documents

This section presented the findings from the documents of selected programmes. The programme documents revealed that RU and SU teach students both theory of journalism practice and critical theory. Students in both programmes also do a lot of practical work in the media industry. The findings also show that most of the textbooks used in the two programmes are published in the West, especially the USA. The TUT programme documents, however, were not detailed enough to help the researcher ascertain the content taught and activities done both in the classroom and in the media industry.

The next section presents the findings from the semi-structured questionnaire distributed to programme coordinators of the selected programmes

6.3 Findings from the programme coordinators' semi-structured questionnaire

6.3.1 Introduction

In this section, data from the programme coordinators' semi-structured questionnaire are presented. Three programme coordinators from RU, SU and TUT, namely, Rod Amner (2010), Gabriel Botma (2010) and Pedro Diederichs (2010) respectively, responded to the semi-structured questionnaire with twenty open-ended questions. The questionnaire sought not only to find out information about the programmes they are coordinating, but it also aimed to find out as much information as possible about the School/Departments within which the selected programmes are situated. Knowing the context within which the selected programmes are offered would give the researcher a deeper understanding of the programmes concerned.

Qualitative content analysis was used to analyse the data emerging from these questionnaires. The data were coded according to a number of themes which corresponded with the research questions. Through the coding process five broad categories were identified, namely:

- What the programmes consisted of;
- Relationship between the departments and the media industry;
- Perceptions of the programme coordinators towards transformation of JE&T curricula in their institutions;
- Issues of diversity; and
- Transformational challenges faced by the departments.

These categories were further sub-categorised as shown in the table below:

Table 6.7: Categories and sub-categories emerging from the semi-structured questionnaires:

Categories	Sub-categories
What the programmes consisted of	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Activities and content taught in the classroom b. Activities and content taught outside the classroom
Relationship between the departments and media industry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. The media industry's contribution to the departments b. The influence of the media industry on the programmes
The programme coordinators' perceptions on transformation of JE&T curricula	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Perceptions towards Africanisation of the programmes b. Perceptions towards Developmental journalism as a possible normative framework c. Perceptions towards <i>Ubuntu</i> as a possible normative framework
Issues of diversity in the selected programmes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Demographics of students in the programmes in terms of gender and race b. Demographics of lecturing staff in terms of gender and race c. The issue of indigenous languages in the programmes
Transformational Challenges faced by the departments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Educational and professional backgrounds of the lecturing staff; b. Students' attitudes towards alternative approaches and indigenous languages; c. Lack of support from government, the university and media industry; d. Media industry demands on selected departments; and e. Poor pre-tertiary South African education system

The chapter will proceed to present the findings emerging from these semi-structured questionnaires in the order in which the categories and subcategories are presented in Table 6.7.

6.3.2 What the programmes consisted of

As stated above, this category was sub-divided into two sub-categories, namely:

- Activities and content taught in the classroom; and
- Activities and content taught outside the classroom.

The presentation in this section will thus be done in terms of these categories.

6.3.2.1 Activities and content taught in the classroom

The findings show that all three programmes teach theory and practice, though TUT seems to put more emphasis on the teaching of basic journalistic skills than on theory. This emphasis on basic journalistic skills could be attributed to the fact that TUT is a university of technology, which puts more emphasis on vocational skills required by the industry than on conceptual skills (see Prinsloo, 2010:190). Diederichs (2010) alludes to this when he says that in “their environment” they place more emphasis on training basic journalistic skills.

All three programmes, however, teach theories of journalism practice in each area of specialisation, such as radio, television and print. These include media ethics, codes of conduct such as the Press Ombudsman Code and news values, among others. Critical theories, however, seem to be more prevalent in the RU and SU programmes. Amner (2010), for example, points out that students draw on “a number of critical theoretical frames” such as “media and society frameworks, semiotics, sociology of news, political economy, textual studies, audience reception analysis, representation and reality, documentary”. Similarly, Botma (2010) also points out that students in the programme do courses such as Media Ethics and Cultural Literacy, which sharpen their conceptual skills. However, where Botma differs from the other two, is that he says the SU courses are more African-oriented as seen in courses such as Media Ethics and Cultural Literacy. This corroborates the findings in the programme documents and also affirms the department’s vision and mission statement which seeks to situate the programmes in the broader context of the African continent.

All three programmes teach their students to report on specialist fields such as health, economics, local government, art, investigative journalism and science (RU); economics, science and technology and health (SU) and politics and investigative journalism (TUT).

Both Amner (2010) and Botma (2010) said they teach their students developmental journalism, but not to make them developmental journalists. Botma said that this is done so as to equip students with the sense that they should fight for the disadvantaged in society. Diederichs (2010) also said that whilst the department is against adopting the developmental journalism model as a possible normative framework, the department makes students aware of “good news” stories.

All three departments teach their students language and grammar. However, Amner (2010) says the department only teaches language and grammar related to journalistic style. Both Botma (2010) and Diederichs (2010), however, say they teach basic language and grammar because of the poor language and grammar skills of some of their students, which they attribute to poor pre-tertiary school teaching. Students at TUT, according to Diederichs, are given support classes for English, listening and study skills.

TUT students also produce and publish/broadcast stories in the community newspaper and community radio station, both housed in the department. They also produce simulated television documentaries within the department.

6.3.2.2 Activities and content taught outside the classroom

Learning in all three programmes does not end in the classroom; it extends to the media industry itself. Students at RU work on the local community newspaper *Grocott's Mail* which is owned and run by the department. According to Amner (2010), this experience helps the students to obtain skills of working in a complex and stressful newsroom. Students at RU also report for *SciCue*, a daily newspaper for the National Science Festival, which takes place in Grahamstown every year. The PGDip students work on it as a training newspaper.

Botma (2010), however, did not say anything about activities students do in the media industry. However, as revealed by the programme documents earlier, students at SU do quite a number of activities in the media industry.

TUT students also do many activities in the media industry. According to Diederichs (2010), the vast majority of B Tech students (90%+), are practising journalists or media communication officials. Their occupations in the media industry enable them to put the theory learnt in the classroom into practice.

6.3.3 The relationship between the department and the media industry

This category was sub-divided into two sub-categories, namely:

- The media's contribution to the departments; and
- The media industry's influence on the programmes.

The presentation in this section will thus be done in terms of these categories.

6.3.3.1 The media industry's contribution to the departments

All three coordinators indicated that there was a close relationship between their departments and the media industry. According to RU's Amner (2010), students in the programme did internships in the media industry where they sharpened their reporting skills and learnt responsibility, resilience and resourcefulness. Amner also pointed out that some media houses such as Media 24 sponsored students in the Department by offering them bursaries.

Botma (2010) also indicated that Media24 offers bursaries to Afrikaans-speaking students, mainly white and coloured students, in the department. Students also do internships in the industry. Some of the lecturing staff in the department is drawn from the media industry. Botma also pointed out that guest lecturers from the media industry regularly come to address students or hold seminars with them.

An overwhelming majority of the TUT BTech students, as indicated by Diederich (2010), are practicing journalists and communication officials. This shows that TUT is educating and training students for the media industry.

6.3.3.2 Influence of the media industry on programmes

Closely related to the contributions the media make to the departments is their influence on the programmes, directly or indirectly. Amner (2010), for example, notes that the media industry tells the department the kind of graduates they want and all this is tied up to the sponsorship they give some students in the Department. Amner (2013) also adds that in RU, the curriculum is reviewed by a Departmental curriculum forum, which has met regularly in the past ten years. The Department interacts with the media industry to discuss curriculum reform and the quality of graduates it requires. However, this is done informally (Amner, 2013). Amner points out that despite this demand from the industry, the Department has kept a critical distance between itself and the media industry (2010).

Botma (2010) also expressed concern that the media industry's sponsorship of Afrikaans-speaking students only, militates against the department's attempts to diversify the student's body. The Department finds itself hamstrung to diversify the student body racially as the majority of those who speak Afrikaans are white and coloured students. Black students, who

in the majority cannot speak Afrikaans and really need financial aid, find themselves unable to enrol for the programme as they have no money to cover their tuition.

The BPhil programme is reviewed annually by all members of staff. However, as Botma points out, the media industry does not participate in this review formally. According to Botma, the media industry only participates informally on invitation. In the last few years, this has happened as part of conference gatherings of all the Rykie van Reenen fellows⁴⁶ (Botma, 2013). In these informal gatherings, the media industry indicates to the Department that they want a skills-oriented syllabus, not one which puts emphasis on critical theory. However, according to Botma, this does not carry any special weight in the staff deliberations on the curriculum. The Department, according to Botma, has, just like the RU department, maintained its theoretical independence, resulting in tensions between the Department and the media industry. In addition, as part of the quality control process of the university, the SU JE&T department is evaluated every 5 years according to the evaluation programme of the SU as a whole (Botma, 2013).

The industry's influence seems to be more direct in the TUT programme than is the case in the other two programmes. According to Diederichs (2010), the TUT programmes are scrutinised and reviewed once or twice a year by an advisory committee made up of members representing all media sectors. The advisory committee, according to him, is prescribed by the Department of Higher Education for all Universities of Technology. During meetings where the advisory committee sits, "felicitations, moans and groans of industry are then considered and strategised on" (Diederichs, 2010). For example, the industry's main complaint about the students' poor language skills has resulted in the Department putting up a course to teach language to the students. The media industry also gives monthly reports on students on attachment so as to inform the department of problems which the department has to address. Diederichs (2010) argues that they try to address these problems to industry's satisfaction.

⁴⁶ The Rykie van Reenen-fellowship is annually sponsored by Media24. The company appoints one of its own journalists to help educate a new generation of honours students in Stellenbosch University's BPhil (Journalism) course (<http://sun025.sun.ac.za/portal/page/portal/Arts/Departemente1/Joernalistiek/Homepage>).

6.3.4 Programme coordinator's perceptions on the transformation of JE&T curricula

This category was sub-divided into three categories, namely:

- Perceptions of programme coordinators towards the Africanisation of JE&T curricula;
- Perceptions of programme coordinators towards the developmental journalism model as a possible normative framework; and
- Perceptions of programme coordinators towards Ubuntu philosophy as a possible normative framework.

The presentation in this section will thus be done in terms of these categories.

6.3.4.1 Perceptions of programme coordinators towards the Africanisation of JE&T curricula

The programme coordinators' opinions on the matter of Africanising journalism curricula in South African journalism departments were sought. The question was asked in view of the fact that the subject of Africanising journalism curricula on the African continent is a topical one at almost all JE&T conferences and colloquia. The responses of the programme coordinators ranged from the cautious acceptance of the RU and SU programme coordinators to the scepticism of the TUT programme coordinator. Both Amner (2010) and Botma (2010) were of the view that journalism curricula should be Africanised. For Amner, Africanisation means to "grapple with African Philosophy, African political, socio-economic and media context". He, however, believed that what will militate against the move to Africanise journalism curricula is the paucity of journalism textbooks and journalism studies research from the African continent. This observation is corroborated by the evidence emerging from the programme documents which showed that the majority of the key texts used in the selected programmes were published in the West and not in Africa.

Botma (2010) was also of the view that journalism curricula should be Africanised. However, he warned against fundamentalism. According to him, Africanisation is not about "returning to a mythical past", but rather it is about "informing oneself about where one is, that is, adapting oneself to the realities around oneself". Going back to Africa's past, in his view, is tantamount to a social re-engineering process which imposes a culture or world view on the people. Implied in this argument is that the Africanisation process should be informed by the Africa of today and the way people live their lives in the here and now, and not about a past which is far removed from the people's experiences in the modern world.

Similarly, Diederichs (2010), though sceptical of the concept of Africanisation as gleaned from his response “As soon as ‘Africanised’ is formulated, I will be able to answer the question”, did not completely dismiss Africanisation. In his view, if Africanisation means “taking note of local and continental news values” and as long as the process “does not clash with basic international journalistic values”, then he would welcome it. His reference to international journalistic values seems to imply that Africanisation does not mean excluding non-African ideals.

With regards to African journalism schools offering the same journalism curricula, all programme coordinators dismissed the idea. Amner (2010), for example, cautioned against treating Africa and Africans as homogeneous in the process of Africanising journalism curricula. According to him, “Africa is an extraordinarily diverse continent. There are many Africas”. Similarly, Botma (2010) argued that Africa is too diverse a continent to successfully pursue the same curriculum. This implies that in Africanising the journalism curricula, scholars must take into consideration this diversity which characterises the African continent. All programme coordinators, however, acknowledge that there are some things which tie “Africans” together (such as Africa’s location in the global economy, communitarian political philosophies, ethnic diversity, legacy of colonialism and slavery), and that because of that there can be overlaps in the curricula. However, in their view, journalism curricula must be generated from the realities of its context. According to Diederichs (2010), “the content detail and focus will differ from country to country”.

6.3.4.2 Perceptions of programme coordinators towards the developmental journalism model as a possible normative framework

The programme coordinators were asked whether they thought African journalists’ practice should be informed by the developmental journalism model in their reporting. All three programme coordinators rejected the developmental journalism model of journalism as a possible normative framework. Amner (2010) said they “explicitly teach both the theory and practice of development journalism” and other related concepts such as communication for development, but that students are taught to reflect critically on these attempts to do development journalism. He said they are “sceptical of approaches that subvert the autonomy and independence of journalists”.

Botma (2010) also said that even though they discuss the concept of developmental journalism, this is not to say that they are teaching the students to be developmental

journalists. He argued that it has to be remembered that the students' worldview is informed by liberalism/consumerism which they do not get from the classroom, but which they get from the world out there. Therefore, in his view, teaching them to be developmental journalists is like imposing a different world view on the students and, in his opinion, this does not work. Implied in this statement is that since the students' world view is informed by liberalism/consumerism, it is that world view that should prevail in JE&T. Students, in his view, must be developmental in the sense that they should fight for the disadvantaged and that they should be exposed to variety.

Diederichs (2010) gave an emphatic "No" to the possibility of South African journalists' reporting being informed by the developmental journalism model. He, however, said they are sensitive to "good news" stories.

6.3.4.3 Perceptions of programme coordinators towards Ubuntu as a possible normative framework

On Ubuntu being explored as a possible normative framework for African journalism ethics, only Amner (2010) agreed that it should be explored. However, he rejected the idea of embedding journalism curricula on Ubuntu as he felt this was too prescriptive. He argued that Africa has diverse political philosophies and realities, and that these should not be excluded.

Botma (2010) and Diederichs (2010) completely dismissed Ubuntu as a possible normative framework. Botma, for example, wondered what Ubuntu actually entails. He questioned whether Ubuntu has the potential to provide a meeting ground for the hybridity that characterises the South African society. Ubuntu, in his view, might be out of sync with what is happening in society; it is a world view that might not be in line with the realities in the South African society. For that reason, the SU programme coordinator believes that adopting Ubuntu as a normative framework might require an educational repositioning of the whole South African society. He worries that teaching students a worldview that does not match the reality in their society is untenable. He concludes that a worldview cannot be changed like you change a hat.

Diederichs (2010) provides a different reason for rejecting Ubuntu. In his view, Ubuntu will not pass the codes of conduct for good journalism because it is a threat to the principles of fairness and objectivity followed by professional journalists. He observes that because

Ubuntu puts the community ahead of everything else, stories that journalists might write might not be in the public interest for some.

6.3.5 Issues of Diversity in the selected programmes

This category was sub-divided into three sub-categories, namely:

- Demographics of students in the selected programmes in terms of gender and race;
- Demographics of lecturing staff in the selected programmes in terms of gender and race; and
- The question of teaching indigenous language reporting in the selected programmes.

The presentation in this section will thus be done in terms of these categories.

6.3.5.1 Demographics of students in the selected programmes in terms of gender and race

The findings reveal that in 2010 there were more female students than male students enrolled in all the selected programmes. Table 6.8 below shows gender representation per selected programme.

Table 6.8 Summary of gender representation amongst students per selected programme in 2010:

Programme/tertiary institution	Females	Males	Total
PGDip (RU)	11	9	20
BPhil (SU)	18	8	26
BTech (TUT)	31	29	60
Total	60	46	106

Pertaining to race, the findings reveal that in 2010 the PGDip (RU) and BPhil (SU) had more white students than any other race. The BTech (TUT), however, had more black students than students from any other race. Table 6.9 shows race representation per selected programme.

Table 6.9 Racial composition of students in the three selected programmes:

Programme/tertiary institution	Asian	Black	Coloured	White	Total
PGDip (RU)	1	6	-	13	20
BPhil (SU)	-	2	4	20	26
BTech (TUT)	-	51	-	9	60
Total	1	59	4	42	106

The programme coordinators gave different reasons for the racial demographics emerging in these programmes. Amner (2010), for example, attributed the skewed racial representation in the RU PGDip programme to the failure by the Department to attract black students with good Matric passes. He argues that most black students and their parents considered journalism of a low status and “a relatively low paying profession”. Botma (2010) attributes the imbalance in the BPhil to the black students’ inability to pay their tuition fees and the bursary formula used by some media organisations. In the case of TUT, Diederichs (2010) points out that there was a drastic drop of white students enrolling in the programme with the merger of TNG, GaRankuwa and Pretoria technikons. It is not clear, however, why this happened.

6.3.5.2 Demographics of fulltime lecturing staff in the selected programmes in terms of gender and race

The findings show that in 2010, there were more male than female fulltime lecturing staff, in contrast to the dominance of females within the student body. The findings are presented in Table 6.10 below.

Table 6.10 Gender representation per selected programme:

Programme/tertiary institution	Females	Males	Total
PGDip (RU)	4	8	12
BPhil (SU)	1	2	3
BTech (TUT)	2	5	7
Total	7	15	22

With regards to race, it would appear that white academics dominate as lecturing staff in terms of numbers. The Table below gives a summary of the racial composition of fulltime staff in the three selected programmes.

Table 6.11 Racial composition of full-time staff in the three selected programmes:

Programme/tertiary institution	Asian	Black	Coloured	White	Total
PGDip (RU)	-	3	-	9	12
BPhil (SU)	-	1	-	2	3
BTech (TUT)	1	3	-	3	7
Total	1	7	-	14	22

Table 6.11 shows that, overall, in 2010, there were more white lecturers than any other race in all three programmes. None of the programmes had a coloured member of staff and only TUT had one Asian lecturer.

A look at the racial composition of the female members of fulltime staff shows that white females dominated as lecturers in all three programmes. Table 6.12 illustrates this result.

Table 6.12 Racial composition of female members of staff in the selected programmes:

Programme/tertiary institution	Asian	Black	Coloured	White	Total
PGDip (RU)	-	2	-	2	4
BPhil (SU)	-	-	-	1	1
BTech (TUT)	1	-	-	1	2
Total	1	2	-	4	7

This result shows that in 2010, females other than white females were underrepresented in all the three selected departments. None of the programmes had a coloured female lecturer. Only the PGDip programme had two black females while only TUT had one Asian female lecturer.

6.3.5.3 The question of teaching indigenous language reporting in the selected programmes

The programme coordinators were asked if they teach their students to report in the indigenous languages of South Africa and, if they did, which ones. The findings show that none of the selected programmes teach students to report in indigenous languages. English is used in all three programmes. However, SU also uses Afrikaans alongside English. According to Botma, the Department currently aims for a balance of 50% English and 50% Afrikaans in its use of the two languages. It is interesting to note that Botma (2010) identified Afrikaans as the only indigenous language that the department teaches. However, for purposes of this study, the researcher did not classify it as an indigenous language because, unlike the other indigenous languages in South Africa whose roots are on the African continent, Afrikaans developed out of a “Dutch stem” (Giliomee, 2003:3). According to Roberge (2002:282), even though Afrikaans is a combination of Dutch, the indigenous Khoi Khoi language and enslaved people of African and Asian provenance, its main origins can be traced back to the southern part of the modern province of South Holland.⁴⁷

⁴⁷ The origins of Afrikaans as a language are contested (Giliomee, 2003:4). However, since it is not within the mandate of this study to interrogate the origins of Afrikaans, the researcher did not delve deep into the debates surrounding its origins.

6.3.6 Transformational challenges faced by the selected programmes

This category was sub-divided into six sub-categories, namely:

- Educational and professional backgrounds of the lecturing staff;
- Students' attitudes towards alternative approaches and indigenous languages;
- Lack of support from government, the university and media industry;
- Industry demands on selected departments; and
- Poor pre-tertiary South African education system.

The presentation in this section will thus be done in terms of these categories.

6.3.6.1 Educational and professional backgrounds of the lecturing staff

One of the main challenges identified by Amner (2010) and Botma (2010) as militating against the transformation of the curriculum in their institutions is the educational and professional background of the educators and trainers themselves. Amner, for example, argued that attempts to introduce alternative approaches in the curriculum are always met with resistance in the School mainly because many of these educators and trainers have "spent many years in mainstream journalism". A similar observation was made by Botma who said that lecturers are products of their backgrounds and that this background determines how open the individual is to moving forward. One's educational and professional background makes transforming oneself and the system difficult. Diederichs (2010) also alluded to the same challenges when he says that stereotypes and cultural differences make the exercise of transformation difficult.

6.3.6.2 Students' attitudes towards alternative approaches and indigenous languages

Another challenge related to curriculum change which emerged from the programme coordinators' responses is that of students being sceptical about courses which offer alternative approaches. Amner (2010) argues that students expect to receive tuition in marketable skills which will make it easy for them to get employment in mainstream media. Any approaches which do not guarantee them employment in this sector will meet with resistance from students. Botma (2010) also noted that students in the Department did not give support to the introduction of indigenous language reporting in the curriculum, possibly because of questions about its marketability arising. At TUT, Diederichs (2010) noted that the teaching of Afrikaans and Northern Sotho is not possible beyond the second level of the diploma because there were not enough students to make the courses viable. It was not, however, clear from the response whether the small numbers are because the class sizes are

naturally small or because of resistance from students. Because this was not the focus of the study, the researcher did not deem it necessary to follow-up on this.

6.3.6.3 Lack of support from government, the university and media industry

Only the SU programme coordinator, Botma (2010), argued that lack of support from government, the university and the media industry made it difficult for the Department to transform. Government, in his view, is paying lip-service to the language issue. Instead of grappling with the problem of developing indigenous languages at tertiary institutions, it spends too much time criticising universities such as Stellenbosch for excluding those who cannot speak Afrikaans. But no programme has been put in place to develop indigenous languages in tertiary institutions.

The university on its part insists on enrolment targets but is not prepared to employ adequate staff. This is mainly because the university is working on a business model and is, therefore, not keen to employ more staff or introduce programmes that will be costly.

The media industry does not financially support the move to introduce indigenous language reporting in the curriculum because it would not be financially viable for them. They only support those aspects of the programme which would assure them of their profits. Again, Botma noted that the industry is working against the Department's attempts to improve diversity by offering bursaries to Afrikaans-speaking students only. Afrikaans-speaking students are mostly white and coloured students. Black students who need financial help cannot speak Afrikaans, meaning that they cannot be enrolled in the programme without financial aid.

6.3.6.4 Media industry's demands on selected departments

Industry "interference" is also a challenge for the selected programmes. All programme coordinators argue that the media industry makes it clear to them what kind of students they want to produce. Both Amner (2010) and Botma (2010), for example, said the media industry would like to see the department pursuing a skills-oriented syllabus instead of one which also puts emphasis on critical theory as well. However, both argued that their departments are independent from industry, though they both emphasise that teaching basic journalism skills such as writing and editing is fundamental to journalism curricula as "industry demands that they have these skills" (Botma, 2010). These demands, according to Botma, cause tension between the Department and the industry which simply wants journalists who are technically competent and not ones who are intellectually equipped to question the status quo.

Botma also argues that the media industry interferes with the department's plans to transform the department both linguistically and racially. Media24, for example, only gives bursaries to Afrikaans-speaking students. This effectively means that black students, who in the majority cannot speak Afrikaans and really need financial aid, find themselves unable to enrol for the programme as they have no money to cover their tuition. He further noted that there is no financial support for even poor white English-speaking students. Besides, as Botma notes, most Afrikaans-speaking students come from wealthy middle class families and are able to pay their way. What this means is that most Afrikaans-speaking students have the double advantage of being wealthy, as well as having a possibility of getting a bursary from industry. The Department, therefore, finds itself hamstrung in its attempts to diversify the student body both racially and linguistically.

Diederichs (2010) also points out how the advisory committee with external members representing all media sectors, scrutinises the department's syllabus at meetings once or twice a year. Recommendations made at these meetings influence what the department includes in its curriculum. For example, as already mentioned, the industry's main complaint about the students' poor language skills has resulted in the department putting up a course to teach language to the students.

All this demonstrates that the Departments are not completely free to determine the journalism curriculum in their departments. The media has a strong influence on what happens in the selected programmes.

6.3.6.5 Poor pre-tertiary South African education system

There is a general concern from programme coordinators that the pre-tertiary South African education system has failed to prepare students in terms of language and grammar so that they can handle tertiary education.

6.3.7 Summary of findings from the programme coordinators' semi-structured questionnaire

This section presented the findings from the programme coordinators' semi-structured questionnaire. A major finding emerging from the programme coordinators' responses is that all three selected programmes teach theory and practice, though TUT puts more emphasis on the training of basic journalism skills than conceptual skills.

The findings also reveal that all three have a close working relationship with the media. The media industry affords students from these selected departments space to do internships and

experiential learning. In the case of TUT, the majority of the students are practising journalists and communications officials. The media industry also sponsors some students in the departments by giving them bursaries. This relationship, however, has its down side as the media industry makes some demands on the departments, which can take away the journalism departments' autonomy to decide on what to teach prospective journalists. In TUT, for example, the media is directly involved in the review of JE&T curricula of that institution, while at RU and SU the interaction concerning JE&T curricula is indirect and informal.

In as far as the Africanisation of the programme is concerned, there is acceptance that it is possible, provided the process does not degenerate into essentialism. All three are unanimous in arguing that the Africanisation of the journalism curricula does not mean coming up with a homogenous curriculum for the whole of Africa. The programme coordinators are of the view that any Africanisation of the journalism curricula in African journalism institutions should take into consideration Africa's diversity. The developmental journalism model, is however, rejected as a possible normative framework by all three programme coordinators. Ubuntu as a possible normative framework is rejected by both Botma (2010) and Diederichs (2010) while Amner (2010) says it has its possibilities, but that its consideration should not exclude other philosophies on the African continent.

Pertaining to issues of diversity in the selected programmes, the findings reveal that there are more female students than male students in all three programmes. Racially, however, both RU and SU had more white students than students from other races, while TUT had more black students than other races.

With regards to fulltime lecturing staff, male lecturers were almost twice as many as the female members of staff. The findings also show that racially, white fulltime lecturers dominated in terms of numbers in all three programmes. The findings also show that in 2010 there were more white female fulltime lecturers than females from other races put together.

The findings also revealed that in 2010 indigenous language reporting was non-existent in all three programmes.

Major challenges plaguing the Departments in their endeavours to transform include: the educational and social backgrounds of the educators and trainers, which make it difficult for them to accept change; students resisting the introduction of courses that do not ensure their

marketability; absence of literature by African scholars; lack of support from government, the university and media industry; media industry's demands on selected departments; and poor pre-tertiary South African education system.

In the next section, findings from the students' structured questionnaire are presented.

6.4 Findings from the students' structured questionnaire

6.4.1 Introduction

In this section, data gathered through the students' structured questionnaire are presented. The questionnaires sought to find out how the students experienced their different programmes and also to complement the findings emerging from the programme documents and the programme coordinators' semi-structured questionnaire. All questions in the students' questionnaire elicited quantitative data from the students and, as such, this data was analysed using the SPSS version 18. Through this statistical package, the researcher was able to generate frequencies and percentages, as well as tables and graphs which were used to analyse the data. To avoid the monotony of presenting the findings item by item (there are 73 items on this questionnaire), the researcher grouped the questions thematically and summarised the key findings under each theme. The presentation is, therefore, organised under the following themes:

- Profile of the respondents;
- What the programmes consisted of in 2010;
- Handling South Africa's diversity;
- Origins of the learning materials;
- Perceptions of students on the role of journalism in society; and
- Overall response of the students to their programmes.

The presentation will follow the order in which the themes are presented above.

6.4.2 Profile of the respondents

The respondents were first asked to indicate their sex and race. This information was required to determine how far the selected programmes reflected the demographics of the country. The findings presented in Tables 6.13 and 6.14 below sum up the statistics of those in the 2010 class who responded to the questionnaire.

Table 6.13 Sex of the respondents:

			Institution			Total
			RU	SU	TUT	
Sex	female	students	11 68.8%	14 73.7%	18 64.3%	43 68.3%
	male	students	5 31.3%	5 26.3%	10 35.7%	20 31.7%
Total			16 100.0%	19 100.0%	28 100.0%	63 100.0%

The overall picture emerging above is that of all those who responded to the questionnaire, females are in the majority (68.3%) in all three programmes. In the RU PGDip they make up 68.8% of the total number of students in that programme. In the SU BPhil class they represent 73.7% of the total population, while in the TUT BTech class they make up 64.3% of the class. These gender demographic statistics are a reflection of the overall class composition shown in 6.3.5.1 above. As will be shown in chapter 7.5.2.1, the dominance of female students in JE&T programmes is not peculiar to South Africa. In the USA, for example, females have outnumbered males in JE&T programmes for three decades (Elmore, 2008:un).

Table 6.14 Race of the respondents:

Institution			RU	SU	TUT	Total
Race	black	students	6 37.5%	1 5.3%	27 96.4%	34 54.0%
	coloured	students	0 .0%	2 10.5%	0 .0%	2 3.2%
	white	students	10 62.5%	16 84.2%	1 3.6%	27 42.9%
Total			16 100.0%	19 100.0%	63 100.0%	63 100.0%

The overall picture emerging in the above Table is that, out of all those who responded to the questionnaire, only three races, namely, blacks, coloureds and whites are represented in the selected programmes. SU, however, is the only one with three races, whilst RU and TUT only have black and white students. This finding reflects the overall race statistics of the three programmes, in which out of a total of 106 students in these programmes, only one was Asian (see Table 6.9 above). This result raises questions about why Asians are not well represented in these three institutions. There are many possible reasons why they are not. It is possible that they preferred enrolling in other institutions or that they preferred doing other programmes to journalism or simply that they did not qualify to enter these programmes, or because demographically, there are fewer Asian people in the areas where the three selected universities are located.

The table shows that more white students (62.5% [RU]; 84.2% [SU]) responded to the questionnaire, while black students were in the majority (96.4%) at TUT. Black students who responded make up 37.5% and 5.3% in the RU and SU programmes respectively, while white students account for 3.6% in the TUT programme. Coloured students make up 10.5% of the SU BPhil student respondents. This response tallies with the overall racial composition of students in the three programmes (see 6.3.5.1 above).

The picture emerging from these results is that RU and SU are still untransformed demographically, especially when one considers that black people are in the majority in

South Africa. This was also observed by the programme coordinators of the two programmes who also admitted that their programmes were untransformed demographically owing to a number of factors. Amner (2010) attributed the skewed nature of the demographics to the fact that most black students who had acquired the required Matric to enrol for journalism preferred to pursue career paths other than journalism, which they and their parents viewed as a low status degree.

Botma (2010) blamed this underrepresentation of black students on their inability to pay their tuition fees and the bursary formula used by some media organisations. He observed that most black students come from disadvantaged and poor backgrounds, thus necessitating the need for funding for these students. However, media organisations prefer to fund Afrikaans-speaking students and because many black students cannot speak Afrikaans, they find themselves with no means to enable them to enrol into the programme. The result is that more white students come into the programme than black students.

While black students are in the majority at TUT, concerns should also be raised at the very small number of white students in the programme, as well as the absence of other races. The programme coordinator pointed out that with the merger of the Technikon Northern Gauteng (TNG), GaRankuwa and Pretoria technikons, there was a drastic drop in the number of white students enrolling in that programme.

The respondents were also asked to indicate their ages. The results are presented in table 6.15 below.

Table 6.15: Age of the respondents by institution:

		Institution			Total
		RU	SU	TUT	
Age	18-25	7 43.8%	18 94.7%	17 60.7%	42 66.7%
	26-35	5 31.3%	1 5.3%	11 39.3%	17 27.0%
	36-45	4 25.0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	4 6.3%
Total		16 100%	19 100.0%	28 100.0%	63 100.0%

Table 6.15 shows that the largest number of respondents for all three programmes falls within the age range 18-25. This is mainly because the majority of students at tertiary institutions are in their early twenties. A few students (31.3% [RU], 5.3% [SU], 39.3% [TUT]) fall within the age range 26-35. Only RU had 25% of its students falling in the age range 36-45.

The respondents were asked to indicate what symbol or grade they got for English in their Matric or related examination. The question was asked to ascertain the language proficiency of the students in the selected programmes at the time they were admitted to the programme. First, the students' grades were analysed per institution and then per race. Table 6.16 below presents the findings per institution.

Table 6.16 English grade at Matric or related examination per institution:

	English grade at Matric or related examination per institution						
	A	B	C	D	E	Non-response	TOTAL
RU	6	2	1	2	1	4	16
	37.5%	12.5%	6.3%	12.5%	6.3%	25.0%	100.0%
SU	13	6	0	0	0	0	19
	68.4%	31.6%	.0%	.0%	.0%	0%	100.0%
TUT	4	1	18	1	1	3	28
	14.3%	3.6%	64.3%	3.6%	3.6%	10.7%	100.0%

The students' responses summarised in Table 6.16 shows that both RU and TUT admitted to the programme students whose English grades ranged from A to E. Out of 16 RU students who responded to the questionnaire, 6 (37.5%) obtained an "A" grade at Matric, 2 (12.5%) a "B", 1 (6.3%) a "C", 2 (12.5%) a "D" and 1 (6.3%) an "E". However, 4 (25%) of the students at RU did not respond to the question. It is possible that the students wrote examinations which have a different grading system to the Matric one.

For SU, out of the 19 students who responded, 13 (68.4%) had an "A" grade while 6 (31.6%) had a "B" grade at Matric. This shows that SU students were on average stronger linguistically than students in the RU and TUT selected programmes. Yet the SU programme coordinator argued that students, even at postgraduate level, had weak writing and language skills.

TUT is similar to Rhodes in that the programme admitted students in all the five grades. However, this is where the similarity ends. The majority of the TUT students who responded,

18 (64.3%) obtained a “C” grade as opposed to 4 (14.3%) with an “A” grade and 1 (3.6%) with a “B” grade. Three (10.7%) did not give a response to the question. This shows that the TUT students were generally weaker in English than the RU and SU students at the time of enrolment into the programme. This is corroborated by Diederichs (2010) who argued that overall, the students enrolled into the programme were still under grade 12 in performance tests. He observed that most of these students come from rural areas and are poor and disadvantaged.

The researcher then analysed the students’ grades per racial group. Table 6.17 below presents the students’ English grade per race.

Table: 6.17 English grade at Matric or other related examination per racial group:

	English grade at Matric/other related examination per race						
	A	B	C	D	E	Non-response	Total
Black	3	4	18	3	2	4	34
	8.8%	11.8%	52.9%	8.8%	5.9%	11.8%	100.0%
Coloured	0	2	0	0	0	0	2
	.0%	100.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	0%	100.0%
White	20	3	1	0	0	3	27
	74.1%	11.1%	3.7%	.0%	.0%	11.1%	100.0%
Total	23	9	19	3	2	7	63
	36.5%	14.3%	30.2%	4.8%	3.2%	11.1%	100.0%

Table 6.18 shows that out of the 63 students who responded to the questionnaire, the largest number of students (23) got an “A” grade at Matric. Of this number, 20 were white and 3 were black. Of all the white students enrolled in the three programmes, 23 (74.1%) had an “A” grade, 3 (11.1%) had a “B” grade and 1 (3.7%) had a “C” grade. Three (11.1%) white students did not respond to the question. The second largest number of students (19) who responded to this questionnaire obtained a “C” grade. Of this number, 18 (52.9%) were black students and only 1 (3.7%) was white. The two coloured students who responded to the questionnaire both obtained a “B” grade. The overall picture for the 9 students who obtained a “B” grade shows that 4 students were black, 2 coloured and 3 white. Only black students (3 and 2) obtained a D and E grade respectively.

The overall picture emerging from the results is that white students had better English grades at Matric than their black or coloured counterparts. This could be attributed to the kind of

pre-tertiary secondary school education that these students had. It is no secret that the majority of the black students come from poor and disadvantaged educational backgrounds, while the majority of white students come from relatively privileged educational backgrounds. This could account for the differences in the grades obtained by black and white students at Matric.

6.4.3 What the programme consisted of in 2010

6.4.3.1 Broad types of journalisms learnt

The respondents were asked a series of questions to establish the broad types of journalisms their departments taught them. The results show that students in all three selected programmes are taught (though with varying degrees) print, broadcast and Internet journalism. An overwhelming majority (75% [RU], 89.5% [SU], 92.9% [TUT]) either agreed or strongly agreed that they were taught to write for newspapers, showing that all three programmes have a strong print media component in them. This result affirms the findings that emerged from the analysis of programme documents from the three tertiary institutions, as well as the coordinators' semi-structured questionnaire.

Varying responses with regards to broadcast media emerged from the respondents' answers. Only 50% (RU) and 36.8% (SU) respondents either agreed or strongly agreed that they are taught to write for television as opposed to an overwhelming majority (100%) of TUT respondents. The response of TUT students is not surprising, as it corroborates Diederichs' (2010) observation that the department is very strong on broadcasting. The disparity in the responses of RU respondents where 50% said they were taught to write for television and 50% said they were not can be attributed to the fact that TV journalism is taught as an optional module in term 4 of the programme. This means that not all respondents do the module. It is possible that the 50% who said that they were not taught to write for television did not choose the television journalism option for term four.

With regards to SU students' responses, the result which shows that 63.2% either strongly disagreed or disagreed that they were taught to write for television is at face value surprising especially when one studies the programme documents which indicate that two sub-modules, "A brief introduction to TV journalism" and "TV production" are taught. A possible explanation for this disparity between the students' responses and the programme documents could be the length of time devoted to both sub-modules (seven days each) compared to that spent on other sub-modules. It is possible that the respondents believe the time spent on this

aspect is so insignificant that they cannot count it as adequate teaching of this component. The programme documents, themselves, spell out that more time is needed to teach this aspect.

Slightly over half (56.3%) of the RU respondents either agreed or strongly agreed that they are taught radio journalism, while an overwhelming majority of SU (94.7%) and TUT (92.9%) respondents either agreed or strongly agreed. Radio journalism, like television journalism, is taught as an optional module at RU. This means that only a few students do the module. It is possible, therefore, that the 43.8% who either strongly disagreed or disagreed did not choose radio journalism as an option. The result reveals that, to a certain extent, the approach to JE&T is still traditional in some of these programmes in that students are expected to specialise in a specific platform instead of being multi-skilled.

Students were also asked questions to establish whether they were taught Internet journalism. The majority of students (56.3%, 18.8% [RU], 57.9%, 21.1% [SU], 60.7%, 14.3% [TUT]) agreed and strongly agreed respectively that they were taught to write for online publications. The respondents were consistent in their responses when they were asked if they were taught to use the Internet to gather information, as well as set up their own blogs. The majority (87.5% [RU], 73.7% [SU], 96.5% [TUT]) either agreed or strongly agreed that they were taught to use the Internet to gather information while (68% [RU], 84.2% [SU], 64.3% [TUT]) agreed and strongly agreed that they were taught to set up their own blogs.

Going by the students' responses, it would appear that Internet journalism is taught in all three selected programmes. However, a look at the programme documents for the BTech programme at TUT does not show that Internet journalism is done at that level. Instead, the documents show that Internet journalism is done at the first and second levels of the Diploma in Journalism programme. It is possible that since the BTech programme is treated more or less like a continuation of the diploma programme at an advanced level, the students are referring to the two modules done at the diploma level.

Asked whether they were taught how to use social networks such as Facebook and Twitter to gather information, 81.3% (RU) and 73.7% (SU) of the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed as opposed to 71.4% (TUT) respondents who either strongly disagreed or disagreed. The response from TUT students corresponds with that of their programme coordinator who said that the merger issues at TUT had hampered the department's progress in the field of

New Media. However, the coordinator pointed out that something was being done to rectify the situation.

6.4.3.2 Varieties (genres) of journalisms

Students were also asked whether they were taught to report on specialist fields such as health, poverty, developmental issues, political issues, educational issues, environmental issues, crime, sports, business and financial issues, entertainment and technology. Responses to these questions would help the researcher establish the genres taught in these programmes. The Table below summarises the positive (agree and strongly agree) and the negative (disagree and strongly disagree) responses for each question per institution.

Table 6.18: Summary of responses ascertaining the genres taught in the selected programmes:

(The Table excludes non-responses)

Question Item (taught to report on the following)	RU PGDip student responses		SU BPhil student responses		TUT BTech student responses	
	Positive responses	Negative responses	Positive responses	Negative responses	Positive responses	Negative responses
Health related issues	77.6%	18.8%	77.4%	26.3%	82.1%	17.19%
Developmental issues	81.3	18.8	52.6	47.4	85.7	14.3
Poverty	75.1	25	52.7	47.4	85.7	14.3
Political issues	87.5	12.5	89.5	10.6	96.4	3.6
Educational issues	68.8	31.3	78.9	21.1	78.6	21.4
Environmental issues	62.5	37.5	52.6	47.4	75	25
Crime	75	12.5	94.8	5.3	96.4	3.6
Sports	62.5	37.5	36.8	63.2	92.9	7.1
Business and financial issues	62.5	37.5	89.4	10.5	78.5	14.3
Entertainment	68.8	31.3	42.1	57.9	75	21.4
Technology	81.3	18.8	36.9	63.1	71.5	25

The results in Table 6.18 indicate that all three programmes cover a wide array of genres, such as health, development, politics, science and technology, crime, sports, business and finance and entertainment. Whilst the overall picture that emerges from these responses is that more students in all three programmes chose the positive options than the negative ones, a significant number at SU (47.4%, 47.4%, 47.4%) strongly disagreed or disagreed that they were taught to report on development issues, poverty and environmental issues respectively as compared to RU's (81.3%, 75.1% 62.5%) and TUT's (85.7%, 85.7%, 75%) students respectively who responded positively. This would appear to be contrary to Botma's (2010)

claim that the department taught developmental journalism so as to sensitise students to the need to fight for the disadvantaged in society.

Furthermore, the majority of SU respondents either strongly disagreed or disagreed that they were taught sports journalism (63.2%) entertainment (57.9%) and technology (63.1%). The SU students' negative response for technology and the lack of conviction in their response to the item on environmental issues is surprising in view of the fact that the programme documents for the BPhil programme show that students do a specialist module entitled "Science and Technology" which covers environmental and technological issues.

6.4.3.3 Theory and practice components in the programmes

The respondents were asked to respond to eight statements to ascertain whether they perceived their programme to have a good balance of both practice and theory. The results are presented in Table 6.19 below.

Table 6.19: Summary of students' perceptions of the balance between theory and practice in their programmes:

(The Table excludes non-responses)

Question Item	RU PGDip student responses		SU BPhil student responses		TUT BTech student responses	
	Positive responses	Negative responses	Positive responses	Negative responses	Positive responses	Negative responses
Internship in mainstream media	87.6	12.5	84.2	15.8	96.4	3.6
Internship in community media	93.8	6.3	84.3	15.8	96.4	3.6
Campus magazine/newspaper	62.5	37.5	31.6	68.4	100	-
Bias towards theory	18.8	75	36.9	63.1	21.4	78.6
Bias towards practical skills	12.6	81.3	47.4	52.6	64.2	35.7
Balance of theory and practice	87.5	12.5	79	21.1	96.4	3.6
Strong research skills	75	25	68.5	31.6	96.4	3.6
Electives	18.8	81.3	5.3	94.8	42.8	50

The findings show that the majority of RU (87.5%), SU (79%) and TUT (96.4) respondents believe that their programmes balance theory and practice. This corroborates the findings from the programme documents and the responses of the three coordinators. The majority of respondents either strongly disagreed or disagreed that their programmes were biased towards theory. Asked whether their programmes were biased towards practical skills, 81.3% (RU), 52.6% (SU) and 53.7% (TUT) respondents strongly disagreed and disagreed that this was the

case. What is interesting here is that slightly under half of the SU respondents (47.4%) and the majority of the TUT respondents (64.2%) were of the opinion that their programmes are biased towards practice.

Asked where they do their internships, an overwhelming majority (87.6% [RU], 84.2% [SU] and 96.4% [TUT]) of the respondents argued that they do them in mainstream media. A similar response was given for the question whether they do their internships in community media. The majority of the RU (93.8%), SU (84.3%) and TUT (96.4%) respondents said they do their internships in community media as well. This indicates that students in the three selected programmes are given the opportunity to experience different types of media. This is corroborated by the findings which emerged from the programme documents, as well as the programme coordinators' responses.

The respondents were also asked if there was a campus magazine or newspaper in which they were allowed to hone their reporting skills. The majority of the RU respondents (62.5%) responded positively to the question. The responses of the RU students are complemented by the programme documents which show that students contribute to publications housed in the School. The majority of SU respondents (68.4%), however, either strongly disagreed or disagreed with the statement. However, a close look at the department's programme documents shows that there are two department publications, the *Stellenbosch Media Forum* (SMF) in which students are expected to contribute at least one feature each and *Lip*, a paper produced for the annual Word Festival. The TUT respondents were unanimous (100%) in their response that they had a campus publication to enable them to practice their skills. This also was in line with Diederichs' (2010) response in which he said that the Department had in place a community newspaper to which students contributed stories or placed their materials.

All three programmes according to the respondents have a strong research skills component. However, with regards to whether they do electives in other departments in the university, the majority (81.3% [RU], 94.8% [SU] and 50% [TUT]) either strongly disagreed or disagreed with the statement. This finding is complemented by that of the programme coordinators who said they did not have electives outside the departments. Botma (2010), for example, said they admit students who already have a Bachelor's degree in other disciplines. Diederichs (2010) said their programme was too full to ask students to do electives outside the Department. This makes the disparity in the TUT student responses all the more interesting as the respondents were almost split in half, with one half answering positively and slightly less

than half answering negatively. It is not possible to establish from the students' responses why there is this disparity.

6.4.4 Handling South Africa's diversity

The respondents were asked four questions to ascertain whether the programmes equipped them with skills to report on South Africa's diversity. To the question whether their programmes taught them to report on gender-related issues, the majority of the respondents in all three programmes (81.3% [RU], 63.2% [SU] and 85.5% [TUT]) either agreed or strongly agreed that they were taught how to handle gender-related issues. A similar response was given for the question whether they were taught to report on race/ethnicity in their programmes. The majority of RU students (68.8%), SU (68.5%) and TUT (88.7%), all claimed that they were taught to report on race/ethnicity. However, the numbers of those who strongly disagreed and disagreed in the RU (31.3%) and SU (31.6%) programmes are significant enough to warrant an investigation of the effectiveness of this aspect of the curriculum.

With regards to reporting on immigrants and foreigners, the majority of students at RU (68.8%) and SU (73.7%) said that they were taught how to report on these issues. TUT respondents were almost split in half, with 50% agreeing and strongly agreeing and 46.4% strongly disagreeing and disagreeing. The remainder of the TUT students (3.6%) did not give a response to this question. It is not apparent from the students' responses what the real situation is at TUT. Students were further asked whether they were taught to report in the indigenous languages of South Africa. The results are presented in Table 6.20 below.

Table 6.20: Summary of responses on whether departments train students to report in indigenous languages:

	Training to report in indigenous languages					Total
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Non-Response	
RU	6	5	3	0	2	16
	37.5%	31.3%	18.8%	.0%	12.5%	100.0%
SU	5	8	5	1	0	19
	26.3%	42.1%	26.3%	5.3%	.0%	100.0%
TUT	0	14	7	7	0	28
	.0%	50.0%	25.0%	25.0%	.0%	100.0%
Total	11	27	15	8	2	63
	17.5%	42.9%	23.8%	12.7%	3.2%	100.0%

Table 6.21 shows that the majority of RU (68.8%) and SU (68.4%) respondents either strongly disagreed or disagreed that they were taught to report in indigenous languages. This finding is corroborated by the programme coordinators in their responses.

A different picture emerges from the TUT respondents who were split in half, with one half disagreeing and the other half either agreeing or strongly agreeing that they are taught to report in indigenous languages. This is contrary to the findings from the programme coordinators' response which reveals that indigenous languages are only taught as far as the second level of the diploma. It is possible that those who claimed that they were taught to report in indigenous languages were referring to the teaching they got when they were doing their Diploma in Journalism. There is no evidence in both the programme documents and the coordinator's responses that reporting in indigenous languages is done at the BTech level. This could account for the 50% who disagreed that they were taught this aspect.

Next, the respondents were asked whether their departments encouraged them to study the indigenous languages of South Africa. Knowing the indigenous languages of the country would enable the graduates to embrace South Africa's diversity in their reporting. The results are presented in Table 6.21 below.

Table 6.21: Summary of responses on whether departments encourage students to learn indigenous languages:

	Encouraging students to learn indigenous languages of South Africa					
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Non-response	Total
RU	3	7	3	2	1	16
	18.8%	43.8%	18.8%	12.5%	6.3%	100.0%
SU	8	9	1	1	0	19
	42.1%	47.4%	5.3%	5.3%	.0%	100.0%
TUT	3	6	11	8	0	28
	10.7%	21.4%	39.3%	28.6%	.0%	100.0%
Total	14	22	15	11	1	63
	22.2%	34.9%	23.8%	17.5%	1.6%	100.0%

The majority of RU PGDip (62.6%) and BPhil (89.5%) respondents either strongly disagreed or disagreed that they were encouraged to learn indigenous languages as opposed to TUT's 67.9% who either agreed or strongly agreed. Based on the students' responses, it would appear that not much attention is given to indigenous languages in the RU and SU programmes.

6.4.5 Origins of the prescribed and recommended books

The respondents were asked three questions to determine the origins of the textbooks they used for their studies. Firstly, they were asked if the majority of textbooks they used were written by American and European scholars. Seventy-five percent (75%) of RU and 60.8% of TUT respondents either agreed or strongly agreed that they used text books written by American and European scholars. However, only 31.6% SU respondents agreed or strongly agreed as opposed to 68.5% who either strongly disagreed or disagreed.

Secondly, the respondents were asked if the textbooks they used were written by African scholars (excluding South African scholars). The majority (93.8% [RU], 63.2% [SU], 60.7% [TUT]) either strongly disagreed or disagreed that their textbooks are written by African scholars. However, a significant number of SU respondents (36.9%) believe that their textbooks are written by African scholars. Lastly, the respondents were asked if their textbooks were written by South African scholars. RU respondents (81.3%) and TUT (53.6%) strongly disagreed and disagreed, whilst 68.5% (SU) either agreed or strongly agreed. It is important to note that 17.9% of the TUT students did not respond to the question.

The overall picture emerging from these results is that the textbooks used by RU and TUT students are mostly written by American and European scholars. Using textbooks written by Americans and Europeans implies that JE&T curricula are influenced by Western values and principles. The findings also show that the majority of SU respondents believe that their textbooks are written by South African scholars. However, documentary evidence discussed above shows that Western published books are by far in the majority in the SU programme. Respondents from all three programmes seem to agree overall that their textbooks are not written by African scholars.

6.4.6 Perceptions of students on the role of journalism in society

To find out what they were taught regarding the relationship between the media and the state, the respondents were firstly asked whether journalists should support government authority and development plans. An overwhelming majority (93.8% [RU], 80.6% [SU], 85.8% [TUT]) rejected the suggestion by either strongly disagreeing or disagreeing with it. This response was further confirmed by their response to the question whether national interest should be put ahead of individual rights of expression and other civil liberties. The majority of the respondents (87.6% [RU], 89.5% [SU], 92.8% [TUT]) either strongly disagreed or disagreed with the suggestion. The respondents also overwhelmingly rejected the idea that

government should control the flow of information (93.8% [RU], 100% [SU], 89.3% [TUT]). The respondents were equally consistent in rejecting a patriotic media.

Instead, the majority of the respondents (93.8% [RU], 100% [SU], 89.3% [TUT]) were of the opinion that the media should play a watchdog role by scrutinising the actions of government and holding it accountable. Many respondents (75% [RU], 68.5% [SU], 82.1% [TUT]) agreed or strongly agreed that the public's right to know should supersede other considerations in society. Asked if the media should be a free market of ideas, 87.6% (RU), 100% (SU) and 85.7% (TUT) either agreed or strongly agreed that it should. The respondents also overwhelmingly (100% [RU], 84.2% [SU], 89.3% [TUT]) supported the suggestion that absolute freedom of the media should be upheld at all times. Thus, it would appear from the students' responses that all three selected programmes appear to teach their students that the media should be independent from government and that it should serve public interest.

The respondents were asked to indicate whether journalists should put the welfare of society ahead of their interests. The majority (87.5% [RU], 89.5% [SU], 75% [TUT]) either agreed or strongly agreed with the suggestion. They were consistent in their response when they overwhelmingly (100% [RU], 89.5% [SU], 100% [TUT]) supported the view that journalists should promote human welfare and dignity and also that the media should provide a diversity of ideas (100% [RU], 84.3% [SU], 92.8% [TUT]). The majority of the respondents (93.8% [RU], 89.5% [SU], 89.3% [TUT]) were also of the view that the media should be accountable to the people and that it should serve as a platform for debate in society (93.8% [RU], 94.7% [SU] 96.4% [TUT]).

However, asked whether the needs of the community should be put ahead of those of the individuals, the responses showed a divergence of thought amongst students of the three programmes. For example, 62.6% (RU) and 60.7% (TUT) rejected the suggestion by either strongly disagreeing or disagreeing with it, whilst 68.4% (SU) agreed or strongly agreed with the suggestion. Again, whilst the majority at RU (68.8%) and TUT (82.1%) agreed and strongly agreed that the media should reflect the wishes of the people, the SU respondents, though the majority, were less enthusiastic at 57.9%. Significant numbers at both RU (31.3%) and SU (42.1%) either strongly disagreed or disagreed with the suggestion.

The foregoing results show that whilst the three selected programmes teach that journalists should serve society, they do not agree on whether individual rights should supersede those of the community.

6.4.7 The responsiveness of students to their programmes

The respondents were asked questions to help the researcher to determine their levels of satisfaction with their programmes. An overwhelming majority (100% [RU], 94.7% [SU], 100% [TUT]) expressed that they were either satisfied or completely satisfied with the way they were taught to collect news from various sources. Similarly, 100% (RU), 89.4% (SU) and 100% (TUT) of the respondents expressed either satisfaction or complete satisfaction with the way they were taught writing skills, such as organising the story, accuracy, balance and editing.

The respondents were equally as happy with the teaching of communication skills (87.6% [RU], 89.5% [SU], 96.4% [TUT]) as well as the teaching of language and grammar shown by 81.3% (RU), 78.9% (SU) and 100% (TUT) of the respondents expressing either satisfaction or complete satisfaction. The majority of RU (75.1%), SU (68.4%) and TUT (82.1%) respondents were either satisfied or completely satisfied with the teaching of interpersonal skills.

Similarly, there was either satisfaction or complete satisfaction with the way the respondents were taught work ethics and professionalism as shown by the responses of the majority of RU (93.8%), SU (89.5%) and TUT (85.7%) students' responses. Another aspect that the respondents showed satisfaction or complete satisfaction with was the teaching of critical thinking skills (RU [93.8%], SU [89.5%] TUT [78.60%]). However SU respondents (21.1%) were in the minority in expressing their satisfaction for the teaching of leadership and management skills, as opposed to 68.8% (RU) and 75% (TUT) who were either satisfied or completely satisfied.

Going by the students' responses one can, therefore, conclude that, overall, students in all three programmes selected for this study are satisfied with the way they are taught in their programmes.

6.4.8 Summary of the findings from the students' structured questionnaire

This section presented findings from the students' structured questionnaire. The students' responses revealed that there were more females than males in all three programmes. It also

revealed that the demographics in RU and SU were skewed in favour of white students, while that of TUT favours black students. With regards to the language competencies of the students, more white students than black students had an “A” grade in English at Matric level. This shows that white students were linguistically stronger than their black counterparts at the time they entered the programmes.

The findings from the students’ questionnaire also showed that different varieties of journalisms are taught in all three programmes. The respondents in all three programmes also seem to agree that both theory and practice feature in their programmes.

The students’ responses also revealed that indigenous language reporting is either still in its infancy or non-existent in the selected programmes. The findings also showed that students are taught that the media should be independent of government and that it should act as a watchdog to hold government accountable for its actions. There was agreement that the media should serve the public interest. However, there was no agreement about whether journalists should uphold individual rights ahead of those of the community. Finally, students expressed high levels of satisfaction with their programmes as they currently are.

6.5 Summary of the chapter

This chapter presented findings from three different data sources, namely, programme documents, programme coordinators and students in the selected programmes. The programme documents revealed what the programmes consisted of in 2010 at the time data were collected. The programme coordinator’s responses complemented the programme documents and gave the researcher a deeper understanding of the programmes. The students’ structured questionnaire also revealed the students’ perceptions of their programmes, as well as corroborated the findings from the other data sources.

The next chapter analyses and discusses the findings of the study.

Chapter 7: Analysis and Discussion of the Findings

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher analyses and discusses data based on the research findings presented in the previous chapter.

This study set out with the main objective of establishing whether JE&T curricula in the three selected tertiary institutions address challenges in a transforming post-1994 South Africa. In order to realise this goal, the study was guided by the following central research question:

Do the selected JE&T curricula in the three selected tertiary institutions address challenges in a transforming South Africa?

The resultant following sub-questions were addressed:

1. What are the epistemological and theoretical underpinnings of journalism curricula in the selected tertiary institutions?
2. What role does the media industry play in shaping the JE&T curricula of the selected tertiary institutions?
3. What is the perception of journalism educators and trainers in the selected tertiary institutions towards the transformation of JE&T curricula in their institutions?
4. Do the selected journalism programmes in the selected tertiary institutions take cognisance of the diverse nature of the South African society (that is, what are the demographics of the student cohort and faculty in these programmes)?

To answer these sub-questions, the researcher analysed the JE&T programme documents of the selected programmes, as well as the responses from both programme coordinators and the students enrolled in these programmes. The analysis and discussion of the findings are thus organised in the order of the sub-questions stated above. The findings are discussed within the framework of three theoretical frameworks, namely the post-colonial theory (together with its sub-theory, the post-colonial feminist theory), developmental journalism model and Ubuntu philosophy. To contextualise the analysis and discussion, a brief summary of the three theoretical frameworks is given. (An in-depth discussion of these theoretical paradigms is presented in Chapter Four of this thesis.)

7.2 Summaries of the theoretical paradigms

7.2.1 The post-colonial theory

According to Dirlik (2005:565), the post-colonial theory repudiates all master narratives, thus challenging the dominant power structures suggested by these narratives. The discourse, for example, that colonialism ended with colonial occupation is interrogated by the post-colonial theory, which reveals that new forms of colonialism have developed in the post-independent nation states (see Ashcroft *et al.*, 2006:3; Slemon, 1991:3). For example, the post-colonial theory sees parallels between the way power was linked to knowledge production during the colonial era and the way the West continues to control knowledge production and define the post-independent states (Ashcroft *et al.*, 2006:6; Shome & Hegde, 2002:251). The concept of the “Other” which was used by the coloniser to define and subjugate the colonised subject, was closely linked to the kinds of knowledge that the West deemed appropriate or inappropriate for dissemination, as well as who could or could not speak (Cairns & Richards, 2006:135; O’Reilly, 2001:104). The post-colonial theory sees the West’s depiction of Africa in contemporary news stories, as well as its dominance in knowledge production in the globalised world as a continuation of the othering process, which was prevalent during colonial occupation (see Ankomah, 2008:143-146).

Feminist post-colonial theorists take the argument further when they point out that women were doubly oppressed by the colonial system and patriarchy (Ashcroft *et al.*, 2006:233). This means that the process of othering for women was not only done by the coloniser, but by patriarchy as well. To redress the woman’s status in the post-colonial state, feminist post-colonialists call for a transformation which would confront not only the oppression of women at a global level, but also within the patriarchal communities that they live in (Anderson *et al.*, 2007:178). According to Anderson *et al.* this involves addressing structural inequities within groups that have historically been socially and economically disadvantaged.

This study, therefore, uses the post-colonial theory to examine whether the West and apartheid still continue to influence the three selected JE&T programmes. It also makes use of the feminist post-colonial theory to analyse the status of women in the three selected JE&T programmes.

7.2.2 Developmental journalism model

The concept “developmental journalism” has been closely linked to the historical evolution of development communication (Banda, 2006:1; Ogan, 1982:3-5). Three historical moments associated with development communication are the modernisation paradigm, dependency-dissociation paradigm and emancipatory journalism (Banda, 2006:1; Adams, 2006:171-172). According to Banda (2006:1), these paradigms determined how developmental journalism was defined by scholars. For example, Odhiambo (1991:23) notes that during the era of modernisation, the West perceived the imposition of its culture and values on developing countries as a prerequisite to development, while during the times of the dependency-dissociation paradigm, post-colonial independent governments interfered with the media, arguing that the media had an important role of creating national unity and fostering development. However, as Odhiambo points out, the greater state control of the media led to abuse of the media by some African leaders, who used it to propagate state propaganda, as well as to curtail individual liberties and encourage corruption, nepotism and patronage of every kind (1991:22, 25).

The third paradigm of development communication, emancipatory journalism, is different from the other two in that it puts people at the centre of development (Adams, 2006:172). According to Adams, this paradigm empowers individuals and communities and allows them to express themselves freely on development issues. Servaes (1996a:15) adds that it empowers people to participate in democratic processes of their societies. Because South Africa is a country which is in the process of democratising its socio-political institutions (see Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996:3), this latter definition of developmental journalism was utilised in this study. Developmental journalism as used in this study, therefore, puts people at the centre of development and seeks to mobilise them to actively participate in their development.

7.2.3 Ubuntu philosophy

A central premise of Ubuntu is that it puts emphasis on community and collectivity (Fourie, 2007a:210). This is in contrast with Western philosophies which put the individual and individual rights ahead of that of the community (Louw, 1999:4). The core values of Ubuntu include communalism, interdependence, humanness, caring, respect, sharing and compassion (Beets & Le Grange, 2005:1202). A journalist who subscribes to this view is expected to consider the impact of her/his story on the community, before publicising it. Ubuntu-driven journalism is viewed as the kind of journalism that would engage people at grassroots levels

and address their concerns. Journalistic values such as freedom of expression and public interest will all be conceived from the community's perspective. Media freedom, from an Ubuntu perspective, for example, is expected to contribute to the well-being of the community and not individuals (Fourie, 2007a:212). The notion of objectivity, according to Okigbo (cited in Fourie, 2007a:213) is undesirable in Ubuntu because the journalist is seen as an involved member of the community and, therefore, cannot remain detached from what is happening.

Fourie (2007a:214) also cautions that Ubuntu can be both essentialist and a threat to good journalistic practice. However, Wasserman (2007:13) argues that indigenous knowledge systems, such as Ubuntu philosophy, are dynamic. For purposes of this study, it is this latter understanding of Ubuntu as a dynamic philosophy that prompted the researcher to use it to analyse the findings of the study.

The chapter will now proceed to analyse and discuss the research findings according to the sub-questions of this study. In order to contextualise the discussion of the findings, the analysis and discussion for each sub-question will commence with an overview of the major findings for that sub-question. This will then be followed by an analysis and discussion of the findings within the post-colonial theory, developmental journalism model and Ubuntu philosophy respectively.

7.3 Epistemological and theoretical underpinnings of journalism curricula in the selected tertiary institutions [sub-question 1]

7.3.1 Overview of major findings of sub-question 1:

Sub-question 1: What are the epistemological and theoretical underpinnings of journalism curricula in the selected tertiary institutions?

The findings show that all three programmes teach theory of practice and critical theory, though TUT seems to focus more on the former than the latter. An analysis of this theory reveals that most of it is rooted in Western epistemologies such as libertarianism and neo-liberalism. For example, critical theory such as liberal-pluralism, Siebert *et al.*'s four normative theories, political economy, among others, taught to the students, is drawn from Western philosophies (Gunaratne cited in Fourie, 2007a:208). The students' responses which show that they are taught that the media is a free market of ideas and that it should play a watchdog role, indicate that the programmes are founded on Western epistemologies as these

aspects are key tenets of the libertarian theory. Libertarianism, for example, is associated with John Stuart Mill's ideas of the free market and John Locke's doctrine of inalienable rights, including press freedoms and individual rights (Gunaratne cited in Fourie, 2007a:208; Baran & Davis, 2006:109; Berger, 2000b:84; Curran, 1991:84).

Further evidence of Western influence can be discerned in the theory of practice taught to students in the selected programmes. This theory includes, among others, strict news writing conventions such as the 5Ws and 1H, journalism ethics and the Press Ombudsman Code. News writing conventions, for example, put emphasis on verifiable facts. Verifying facts gave rise to notions of objectivity, neutrality and detachment, which are all key tenets of libertarianism (Kanyegirire, 2007:47; Baran & Davis, 2006:104, 105; McQuail, 1992:184). Journalists trained under these conventions (supposedly) do not let their private interests and value judgements get in the way of reporting "facts" as they are (Schudson cited in Kanyegirire, 2007:46).

The Press Ombudsman Code, which the TUT programme coordinator says they teach to their students is, according to Wasserman (2007:15), informed by a liberal democratic tradition. Nyamnjoh (cited in Mano, 2009:279) also describes these codes of ethics and professional values as heavily inspired by Western or Western-derived international codes. International codes of conduct put heavy currency on principles such as "objectivity", "balance", "neutrality" and "fairness", all of which are accepted as central to good journalistic practice, without which the profession's reputation is threatened (Jones & Pitcher, 2010:109; Knight, 2010:47; Tumber & Prentoulis, 2005:63).

The findings also show that the selected programmes rely heavily on Western published books to teach theory of practice, thus underlining the fact that these programmes are rooted in Western epistemologies. This finding is similar to that of an earlier study carried out in sub-Saharan Africa between 1986 and 1995 by the International Association for Mass Communication Research (IAMCR) through its Professional Education Section (Nordenstreng, Brown & Traber, ud). The study revealed that journalism curricula in sub-Saharan Africa were heavily dependent on Western literature and teaching materials. Almost two decades after this study, De Beer *et al.* (2007:1), in a paper submitted at the 2007 World Journalism Education Conference (WJEC), also pointed out the dominance of American published books in English-speaking African countries, which they describe as a new "kind of knowledge colonialism".

Next, the findings for sub-question 1 are analysed and discussed within the post-colonial theory, the developmental journalism model and Ubuntu philosophy respectively.

7.3.2 The post-colonial theory perspective of the findings for sub-question 1

Looking at the findings of this study from the post-colonial theory perspective reveals that just as the West during the colonial and apartheid eras controlled knowledge production, so does the West in post-1994 South Africa. According to Wasserman (2007:5), the post-colonial theory is useful in highlighting the similarities between the contemporary situation and earlier experiences of marginalisation. Dirlik (2005:575) concurs when he says the post-colonial theory is useful in helping us understand the “replications in societies internally of inequalities and discrepancies once associated with colonial differences”. Thus the post-colonial theory argues that the colonial legacy continues to date in many forms (Sil, 2008:22; Fourie, 2007a:175; Slemon, 1991:3). George Lamming (cited in Ashcroft *et al.*, 2006:9), for example, observed how Britain without its empire could still maintain its cultural authority in post-colonial societies.

Thus, the findings which show that the three selected programmes are informed by Western epistemologies and philosophies would be viewed by post-colonial theorists as evidence that colonialism and apartheid did not end in 1994 when South Africa attained democracy. Post-colonial theorists would argue that the manner in which knowledge is produced in post-1994 South Africa is no different from the way it was produced prior to 1994.

Prior to 1994, indigenous knowledges were excluded from colonial knowledge production and deemed unsuitable for consumption. According to Fourie (2002:20), during apartheid, “the Western mode of media production was adhered to, including Western news values”. Similar observations are made by Ramose (2004:138) who argues that during the colonial era, indigenous histories, epistemologies and ontologies were not considered worth including in any educational curriculum. What was included, according to Mukasa and Becker (1992:41), was aimed at “ensur[ing] the dominance of their [European] culture in their colonial enclave”. Cairns and Richards (2006:135) concur with this argument when they argue that the othering of indigenous people and their knowledge systems was used by the coloniser to justify his continued subordination of the colonised, as well as to consolidate his imperialist self.

Post-colonial theorists would, therefore, argue that the finding that knowledge taught to the students in the selected programmes is derived from Western epistemologies, shows that knowledge production in post-1994 South Africa is controlled, in the Foucauldian sense, by the West. For instance, in the selected JE&T programmes, the definitions of “good” or “bad” journalistic practices are determined by Western scholarship (see Jones & Pitcher, 2010:109; Knight, 2010:47; Tumber & Prentoulis, 2005:63). Basically, the theory of journalism practice taught to students in these selected programmes and the internships and experiential learning they do in the neo-liberally-driven media are all derived from Western knowledge systems.

Post-colonial theorists could, therefore, argue that the contemporary situation in which the three JE&T programmes depend on the West for knowledge replicates that of the colonial and apartheid eras where the coloniser or the apartheid regime controlled the sources of knowledge and determined what was and was not appropriate for public consumption (Fourie, 2007a:175). Post-colonialists would argue that the West continues long after colonialism and apartheid ended to define scholarship and set standards of what is acceptable or unacceptable in the three JE&T programmes.

7.3.3 The developmental journalism perspective of the findings for sub-question 1

According to Banda (2006:5), developmental journalism puts people at the centre of development and also empowers them to actively participate in their own development. Banda adds that developmental journalism provides access to marginalised members of society (2006:11). However, for journalism to play this critical role of serving as a platform for the exchange of ideas for all South Africans, regardless of their station in society, Wasserman states that JE&T should play the important role of educating journalists about how “they are implicated in socio-political, cultural and economic networks” (Wasserman, 2005:172).

The finding, therefore, which shows that the three programmes are firmly rooted on market-oriented Western epistemologies, such as libertarianism and neo-liberalism would raise questions about how possible it is for these three programmes to produce journalism students who are socially committed to rehabilitating the voices of the poor and formerly marginalised people of South Africa. This is because Western epistemologies have been implicated in the perpetuation of the marginalisation of the world’s poor and disadvantaged people (Wasserman, 2007:3, 6). Neo-liberalism is heavily implicated in the silencing of the voices of the poor and the marginalised (Harvey, 2005: 35, 37).

Proponents of developmental journalism could argue that by marginalising the voices of the poor, Western epistemologies actually undermine the democratisation process, a value which, according to Banda (2006:4), developmental journalism upholds. They could further argue that underpinning the three programmes on Western epistemologies is contrary to the vision statements of some of the selected programmes, such as the RU one, which seeks to produce graduates who would contribute to laying “foundations for a democratic and open society” as stipulated in the South African constitution.

Thus, it could be argued from a developmental journalism point of view that grounding the three selected programmes on the market-oriented Western epistemologies implies that journalism students in the three programmes are not educated and trained to actively contribute to South Africa’s democratisation agenda as their focus is mostly the elite of the South African society.

7.3.4 Ubuntu perspective of the findings of sub-question 1

A major characteristic of Ubuntu philosophy is its emphasis on community and the collective (Fourie, 2007a:211). Journalists who adhere to Ubuntu would be expected to engage members of the community and to seek consensus before publishing a story (Fourie, 2007a:212). Thus, any report that is considered to have the potential to harm the community would not be published.

The fact, therefore, that the three selected programmes are deeply embedded in Western epistemologies would be heavily criticised by proponents of Ubuntu philosophy because Western liberal thought, which informs these three programmes, unlike Ubuntu, upholds individual rights over the rights of the community (Louw, 1999:4). Other core values such as objectivity, detachment and neutrality, which are the hallmarks of Western-inspired journalism practice (Jones & Pitcher, 2010:109; Knight, 2010:47; Tumber & Prentoulis, 2005:63), are viewed by Ubuntu proponents as neither necessary nor desirable (Akimbo cited in Fourie, 2007b:11).

Journalists trained under Ubuntu regime are expected to think first of the effect of their reports on the community, and because they are also members of that community, would, therefore, not publish reports that would harm it (Fourie, 2008:110, 111). In a Western-centric context such as the one that dominates the three selected programmes, journalists who worry about the impact of their reports on the community would be considered as breaching the fundamental ethical codes of journalism, namely objectivity, neutrality and detachment

(Wasserman & De Beer, 2005a:200). Thus from Ubuntu perspective, journalists educated and trained in these three selected programmes would be considered as ill-prepared to spearhead a transformation process which seeks to promote the democratisation process by engaging members of the community and seeking their consensus before publishing a report.

Next to be analysed and discussed are findings for sub-question 2.

7.4 The role played by the media industry in shaping JE&T curricula in selected tertiary institutions [sub-question 2]

7.4.1 Overview of major findings of sub-question 2:

Sub-question 2: What role does the media industry play in shaping the JE&T curricula of the selected tertiary institutions?

The findings reveal that all three selected departments have a close working relationship with the media. Evidence of this close relationship is seen through the fact that students from RU and SU do internships and/or experiential learning in both mainstream and community media, while those from TUT are already practising journalists and communication officers. There is also evidence that while on attachment in the media industry, students are assessed by supervisors in the organisations and that the marks derived from this assessment go towards the students' final mark. Some teachers in these programmes are drawn from the media industry to teach specific modules, while others have spent many years in mainstream journalism and the media. Guest lecturers from the media industry are also invited to address students on critical issues within the media industry. The media also sponsors some students by offering them bursaries and scholarships to fund their studies.

The findings also show that the media industry, directly or indirectly, has a say in what kind of students they want the three programmes to produce. Botma (2010), for example, argues that the department's attempts to diversify its student body in terms of race and language are thrown into disarray by the bursary formula used by media organisations such as Media24. Media24 only gives bursaries to Afrikaans-speaking students who in most cases are white. This means black students, most of whom cannot speak Afrikaans and are in need of financial aid, are unable to enrol into the programme. The result is that the department has a high population of white students and very few students from other races, contrary to the department's desire to transform the racial demographics of the student body. Similarly, Diederichs (2010) also points out that TUT's programmes come under scrutiny once or twice

a year from an advisory committee made up of representatives from all sectors of the media industry. The advisory committee recommendations shape the JE&T curricula in this institution.

While the close relationship between the academe and the media industry is viewed by some scholars as both desirable and unavoidable (see Shaver, 2005:2; Wasserman, 2005:164; Rabe, 2005:23; Steenveld, 2002:88), others caution against the academe ending up as a “factory for big business” (Tomaselli cited in De Beer *et al.*, 2004:368) or as Wasserman (2005:164) describes it “a production line delivering a work force for industry”. Steenveld (2002:90), for example, argues that:

In our partnerships, we cannot let our research agenda be ‘determined’ by the narrow needs of ‘the industry’. This would be renegeing on our ethical responsibility as academics. Thus our partnerships, to be mutually beneficial have to be based on respect for our ethos, and the service we provide, rather than simply being a platform for a ‘cosy’ relationship.

Once the media industry assumes the role of setting standards⁴⁸ for JE&T curricula, the university’s critical function would cease. According to Hale (2006:6), universities are by their nature institutions of critical learning and reflection, which should produce intellectuals who are capable of challenging the “static order”. Universities should not be dictated to by industry.

Next is the analysis and discussion of the findings of sub-question 2 within the post-colonial theory, the developmental journalism model and Ubuntu philosophy respectively.

7.4.2 The post-colonial theory perspective of the findings of sub-question 2

One of the key arguments of the post-colonial theory is that colonialism did not end with the end of colonial occupation, but rather that it found new forms of expression in independent nation states (Lunga, 2008:194; Fourie, 2007a:175). Post-colonial theory’s main objective, therefore, is to interrogate these new forms of expression and expose the continued power of

⁴⁸ Wasserman’s (2005:164) main concern is that of the academe allowing the media industry to determine standards in JE&T programmes. He points to the prevailing system in South Africa in which the accreditation process for media and journalism programmes is driven by the Sector Education and Training Authorities in collaboration with industry in the form of SANEF (representation of training institutions is minor) is unacceptable. The result of all this, according to Wasserman (2005:165), is that normative standards for media and JE&T are set by the industry and a statutory board.

the colonisers, as well as show how the independent states are still dominated by the West economically, culturally and militarily (Fourie, 2007a:175). According to Wasserman (2007:10), the ultimate aim of the post-colonial theory is to restore the dignity of the vast majority of the world's population whose voices remain unheard.

The close relationship between the three JE&T programmes and a media industry which, according to Wasserman and De Beer (2005b:38), “largely operate on free market principles and according to a neo-liberal functionalist logic” would thus be interrogated by post-colonial theorists, who would point to neo-liberalism's role in the perpetuation of the misery of the poor and the marginalised (Harvey, 2005:35, 37). Neo-liberalism is an offspring of Western epistemologies which put emphasis on cause and effects, observable and measurable facts and individualism (Fourie, 2005:154). Scholarship in the Western context means being scientific and being detached from the social concerns of the day (Murphy & Scotton, 1994:39). Journalists educated in this academic tradition would, therefore, be expected to be “neutral” and “objective” in their reporting. Their task would be to report events without taking into consideration the consequences of their stories to the communities they are reporting on.

Post-colonial theorists would, thus, argue that the South African media industry is a conduit through which the West disseminates its culture, norms and values to JE&T students in the three selected programmes. This observation begs the question: To what extent are journalists produced in these three programmes geared to playing a transformative role of championing the causes of the poor and marginalised in South Africa? This is a pertinent question, especially in view of the fact that some JE&T scholars (Wasserman, 2005:163; Teer-Tomaselli & Tomaselli, 2001:123) argue that journalism's role in a transforming South Africa is to serve as a site and instrument of transformation, as well as a forum for the exchange of ideas. Wasserman (2007:12) argues that this would not materialise in a neo-liberal environment where focus is on the elites. The market-oriented media are only concerned about the well-being of the elite classes who can assure them (media) of the profits which they are pursuing (Berger cited in Von Bormann, 2004:32). As Berger notes, “the poor, rural people and minority language speakers still remain underserved by media” (cited in Von Bormann, 2004:4).

Given the above discussion, post-colonial theorists would argue that the three programmes are producing JE&T students who are geared to serve the interests of the elite and that these

students would not contribute to the restoration of the dignity of the vast majority of South Africa's poor, whose voices remain unheard (see Wasserman, 2007:10).

7.4.3 The developmental journalism perspective of the findings of sub-question 2

The findings show that the media industry influences the kind of students they want the selected JE&T programmes to produce (see 7.4.1). Those who support developmental journalism could argue that through its various forms of involvement with the programmes, the neo-liberally-driven media industry serves as a conduit through which Western values, such as individualism and competitiveness, are passed on to the students.

This close relationship between the three programmes and a media industry, which is heavily inspired by the democratic-libertarian system that is more concerned about bottom line imperatives, and not about championing the causes of the marginalised and the poor (Wasserman & De Beer, 2005a:195) would be interrogated by proponents of developmental journalism. Neo-liberalism, as shown above (7.3.3 and 7.4.2) is more oriented towards the elite, who can assure the media industry of its profits. According to Traber (cited in Papoutsaki, 2007:8), neo-liberalism also tends to serve the ruling elite by concentrating mostly on speeches and statements of the prominent people, as well as controversies surrounding politicians.

Thus proponents of developmental journalism could argue that since neo-liberalism is not concerned about championing the causes of the marginalised and the poor (Wasserman & De Beer, 2005a:195), the three programmes do not have the capacity to produce students who have the ability to mobilise the public so that they could actively participate in their own development as per the expectations of the developmental journalism model (Shah, 1996:144).

7.4.4 Ubuntu perspective of the findings of sub-question 2

The close relationship between the three selected JE&T institutions and the media industry would also be criticised by Ubuntu philosophers who would argue that producing journalists in a market-oriented environment results in journalists who are materialistic and who will pursue a story, not in the service of the community, but to attain their own glory and profits for their employers (Thloloe, 2008:135). A journalist trained in such an environment would marginalise grassroots communities instead of engaging them as would be the case with journalists operating within an Ubuntu philosophy. The perpetuation of the marginalisation of the formerly disadvantaged and marginalised, as is the case in a neo-liberal environment,

suggests a lack of concern and respect for these people. Besides, neo-liberalism, which is the bedrock on which the South African media is rooted, puts emphasis on individualism (Fourie, 2005:154), contrary to Ubuntu's philosophy to promote the collective. Ubuntu philosophers would, therefore, criticise the selected JE&T institutions for producing journalists whose orientation is towards a market-driven media industry, which has no interest in people at grassroots levels or the collective.

The analysis and discussion of findings for sub-question 3 are next.

7.5 Perceptions of journalism educators and trainers in selected tertiary institutions towards the transformation of JE&T curricula [sub-question 3]

7.5.1 Overview of major findings of sub-question 3:

Sub-question 3: What is the perception of journalism educators and trainers in the selected tertiary institutions towards the transformation of JE&T curricula in their institutions?

The findings reveal that all three programme coordinators agreed in principle that JE&T curricula in their institutions should be Africanised. However, their perceptions on what should/should not be done to Africanise the programmes differ. For Amner (2010), "Africanisation" should involve the teaching of "African philosophy and political, socio-economic and media systems", while for Botma (2010), it should not regress into nativism. Diederichs (2010) cautiously agrees to Africanisation provided the process does not threaten "basic international journalistic values". The programme coordinators' position to Africanise JE&T curricula is one they share with several African JE&T scholars (Banda, Beukes-Amiss, Bosch, Mano, McLean & Steenveld, 2007:157; Botha & De Beer, 2007:201; Rabe, 2005:3), who argue that JE&T curricula in Africa is too dependent on Western epistemologies and, therefore, should be Africanised to make it relevant to the African context.

The findings also show that all three programme coordinators are unanimous in their dismissal of the developmental journalism model as a possible normative framework for the JE&T curricula in their tertiary institutions. This negative attitude towards developmental journalism is not peculiar to the three programme coordinators. According to Banda (2006:1) and Ogan (1982:3-5), the negative attitude of many scholars towards developmental journalism in the contemporary world is as a result of the historical evolution of development communication. The modernisation paradigm, for example, resulted in the West imposing its culture and values on developing countries, while in the era of the dependency-dissociation paradigm, the post-colonial state interfered in the operations of the media for the benefit of

the elites. It is, therefore, possible that these earlier conceptualisations of developmental journalism have influenced the way the three programme coordinators perceive it. Amner (2010) alludes to this influence when he points out that he is “sceptical of approaches that subvert the autonomy and independence of journalists”.

Exploring Ubuntu philosophy as a possible normative framework for JE&T curricula in the three selected tertiary institutions was rejected by both Botma (2010) and Diederichs (2010). However, Amner (2010) felt that it could be explored as a possible normative framework for journalism curricula, but not to the exclusion of other philosophies that are found in Africa. Wasserman (2007:12) concurs with Amner’s position when he argues that indigenous knowledge systems, such as Ubuntu philosophy, are worth exploring as possible normative ethical frameworks, in order to counteract the hegemonic power of Western epistemologies in African JE&T curricula.

Next is the analysis and discussion of the findings of sub-question 3 within the post-colonial theory, the developmental journalism model and Ubuntu philosophy respectively.

7.5.2 The post-colonial theory perspective of the findings of sub-question 3

Whilst the results show that programme coordinators are agreed that JE&T curricula in African institutions should be Africanised, it is also apparent from their responses that the notion of “Africanisation” is problematic. Ramose (1998:iv) describes Africanisation as “a conscious and deliberate assertion of nothing more or less than the right to be African”. This would seem to suggest that there is an authentic and homogenous African identity, an idea which is rejected by post-colonial scholars who argue that there is no “authentic cultural identity”, but rather that national cultures and identities are hybrid by nature (Ashcroft *et al.*, 2006:137; Ahluwalia, 2001:12). According to Ahluwalia, post-colonial theory problematises the notion of a single monolithic identity, and, instead, argues in favour of multiple identities, hybridity and subjectivity. Ashcroft (1997:23-24) adds that the post-colonial theory:

... looks beyond Africa to see that African cultures share something crucial with many other cultures around the world; they share a history of colonial contact with its inevitable material effects, its conflicts, its complicities and oppositions, its filiations and affiliations. They share these things regardless of the radical specificity and differences between local cultures.

Thus, given the post-colonial theory's rejection of cultural authenticity, Amner's (2010), suggestion that the Africanisation of JE&T curricula should involve the teaching of "African philosophy and political, socio-economic and media systems" would be interrogated by the proponents of the post-colonial theory who would want to know who exactly is an African in Amner's conceptualisation. This is a valid concern as scholars have debated about what an African is. For example, More poses the question "Who or what is an African [...] in African philosophy, African humanism, African personality?"⁴⁹

According to Cabral (1974:60), African Nationalists in the 1960s urged people to return to an intact and untainted indigenous culture, an "authentic" African identity from which Africans were diverted at the time of colonialism. In Higgs' (2003:6) opinion, this was an attempt by the oppressed to "claim their own space, and their right to name the world for themselves, rather than be named through the colour-tinted glass of the Europeans". This is a stance that post-colonial theorists would find problematic as they argue that there are no pure cultures, that cultures continually make and remake themselves (Ahluwalia, 2001:9).

Botma's (2010) rejection of an Africanisation process which regresses into fundamentalism or results in a return to a "mythical past" and Diederich's rejection of a process which threatens "basic international journalistic values" resonate with the argument of the post-colonial theory because they both acknowledge the importance of taking into consideration the here and now in the Africanisation process. It could be argued that the two programme coordinators perceive the Africanisation process as not excluding Western epistemologies. It could be further argued that both Botma and Diederichs's rejection of "cultural authenticity" is no different from that of post-colonial scholars such as Bhabha (cited in Wasserman, 2007:13), who argue that "all forms of culture are continually in a process of hybridity" (Rutherford, 1990:211). They, thus, reject as dangerous the notion of "fixity" and "fetishism of identities" (Meredith, 1998:2).

⁴⁹ The conflicting perceptions of what an African is are aptly demonstrated in a debate which took place in South Africa after Thabo Mbeki in his 1998 speech declared that "I am an African". This declaration provoked a heated debate amongst South Africans, with F.W. de Klerk and other white members of the opposition parties declaring that they were also Africans, thus challenging the racialised identity that was attached to the term during the apartheid era (More, 2002:64). Professor Thobeka Mda of the University of South Africa weighed into the debate when she declared that white South Africans are Europeans, not Africans. However, Professor Pitika Ntuli, Director of the Sankofa Centre for the African Renaissance, rejected Mda's argument on the grounds that "it is not easy to trap issues of definitions in neat packages for it is the nature of cultures to be hybrid".

It has to be remembered that despite the fact that the notion of hybridity is itself a major concept of post-colonialism, it has been subjected to extensive criticism within the field of post-colonial studies (Cawley, 2011:un). Frello (2005:3) argues that the concept of hybridity, at times, in its endeavours to work in favour of the powerless and the excluded, masks unequal power relations. She cites the example of Australia where the national discourse of multiculturalism has been used to deny and gloss over the history of racism against the aboriginal population (Frello, 2005:4).

Frello's (2005:4) argument that the concept of "hybridity" has been used to further the interests of certain groups of people, is supported by Radhakrishnan (1993:755) who demonstrates how contact between two or more cultures in the name of hybridity can lead to the culture of the subordinate people being marginalised. In his argument, he notes that hybrid cultures which lean closer to Western culture on the continuum of change are more tolerated in the Western mind than those which "transgress" towards subordinate cultures, such as Islam. This is a critical observation, especially in view of the fact that some of the programme coordinators in this study propose a normative framework which is inclusive of Western epistemologies. It is critical to establish where on the continuum of change they believe Western epistemologies should be established.

Another key argument of the post-colonial theory is that practices of colonialism (apartheid) are replicated in the contemporary post-independent (post-apartheid) era (Dirlik, 2005:580; Gikandi, 2005:612; Slemon, 1991:3). As a result, post-colonial theorists would highlight similarities between colonial and apartheid practices and those of the post-apartheid era. The rejection of Ubuntu philosophy by both Botma (2010) and Diederichs (2010) as a possible normative framework, therefore, would be seen as a replication of the rejection of indigenous knowledges during the colonial and apartheid eras. According to Fourie (2007a:175), the West, through its dominance over the colonised subjects, prevented certain indigenous knowledges from being produced and disseminated. This was done so as to maintain control of the colonised subjects and ensure the dominance of the Western culture in the colonies (O'Reilly, 2001:104; Mukasa & Becker, 1992:41).

Thus, it could be argued that the findings illustrate that the West continues to control knowledge production in post-1994 South Africa, just as it did during the colonial and apartheid eras.

7.5.3 The developmental journalism model perspective of the findings of sub-question 3

According to Shah (1996:144), developmental journalism is emancipatory journalism because it empowers the people to participate actively in their development. Banda (2006:11) adds that developmental journalism is concerned with providing access to marginalised members of the society so that they can participate fully in the development of a democratic state. This is critical, especially in view of the fact that in South Africa, for over three centuries, the voices of the majority were silenced, resulting in the marginalisation of South Africa's majority (see Wasserman, 2007:1).

Like the post-colonial theorists, those who subscribe to developmental journalism would critique the notions of "Africa" and "African identity" implied in the term "Africanisation" to ascertain whether they have been conceived within a Western perspective. Ahluwalia (2001:12, 13), for example, argues that the idea of "Africa" comes from Europe and that Africa is an invention of the West's imagination. Ashcroft (1997:13) concurs when he argues that "the discourse within which our talk about something called Africa circulates entirely within the imagination of Europe". Thus, if the Africanisation process proposed by the programme coordinators is conceived within a Western discourse, those who support the developmental journalism model would reject it on the grounds that it is promoting Western culture and values whose main focus is not the poor and the marginalised, but the elite and the privileged in society (see Harvey, 2005:35, 37).

Similarly, the call by some programme coordinators for hybrid JE&T curricula, which are inclusive of Western epistemologies, would be viewed with caution by proponents of developmental journalism. This is because Western epistemologies such as libertarianism and neo-liberalism have been implicated in the perpetuation of the marginalisation of the World's poor and disadvantaged because they are market-driven (Wasserman, 2007:3, 6).

Thus, it could be argued from a developmental journalism perspective that by underpinning their curricula with Western epistemologies, these selected programmes are not educating and training journalists who would have the capacity to empower the formerly disadvantaged people of South Africa to actively participate in national and global debates via the media. The rejection of the developmental journalism model, which is perceived by its supporters as vital for promoting access to marginalised members of the society to democratisation processes, would be viewed as perpetuating the West's control on South Africa's JE&T curricula.

7.5.4 Ubuntu philosophy perspective of the findings of sub-question 3

The rejection of Ubuntu philosophy in the transformation of journalism curricula by the three programme coordinators, in favour of theoretical frameworks underpinned largely by Western epistemologies, would be criticised by Ubuntu supporters who would argue that the three programmes are not geared towards producing journalists who would take a genuine interest in the affairs of the community and the collective. According to Fourie (2007a:211, 212), proponents of Ubuntu philosophy expect journalists educated and trained under Ubuntu to put emphasis on the community's well-being. As such, these journalists are expected to think first about the effect of their stories on the community (Fourie, 2008:110-111). Fourie adds that Ubuntu-trained journalists are expected to engage members of the community and to seek their consensus before publishing a story about them (2008:109). That way, the reporter would avoid harming the community.

Thus, the privileging of Western epistemologies over Ubuntu philosophy would be criticised by supporters of Ubuntu who would point out that Western epistemologies put emphasis on the interests of the individual and not the collective (Louw, 1999:4). While Western epistemologies uphold values such as “objectivity” and “detachment”, all of which are considered hallmarks of good journalism (Jones & Pitcher, 2010:109; Knight, 2010:47; Tumber & Prentoulis, 2005:63), Ubuntu considers them unnecessary (Akimbo cited in Fourie, 2007b:1).

A key tenet of Ubuntu expressed by Louw (1999:4) is that:

Ubuntu dictates that if we are human, we need to recognise the genuine otherness of our fellow citizens [...] we need to acknowledge the diversity of languages, histories, values and customs, all of which constitute South African society.

However, Western epistemologies are more concerned about the individual and the elite who have the means to keep media businesses viable. Thus, by promoting Western values over indigenous ones, proponents of Ubuntu could argue that the three programme coordinators are not acknowledging the diversity of cultures that characterise South Africa.

The analysis and discussion of findings for sub-question 4 are next.

7.6 Taking cognisance of the diversity of the South African society [sub-question 4]

7.6.1 Overview of major findings of sub-question 4:

Sub-question 4: Do the selected journalism programmes in the selected tertiary institutions take cognisance of the diverse nature of the South African society (that is, what are the demographics of the student cohort and faculty in these programmes)?

The findings show that there are more female students than male students in all three selected programmes. This finding reflects the enrolment status quo prevailing in public higher education institutions in South Africa in general and the selected tertiary institutions in particular. The 2009 Hemis database puts the total enrolment of female students for all public higher institutions in South Africa at 57.1% (Department of Basic Education, 2010:28). This figure shows an increase from the 43% recorded in 1993 and 52% in 1999 (Council on Higher Education, 1999:18). In the selected tertiary institutions, the overall enrolment of female students in 2009 for each institution stood at 59% (RU), 52% (SU) and 53% (TUT) (Department of Basic Education, 2010:28).

Of interest to note is that the phenomenon of female students being more than male students in South African institutions of higher learning in general and the selected JE&T programmes in particular, is not peculiar to South Africa alone. The SADC Gender Protocol Barometer (Morna & Walter, 2009:76) notes that besides South Africa, four other countries in the region, namely Botswana, Mauritius, Namibia and Seychelles, have a higher proportion of females in tertiary institutions than males. With regards to JE&T, Elmore (2008:un) points out that female students in the USA journalism schools have outnumbered males for three decades. The Columbia Journalism School in its welcome address to the 2012 newly admitted students also revealed that 61% of the students admitted to their MS class were females as opposed to 39% males. For their MA class, 59% were females, while 41% were males. This dominance of females in tertiary education is critical given that university education is a likely path to leadership positions or other positions of influence (Morna & Walter, 2009:76).

The findings also reveal that male fulltime lecturers outnumber female fulltime lecturers by a large margin. The 2009 Hemis database shows that the underrepresentation of females is not only a problem in the selected JE&T programmes, but is a national one as well. For example, the Hemis database shows that female academics make up 36% of the total RU academic staff, 39% of SU and 39% of TUT (Department of Basic Education, 2010:40). This is also in

line with overall national statistics which show that in 1994, female academic staff made up 34% of the lecturing staff and that this number rose to 44% in 2009 (Mabizela, 2011:un).

A further analysis of the data shows that, whilst female academics are on the whole underrepresented in the three programmes, black women⁵⁰ are still grossly underrepresented as academic staff. The white fulltime female members of staff are more than all the females from other races put together. This result shows that black women will, therefore, also be at the bottom of the ladder in so far as being awarded positions to lecture in the journalism programmes is concerned.

With regards to race, the findings show that white students are in the majority in two of the programmes, namely RU and SU, while black students are an overwhelming majority at TUT. This is cause for concern, especially if one considers the racial composition of the South African society which Statistics South Africa's mid-year population estimates for 2011 put at 79.5% Africans, 9% Coloureds, 9% Whites, and 2.5% Indian/Asian (Statistics South Africa, 2011:6). The imbalances in the enrolment of black students in the three programmes is reflected in the total enrolment figures for the three institutions, which in 2009 stood at 57% RU, 32% SU and 91% TUT (Department of Basic Education, 2010:28).

Amongst academic members of staff, the picture emerging from the results is that, overall, white fulltime academics are almost twice as many as the other races put together in all three programmes. This would seem to suggest that racially, the selected departments have not transformed and that this is a national problem because statistics show that in 1994 white fulltime academic staff made up 80% of the total, Africans 12%, Coloureds 4%, and Indians 4%. In 2009, whilst there was an improvement in the racial composition of staff, white academic staff still made up 57% of the total, Africans, 28%, Indians, 9%, and Coloureds, 6% (Mabizela, 2011:un).

Finally, the findings show that none of the selected programmes taught students how to report in indigenous languages. The reasons for the absence of this component in JE&T, as pointed out by some of the programme coordinators include, among others, resistance from students who believe that indigenous language reporting would not enhance their marketability on the

⁵⁰ The term black in this particular instance includes Asians, Blacks and Coloureds because of the small numbers involved.

job market, lack of institutional and government support, and lack of skills among staff to teach courses in indigenous language reporting.

Whilst acknowledging that there are challenges in introducing indigenous language reporting in the journalism classroom, it is important to note that there is a considerable increase in the use of indigenous languages in both radio broadcasting and print media in South Africa. In order to fulfil its democratic mandate, the ANC government introduced public radio stations throughout the country to cater for each one of the eleven official languages in the country. The largest is Ukhozi FM, the SABC isiZulu cultural service with 6.38million listeners a week (South African Public Broadcasting Radio Stations, ud).

The print media publications written in indigenous languages also continue to increase in numbers (Audit Bureau of Circulation in South Africa, 2011:un). For example, in 2010 the *Sunday Times* launched a Zulu edition of itself (News24, 2010). The Audit Bureau of Circulation in South Africa (ABC) in its 2011 third quarter report shows that vernacular language titles increased overall by 9.3% in copy sales compared to English and Afrikaans titles, which declined by 7% and 4.3% respectively.⁵¹ The ABC concluded that, overall, vernacular newspaper titles show a solid and consistent growth while English and Afrikaans titles (except for *Beeld*) continue to decline.

Next is the analysis and discussion of the findings of sub-question 4 within the post-colonial theory, the developmental journalism model and Ubuntu philosophy respectively.

7.6.2 The post-colonial theory perspective of the findings of sub-question 4

A key concern of the post-colonial theory is to challenge any master narratives and expose the continued inequalities and discriminations masked by these narratives (Wasserman, 2007:10; Dirlik, 2005:565). Post-colonial feminist criticism argues that even though both colonialism and patriarchy have been closely entwined historically, an end to colonialism did not mean an end to the oppression of women in former colonies (O'Reilly, 2001:111). Because of that, the post-colonial feminist theory would interrogate the gender demographics which show that more females than males are enrolled in the JE&T programmes of selected

⁵¹ ABC shows that the daily newspaper *Isolezwe* is the second ranked in copy sales after the *Daily Sun* and that it increased its circulation figures by 9.1% while the *Daily Sun* decreased by 8.95%, *Son* (daily) by 9.28%, *Sowetan*, 5.61% and *The Star*, 15.09%. A similar trend is evident among the six largest weekend papers in which *Ilanga Langesonto* is the only one to show growth at 6.45%, whilst all the others, including the *Sunday Times*, *Sunday Sun*, *Rapport*, *City Press* and *Sunday World* all declined by 0.40%, 3.49%, 7.33%, 6.02% and 9.37% respectively. Of the weekly newspapers, *Ilanga*, which is ranked second ahead of the *Mail & Guardian*, increased by 16.5%.

institutions. The question that the post-colonialist feminists would pose is whether this dominance of female students in JE&T programmes translates itself into meaningful transformation in the lives of women who suffered “double colonisation” (Ashcroft *et al.*, 2006:233) during the colonial and apartheid eras.

Post-colonial feminist theorists would also see the underrepresentation of women as lecturers in the JE&T programmes as a duplication of the way women were marginalised as academics prior to 1994. They would, therefore, argue that the inequalities and discrepancies suffered by women during the colonial/apartheid era are replicated in the post-apartheid era. Thus post-colonial theorists would argue that increasing the number of females enrolling into JE&T programmes is not enough to address the structural inequities they suffered under the “double colonisation” of both colonialism and patriarchy (Ashcroft *et al.*, 2006:233).

Post-colonialist feminists would argue that to bring meaningful transformation to women in tertiary education in general and JE&T programmes in particular, there is need to transcend the demographics and address issues of structural inequities in groups that have historically been socially and economically disadvantaged (Anderson *et al.*, 2007:178). According to Lumphondwana (2002:30), gender equality will only be achieved when the underlying causes of discrimination are uncovered. This means that having more females enrolling in a programme will not transform women’s lives. There is thus a serious need to interrogate the discourses that are prevalent in JE&T curricula to ensure that women’s voices are properly articulated. This is because if JE&T programmes ignore the discriminatory discourses embedded in the curriculum, education can become an agent of oppression in the way it “interfaces with and defines economic, political, cultural and affective relations” (Lynch & Baker cited in Joseph, 2005:14).

Post-colonialist feminist theorists would also point out that just as black women suffered “racial inferiorization and gender subordination” and were “at the bottom of the human ladder”, so are they in the post-apartheid era (Mohanty, 2006:244; Oyewumi, 2006:256). This is why post-colonial feminists caution against treating women as a homogenous group and point out that black women suffered worse discrimination than their white counterparts. Thus, while it is acknowledged that women of all races suffered discrimination within their societies, it is important that in the process of transformation, black women’s added discrimination during the colonial and apartheid eras be recognised. The underrepresentation of black women as academics in the selected programmes would thus be taken as the

perpetuation of the double discrimination they suffered during the colonial and apartheid eras.

The lack of faculty racial transformation in two of these institutions would also come under scrutiny from post-colonialists who would take the situation as a duplication of racism, which was prevalent in higher education institutions during the apartheid era (Department of Education, 2008: 57-60). The dominance of men, especially white males, in these institutions is a replication of the colonial and apartheid eras in which higher education institutions were dominated by white males. This would seem to suggest that the dominant voice in South Africa's institutions of higher learning is still that of white males, as was the case prior to 1994. This would raise questions about whether the epistemologies underpinning the higher education landscape in general and JE&T in particular are significantly transformed or different to those which prevailed before democratisation in 1994.

Another finding which post-colonialists would want to interrogate is the absence of indigenous language reporting in all three programmes. Wa Thiongo (1986a:16), for example, argues that the continued use of the languages of the coloniser is evidence of the continued attempts by the former coloniser to dominate "the mental universe of the colonised". Fanon also argues that adopting the language and representational forms of the coloniser alienates the colonised subject from her/his culture (1986:18, 25). According to Wa Thiongo (1986a:4), language is a fundamental component of a people's identity and culture and is intricately interwoven with a people's self-definition of themselves in relation to the whole world. Language embodies within itself the values and norms of people who speak it; it is not just a medium of communication, but it is a conduit through which cultural heritage is transmitted from generation to generation (Ramphela, 2009:un).

The exclusion, therefore, of indigenous languages in the education and training of journalists and the continued use of English and Afrikaans would be seen as perpetuating the "neo-colonial slavish and cringing spirit" at a cultural level (Wa Thiongo, 1986a:26). Botha (2007a:203) argues, for instance, that the use of European languages such as English, French and Portuguese to construct curricula and syllabi in many of the higher education institutions in South Africa, spread Western educational traditions in African higher education systems.

Thus it could be argued by these post-colonialists that the continued use of English and Afrikaans in the training of journalists is perpetuating the colonial and apartheid traditions. It

is for this reason that Wa Thiongo (1986a:16) calls for the use of indigenous languages as a way of continuing the anti-imperialist struggles by African people in order to restore their pride and reclaim their dignity.

However, the post-colonial theory's tendency to challenge master narratives would lead to post-colonialists questioning whether writing in indigenous language(s) spoken by the people in their localities would "itself bring about the renaissance in African cultures" (Wa Thiongo, 2006:267). According to Wa Thiongo, this is not possible unless the reporter's productive forces are liberated from foreign control (Wa Thiongo, 2006:267). Wa Thiongo's own works, for example, *Devil on the Cross* (1982), *I Will Mary When I Want* (1982) and *Matigari* (1986b), which were originally written in Gikuyu, a major Kenyan indigenous language, grew out of foreign ideologies such as the Marxist-Leninist ideology, Christianity and Feminism, which are alien to Africa. Thus it could be concluded that using an indigenous language is no guarantee that the African world view will be transmitted.

7.6.3 The developmental journalism perspective of the findings of sub-question 4

With regards to more women being enrolled than men in the three selected programmes, supporters of developmental journalism would cautiously applaud this as a positive move towards advancing South Africa's democracy. However, improving access to education for women should be taken as only one indicator of development, which at face value may suggest that South Africa is undergoing profound transformation in as far as gender equality is concerned. According to Lufhondwana (2002:31), a fundamental tenet of South Africa's democracy is the promotion of gender equality, which is also enshrined in the country's constitution.

However, as Ranchod-Nilsson (2006:51) observes, increased access to education by women does not translate itself into gender equality.⁵² This could explain why despite the increased numbers of female students in South African universities in general, and the selected JE&T programmes in particular, females are still underrepresented as academics in tertiary institutions. The world of academia is a masculine space as seen by the dominance of male academics, especially white males. As shown above, males, in particular white males,

⁵² Ranchod-Nilsson carried out a study on Zimbabwe's gendered social and political transformation in the post-1980 era and came to the conclusion that despite the increased access by women into institutions such as health and education, the Zimbabwean women did not in reality enjoy any meaningful transformation because of several factors such as patriarchy and the increasingly authoritarian government.

dominated in 1994 and they still dominate almost eighteen years after in the world of academia.

In that respect developmental journalism theorists would argue that the transformation that has taken place has been very superficial because black academics and women have not been given meaningful roles to actively participate in the transformation of the higher education institutions. Higher education institutions are generally still racialised and masculine spaces. The dominant voices are still those of men, especially white males. Black women, who during colonial and apartheid times were at the bottom of the social ladder, continue to be relegated to the position of the inferior Other. One could, therefore, argue that JE&T curricula are not promoting the active participation of black academics in general and black women in particular.

Closely related to this argument is the issue of indigenous language reporting. The findings reveal that none of the three programmes educates and trains students to report in indigenous languages. According to Megwa (2001:282), English and Afrikaans dominate as languages of reporting because of an economic model, which puts monetary value on information. This is because English and Afrikaans, to a certain extent, are spoken mostly by those who can assure media organisations of the profits they want. Thus according to Megwa, the languages of the poor rural people who cannot pay for information are ignored.

This effectively means that the majority of South Africans who are expected to participate in national discourses are excluded from them. Information comes to them in languages that they might not understand well and, as a result, they are not properly informed (Megwa, 2001:282). Only the use of indigenous languages in the media will ensure that the formerly marginalised and disadvantaged people of South Africa are given a voice to participate actively in the democratisation processes in their countries.

Curran (2002:225), for example, points out that:

The media [journalists] briefs the electorate and assist voters to make an informed choice at election time [...] Above all, the media provide a forum of debate in which people can identify problems, propose solutions, reach agreement and guide the public direction of society.

By doing all this, the media are effectively developing the people's intellect so that they can participate fully in national discourses. Proponents of developmental journalism would, thus, argue that there is a strong case for the education and training of journalists to report in indigenous languages. By not training journalists to package information in languages that are accessible to the majority, supporters of this model would argue that the selected programmes are contributing to the marginalisation of South Africa's formerly disadvantaged people in South Africa.

7.6.4 Ubuntu philosophy perspective on the findings of sub-question 4

A major principle of Ubuntu's is that "whatever happens to the individual happens to the whole group, and whatever happens to the whole group happens to the individual" (Mbiti, 1970:108). The increased access to tertiary education in general, and JE&T programmes in particular by females could be explained from an Ubuntu perspective as respect (a key element in Ubuntu) for the ability of women to contribute to the field of journalism (see Olinger, Britz & Olivier, 2007:8-10; Beets & Le Grange, 2005:1202).

However, as the post-colonial theory has revealed, respect for women should transcend demographics. Merely increasing the number of women in the classroom and not giving them meaningful positions in society (as seen in the underrepresentation of women as academics) would be interpreted by Ubuntu proponents as failure by the three programmes to recognise the humanness of women, a fundamental value in Ubuntu.

The lack of training of journalists to report in indigenous languages in the three selected programmes also means that journalists trained in these institutions use languages that the majority of people do not understand or speak. Consequently, Ubuntu philosophers would argue that journalists produced in these three programmes cannot engage people at grassroots levels or seek their consensus on issues that concern them. This could be viewed by Ubuntu supporters as one sure way of perpetuating the exclusion of the majority of the South Africans from both national and global media discourses. Megwa (2001:282) points out that the majority of South Africans, most of whom stay in the rural areas, do not speak, read or understand English and Afrikaans (2001:282), and yet both languages dominate the print and television broadcast media in South Africa (Thorpe, 2002:un). From an Ubuntu perspective, it would appear, therefore, that JE&T in the three institutions are producing journalists who are not equipped linguistically to engage communities at grassroots levels.

Whilst proponents of Ubuntu philosophy could argue that training journalists to only report in English and Afrikaans, languages not spoken by the majority of South Africans, the three selected programmes are not producing journalists who would effectively mobilise and engage the black majority to actively participate in both national and global discourses, the complexities of doing so have to be acknowledged. Botma (2010), for example, identifies one of the complexities when he notes that in the SU journalism classroom, “too many indigenous languages are represented in the classroom”, thus begging the question: Which one does the department choose without appearing to be privileging one particular indigenous language over others?

Besides, the School/Departments need to contend with possible negative attitudes of students towards indigenous languages, which, unlike English and Afrikaans, they do not consider to be languages of power and progress (see Salawu, 2006:55). According to Salawu, English and Western education remain the vehicles of power and progress in life and, because of that, people tend to have a negative attitude towards indigenous languages and the roles assigned to them in the public domain. Botma (2010) also observes these negative attitudes amongst the SU journalism students whom, he says, resisted the introduction of indigenous language reporting because they believed that it would not enhance their marketability in the job market.

Despite these complexities, advocates of Ubuntu philosophy would still argue that Ubuntu would encourage journalists to acknowledge the diversity of “languages, histories, values and customs, all of which constitute South African society” (Louw, 1999:4). The absence of indigenous language reporting in the selected JE&T programmes, therefore, would lead the supporters of Ubuntu philosophy to the conclusion that the three programmes had failed to cater for the diversity of South Africa’s languages and that this is proof that they are not acknowledging the humanness of the majority of South Africans.

7.7 Summary of the chapter

In this chapter, the central research question, broken down into four sub-questions posed in chapter one of this study, are answered. The findings were analysed and discussed within the framework of three theoretical perspectives, namely the post-colonial theory (together with its sub-theory, post-colonial feminist theory), the developmental journalism model and Ubuntu philosophy. In the next chapter, conclusions based on the findings of the study are drawn and recommendations for further study made.

Chapter 8: Conclusions and Recommendations

8.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher draws conclusions based on the findings of the study and then makes recommendations for further study. The aim of this study was to establish whether JE&T curricula in the three selected tertiary institutions address challenges in a transforming post-1994 South Africa. To achieve this aim, four research questions were posed in Chapter 1.3.4. A collective case study, consisting of three programmes, namely the PGDip (RU), the BPhil (SU) and the BTech (TUT) programmes, was conducted, in order to obtain answers to the research questions.

A comprehensive literature review was conducted and a mixed-method approach, which utilised both qualitative and quantitative approaches, was used to collect data. On one hand, qualitative data were collected through use of programme documents from the selected journalism tertiary institutions and a semi-structured questionnaire, which was distributed to programme coordinators. On the other, quantitative data were obtained through the semi-structured questionnaire which was completed by students in the selected programmes. The strength of the mixed method approach, in this study, lay in the fact that the different sources of collecting data complemented each other. For example, programme documents obtained from TUT were not detailed enough to allow the researcher to do a comprehensive analysis of the programme. This limitation was, to a certain extent, made up for in the programme coordinators' and students' responses.

The qualitative data obtained from the programme documents and semi-structured questionnaires were analysed using qualitative content analysis, while data from the structured questionnaire were analysed using the statistical package SPSS version 18.

The findings of the study were discussed within the framework of the reviewed literature, as well as three theoretical frameworks, namely, the post-colonial theory (together with its sub-theory, the post-colonial feminist theory), the developmental journalism model and Ubuntu philosophy. In the following section, a brief summary of the findings of the study is given.

8.2 Overview of the findings

The findings show that all three programmes teach theory of practice and critical theory, though TUT focuses more on the former than the latter. The findings also show that the

selected programmes rely heavily on Western published books to teach theory of practice, thus showing that they are rooted in Western epistemologies.

The three programmes also have a close, but uneasy relationship with the media industry. This is evident in the fact that students in RU and SU programmes do internships/experiential learning in the industry, while most of the BTech (TUT) students are in fact already working in the media industry as journalists and communication officers (see chapter 6.3.3.1). Some of the students in the selected programmes are also sponsored by the media industry for their studies while some of the teachers who teach in these programmes are drawn from the media industry. However, except for TUT, which invites the media industry to the annual review of its programmes, RU and SU programmes are regularly reviewed internally by members of staff; the interaction with the media industry is informal for both tertiary institutions. Thus, both RU and SU claim that they maintain their theoretical independence, resulting in tensions between the two Departments and the media industry.

The findings also show that the programme coordinators of the selected programmes are not averse to the Africanisation of the JE&T curricula as long as it does not degenerate into fundamentalism or threaten international journalistic values and principles. Developmental journalism was rejected by all three programme coordinators, while only one programme coordinator (Amner, 2010) believed that Ubuntu philosophy can be explored as a possible normative framework for South African journalism.

The findings also revealed that there were more female students than male students enrolled in these programmes. However, fulltime male academics were almost twice as many as fulltime female members of staff. Racially, the study revealed that for two of the programmes, the PGDip (RU) and BPhil (SU), there were more white students than other races put together, while the BTech (TUT) had more black students than other races. Regarding fulltime academic staff, the study revealed that white fulltime academics dominated the other racial groups by a large margin. The findings also showed that black fulltime female academics (that is all racial groups excluding white female academics) were underrepresented in all three programmes. White fulltime female lecturers were more than fulltime female lecturers of other races put together. With regards to indigenous language reporting, none of the selected programmes taught students to report in these languages.

In the next section conclusions based on the findings of this study are discussed. These conclusions are addressed in terms of the research questions and presented in the order in which they are presented in chapter 1.3.4 of this study.

8.3 Conclusions

8.3.1 Conclusions to sub-question 1

Sub-question 1: What are the epistemological and theoretical underpinnings of journalism curricula in the selected tertiary institutions?

Since 1994, the de-Westernisation of JE&T curricula in South African tertiary institutions has been a topical issue among JE&T scholars. However, this study concludes that beyond the many conferences and colloquia held in the country, as well as the many papers published on the subject, JE&T scholars have not designed a JE&T model for South African journalism schools as evidenced by the fact that the selected programmes are still deeply entrenched in Western epistemologies almost sixteen years after the introduction of democracy in 1994. The findings also lead the researcher to conclude that the heavy dependency on Western published textbooks and research, as well as the dominance of Western-trained educators and trainers in these programmes, stand in the way of de-Westernising the programmes in the selected tertiary institutions.

From a post-colonial theoretical point of view, the researcher concludes that the reliance on Western published textbooks and Western trained lecturers is a replication in contemporary times of the colonial and apartheid eras when the West was in control of knowledge production and reproduction. Politically, the West might have relinquished power in South Africa, but intellectually, it is still in control. Through the control of knowledge production and reproduction, in contemporary times, the West continues to define South Africa's social institutions, JE&T included.

While proponents of the post-colonial theory, developmental journalism and Ubuntu philosophy might conclude that journalism students produced in the three programmes are not equipped to take up the causes of the poor and marginalised in South Africa, the researcher would advise caution in interpreting these findings as no studies have been done by JE&T scholars in South Africa to establish if, indeed, graduates of the so-called market-driven Western journalism programmes are incapable of contributing effectively to democratisation and transformation in South Africa. Moreover, claims by some JE&T scholars that developmental journalism and Ubuntu philosophy are the ideal

model/philosophy for the production of graduates who would effectively contribute to the democratisation of South Africa, cannot be substantiated in the absence of studies in which these are tested.

8.3.2 Conclusions to sub-question 2

Sub-question 2: What role does the media industry play in shaping the JE&T curricula of the selected tertiary institutions?

The researcher concludes that the media industry is an important constituency in determining the kind of graduate emerging from these institutions. JE&T institutions depend on the media industry to fund the studies of and employ graduates from these institutions. The researcher also concludes that the media industry has an influence on the curricula of the three tertiary institutions, though in varying degrees. For RU and SU, the influence is not overt as the media industry interacts with these tertiary institutions informally. However, this is not to say that the industry's suggestions are ignored, as it would be futile for JE&T schools to transform and produce journalists who are expected to do things differently from the media industry's expectations (see Wasserman, 2005:164). In TUT, the media industry's influence is more overt as representatives from all sectors of the media industry sit on the advisory board which reviews the curriculum annually.

The researcher concludes that the different epistemological foci pursued by TUT, which is a university of technology, makes it more inclined to work closely with the media industry as its mandate is to produce graduates who are career-focused, whereas RU and SU are traditional universities whose main agenda is to maintain a critical distance between themselves and the media industry.

Moreover, post-colonial theorists and developmental journalism and Ubuntu proponents would conclude that by working closely with a neo-liberally-driven media industry, JE&T tertiary institutions in South Africa are producing graduates who focus more on the interests and voices of the elite rather than the poor. This is because some scholars have argued that neo-liberalism is implicated in the perpetuation of the marginalisation of the world's poor and disadvantaged (Wasserman, 2007:3, 6; Harvey, 2005:35, 37). However, to substantiate these claims, the researcher concludes that studies would have to be carried out to ascertain whether graduates of these three neo-liberally-driven programmes are incapable of articulating the concerns of the poor and marginalised.

8.3.3 Conclusions to sub-question 3

Sub-question 3: What is the perception of journalism educators and trainers in the selected tertiary institutions towards the transformation of JE&T curricula in their institutions?

Given the findings for this research question, the study concludes that the programme coordinators, while not averse to the transformation of the JE&T curricula, are generally not keen on radical changes to the already existing epistemological framework. What they envisage is a transformation which affords space for Western epistemologies. They seem to be comfortable with changes which conform to the existing system, rather than structural ones.

The study concludes that there are different understandings of what entails the transformation of JE&T in South Africa. The programme coordinators were generally not keen on exploring developmental journalism and Ubuntu philosophy as theoretical frameworks for JE&T curricula in South Africa. From a post-colonial theoretical perspective, one could conclude that the dismissal by some of the programme coordinators of the developmental journalism model and Ubuntu philosophy as possible normative frameworks for JE&T in South Africa is perpetuating the pre-democracy status quo in JE&T tertiary institutions and entrenching the West's influence on JE&T curricula in South Africa. Prior to 1994, South Africa's JE&T tertiary institutions were influenced by Western epistemologies (see chapter 3.3.2 of this study) and indigenous knowledges were excluded from colonial and apartheid knowledge systems.

However, this interpretation of the programme coordinators' views has to be taken cautiously as these views were gathered from only three scholars, one from each JE&T tertiary institution. The small size of the sample might mean that these views are not representative of the South African JE&T scholars in general. A study with a larger sample of scholars would need to be carried out to determine the views of South Africa JE&T scholars on utilising developmental journalism and Ubuntu philosophy as theoretical frameworks for JE&T curricula in South Africa.

8.3.4 Conclusions to sub-question 4

Sub-question 4: Do the selected journalism programmes in the selected tertiary institutions take cognisance of the diverse nature of the South African society?

The findings for the fourth research question led the researcher to the conclusion that the selected programmes have not done much to consider South Africa's diversity in their

curricula. It is important, however, to acknowledge that in terms of gender, the student body in the selected programmes has diversified in line with the gender composition of the South African population. More female students than males were enrolled in the programmes in 2010 at the time data were collected. However, the researcher concludes that this change is not fundamental enough, especially in view of the fact that women are underrepresented as academics in all three programmes. Thus one can conclude that meaningful transformation in so far as gender is concerned, has not taken place in these programmes.

Similarly, the researcher concludes that racial diversity in the selected programmes has not been given serious consideration. Black students in the RU and SU selected programmes are underrepresented, while at TUT they are overrepresented. The racial representation of students in all three programmes is skewed and does not reflect the racial composition of the South African population. This problem, it has to be noted, however, is not confined to the three programmes being studied, but it is also reflected in the total enrolment figures of the three institutions within which these programmes are situated (Department of Basic Education, 2010:28), possibly suggesting that this is more of an institutional problem than a problem of the three JE&T programmes.

The dominance of white males as fulltime members of staff led the researcher to the conclusion that the dominant perspective in JE&T is not only masculine but it is white as well. This conclusion is further buttressed by the fact that none of the programmes teach students to report in indigenous languages, yet evidence shows that there is an increase in the use of indigenous languages in both radio broadcasting and print media in South Africa. Students are only trained to report in English and Afrikaans, languages which the majority of South Africans might not understand well.

From a post-colonial theoretical perspective, this study concludes that apartheid is still being perpetuated through the dominance of the white males' voices, as was the case prior to 1994. The exclusion of indigenous languages in the education and training of journalists and the continued use of English and Afrikaans would lead post-colonialists to conclude that principles and values of apartheid are still being perpetuated in the selected programmes. The researcher further concludes that meaningful transformation has not yet taken place in these programmes as black voices are still muted almost sixteen years after democratisation was introduced in South Africa.

From both the developmental journalism model and Ubuntu philosophy perspective, the study concludes that the privileging of the white and male voice at the expense of the majority black and female voice means that the latter has been marginalised in the development of the JE&T curricula in these institutions.

The study also concludes that by not educating and training journalists to report in indigenous languages, the three programmes have not exorcised themselves of the colonial and apartheid tradition of marginalising South Africa's black majority who cannot speak or understand English and Afrikaans well. Journalists educated and trained in these programmes are supposedly not equipped to engage communities at grassroots levels, who, according to Megwa (2001:282), cannot speak English and Afrikaans. This means that the majority of South Africans cannot exercise their democratic rights because information is packaged in languages that they do not understand well.

The researcher further concludes that the marginalisation of the black and female voices in the selected programmes is indicative of the fact that these programmes are not sensitive to the diversity of South Africa's people. As Louw (1999:4) points out, "Ubuntu dictates that, if we are to be human, we need to recognize the genuine otherness of our fellow citizens [...] we need to acknowledge the diversity of languages, histories, values and customs, all of which constitute South African society". The failure, therefore, by the selected JE&T programmes to cater for South Africa's diversity in terms of gender, race and languages leads the researcher to the conclusion that the selected programmes are not acknowledging the humanness of the majority of South Africans.

In the next section, the limitations of the study are discussed.

8.4 Limitations of the study

A number of limitations and shortcomings need to be noted regarding this study. Firstly, a sample comprising three programmes in three universities was used in the study. This means that caution must be applied in interpreting the findings as these cannot be generalised to other JE&T tertiary institutions in South Africa. To generalise to a larger population, the study should have involved more JE&T institutions in the country.

A second major shortcoming of the study is related to the failure by the researcher to access detailed TUT programme documents and related documents. A mixed method approach,

which comprised of programme documents, semi-structured questionnaires and structured questionnaires for programme coordinators and students respectively had been selected for the study with the aim of ensuring that the findings from one method were confirmed by findings from a different data source (Creswell, 2003:16). According to Creswell (2003:15), the mixed method approach is meant to address the “biases inherent in any single method [and to] neutralize or cancel the biases of other methods”. The value of the programme documents lies in the fact that they are “unobtrusive and non-reactive” in nature (Wigston, 2009:33), unlike people who might provide information they think the researcher wants, rather than what they really believe in.

The absence, therefore, of the TUT programme documents means that the researcher had to rely on information gathered from its programme coordinator and students only. Whilst valuable information was gathered from these sources, it has to be acknowledged that their views are strictly a reflection of individual perspectives/biases and not necessarily a reflection of institutional or departmental policies of this institution. Thus, because of the lack of TUT programme documents, the researcher could not get a comprehensive picture of JE&T curricula in that tertiary institution. Firm conclusions on the state of JE&T in that tertiary institution, therefore, could not be drawn. Findings pertaining to TUT must, therefore, be interpreted taking that limitation into account.

Lastly, the absence of a Black English-oriented university is a major weakness of the study, given that race and language are key variables in South Africa’s historical development. However, as stated in chapter 5 (5.5.2) of this study, everything possible was done to include a Black English-oriented university, but with little success. This means that conclusions drawn from the three tertiary institutions examined in this study are only derived from a former English-language university, a former Afrikaans-language university and a University of Technology (former technikon). None of the findings relate to a Black English-oriented university.

In the next section, recommendations of the study are made on the basis of the conclusions.

8.5 Recommendations for JE&T

- Since 1994, several conferences and colloquia have been held to discuss the need to design a model JE&T curriculum for South Africa. However, beyond talking and

writing papers about the need to de-Westernise the South African JE&T curricula, nothing has been done so far to put one in place as revealed by the findings of this study. The researcher, therefore, recommends that South African JE&T educators and trainers should introduce a series of workshops to discuss a possible model curriculum for JE&T for South African journalism schools. A series of workshops is recommended as curriculum development is a process, which cannot be done in a single workshop. South African journalism scholars cannot continue to talk and not act.

- The researcher further recommends that during these workshops, activities that aim to help journalism educators and trainers to undergo a radical mindset change should be done. In the absence of the transformation of the minds of lecturing staff, the transformation of the JE&T curricula might not be possible.
- Because of the similarities in the historical and socio-political environment of southern African countries, the researcher recommends that JE&T scholars in southern Africa should also explore the possibility of a model JE&T curriculum that would be applicable to the whole region.
- The findings revealed that one of the major hindrances to de-Westernising South African JE&T curricula is the lack of African/South African research and textbooks written by African scholars for the African continent. Western published textbooks were written with a Western environment in mind. The fact that this current study is possibly the first of its kind in JE&T in South Africa, testifies to the dearth of scholarship in JE&T in the country. The researcher recommends that South African JE&T scholars should embark on an aggressive training programme in which potential researchers can be identified among journalism students. South African journalism institutions should invest in young researchers in order to enrich South African scholarship.
- The findings also showed that gender and race issues are not given much prominence in the selected programmes. Thus, in the process of identifying future potential JE&T scholars, the researcher recommends that gender and race should be major criteria for the selection of these young scholars, so as to reflect the demographic composition of the South African population.
- The researcher also recommends that JE&T tertiary institutions be more pro-active about the issue of educating and training students to report in indigenous languages.

This is in view of the fact that the majority of the South Africans do not speak English and Afrikaans, which are the main languages of reporting in South Africa. The researcher acknowledges that there are challenges in introducing indigenous languages in JE&T in South Africa. However, by not making an effort to do so, JE&T tertiary institutions leave themselves open to criticism that their programmes are no different from those of the colonial and apartheid eras.

8.6 Summary of contributions

Notwithstanding the limitations of this study, the findings from this study add to the body of literature on JE&T in South Africa. Firstly, existing literature shows that there are no studies on JE&T curricula in South Africa. None of the studies done since 1994 have made an attempt to show how a transforming South Africa is reflected in JE&T curricula. Most of the studies done in South Africa have focused on journalism practice in the media industry (see chapter 1.1). The discourse of JE&T has largely been theoretical and commentary. This study, therefore, has contributed to knowledge on JE&T in South Africa by adding empirical findings to test transformation and blended this with theory. Its findings, though not generalisable to all JE&T institutions in South Africa, indicate the challenges that these tertiary institutions face in their endeavours to transform their curricula.

Secondly, the study exposes the shortcomings of JE&T programmes at three universities examined with respect to their specific programmes and their contributions in a transforming country. It would appear from the findings that the selected programmes are still heavily reliant on Western epistemologies almost sixteen years after the introduction of democracy in 1994.

Further to that, meaningful gender and race transformation has not taken place in these programmes, pointing to the urgent need to review the programmes of these three tertiary institutions, and probably those of other tertiary institutions involved in the education and training of journalists in South Africa.

Lastly, as will be shown in the next section, this study has raised questions which have opened up new avenues for further study.

8.7 Suggestions for further research

- The current study focused only on three JE&T tertiary institutions, namely, RU, SU and TUT. The study was further narrowed down to specific programmes in these tertiary institutions, meaning that the findings, while valuable to JE&T research in South Africa, cannot be generalised to other institutions. There is, therefore, room to expand the study to a much wider population of JE&T tertiary institutions in South Africa so as to get a more comprehensive picture of the state of JE&T in South Africa.
- The current study focused on three different types of JE&T tertiary institutions, namely an English-language university, an Afrikaans-language university and a University of Technology. Whilst this study revealed useful information on the status of JE&T curricula in tertiary institutions in South Africa, it did not attempt to compare the different types of institutions to establish whether different historical cultures have an influence in the manner in which these institutions are transforming their curricula. There is, therefore, room to carry out a study in which institutions of the same type are compared and then broader comparisons between institutions of different historical cultures are made.
- While the study reveals that the JE&T curricula of the three universities are still informed by Western epistemologies, it, however, does not go far enough to ascertain whether these epistemologies equip the students to function effectively in the democratisation of South Africa. At the level of theory, for example, the post-colonial theory, developmental journalism and Ubuntu philosophy, one can easily conclude that students emerging from these programmes are not equipped to play an active role in the transformation of the country. However, in the absence of a study which examines the journalistic behaviours of graduates of these programmes, that claim would remain speculative. A study of the journalistic behaviours of the graduates of these programmes, in their work places, would, therefore, need to be undertaken to establish if their education and training, which is informed by Western epistemologies is making it difficult for them to play a transformative role in the country.
- The researcher is also cognisant of the fact that discussions about Western epistemologies being unsuitable for JE&T in South Africa, and developmental

journalism and Ubuntu philosophy being possible normative frameworks for JE&T in South Africa have not gone beyond the level of theory. No research has been carried out to establish the veracity of these claims. To test whether there is substance in these claims, studies should be based on a research design (experimental or ethnographic) that would follow a cohort of students educated and trained within different frameworks/philosophies to the work place, to examine their journalistic behaviours and how well they contribute to transformation in South Africa. The findings should guide JE&T scholars on designing a model that would be suitable for JE&T in South Africa. It has to be remembered that “no theory is without location, and that all theories have their roots in a specific locale” (Wasserman, 2007:12). Northern (Western) theory, according to Wasserman, developed in response to specific cultural and social circumstances, which are far removed from those of South Africa. Thus, any model designed for JE&T in South Africa should emerge from and be tested within South African conditions.

- The findings that JE&T curricula in the three tertiary institutions are dominated by males, in particular white male academics, has implications for Muted Group theory, and, therefore, need to be explored further. Muted Group theory, first postulated by anthropologist, Edwin Ardener, argues that dominant groups, such as males, in society mute the non-dominant groups, such as females, forcing these non-dominant groups to assimilate their language to the dominant style (see Ballard-Reisch, 2010:87-88). Further studies, therefore, in which the Muted Group theory is used, should be carried out to demonstrate in what way the dominance of white male academics impacts on the race and gender discourses in JE&T curricula. There is need to hear and listen to the voices of both males and females, in order to get a full understanding of why males, in particular white males, dominate JE&T curricula in South Africa.
- Whilst the study revealed that gender representation in the student body of the selected programmes reflects the gender composition of the South African population, it did not reveal if this was matched by a transformation of gender narratives in the JE&T curricula. There is thus need to carry out a study to ascertain whether the programmes have also transformed the gender and race discourses taught in the classroom.

8.8 Overall conclusion of the study

The overall conclusion of this study is that sixteen years after democratisation, JE&T in the selected tertiary institutions have not transformed in any significant way. The three programmes are informed by Western epistemologies, just as they were before 1994. The study revealed that transforming JE&T curricula in these programmes is influenced by several factors, some of which include the absence of relevant African/South African published textbooks, Western educated lecturers, a media industry which is neo-liberally-driven and dominance by of (white) male academics.

However, while the study reveals that the JE&T curricula of the three universities are still informed by Western epistemologies, it, however, does not go far enough to ascertain whether these epistemologies equip the students to function effectively in the democratisation of South Africa. At the level of theory, for example the post-colonial theory, developmental journalism and Ubuntu philosophy, one can easily conclude that students emerging from these programmes are not equipped to play an active role in the transformation of the country. However, this claim needs to be tested through further studies to ascertain if, indeed, graduates emerging from JE&T curricula underpinned by Western epistemologies are incapable of contributing effectively to the country's transformation.

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List of Addendums

Addendum 1 BPhil (SU) programme documents

Module 1 Journalism Practice 771 (JP)

Submodules

credits		%	Lecturer
JP News	10	10	Ms J-A Floris
JP Features, Reviews and Columns	10	10	Ms J-A Floris
English for Journalists	2	1	Mr S Sesanti
Afrikaans vir Joernaliste			Ms J-A Floris
Internship	6	3	Ms J-A Floris
	28	24	

2010

Approximately 22 lectures of 90 minutes each

(News conferences and news test have separate time slots on the timetable.) One test End of May

One examination

End of October

1. Objective of course

This module expose students to the vocational requirements of journalism: to produce useful copy – news reports – under pressure. The objective of the module is to equip you to be an efficient news reporter and to train you to be ready for a news office with high expectations. You will learn how to work under pressure, how to use language well, how to think on your feet and where and how to dig out news. Theory such as the definition of news, news values, where to find news and how to write news, will be discussed in lectures. You will apply your knowledge in one or two assignments per week. The more news reports you write, the sooner you will learn how to do it right. The news module is supported by weekly news tests in which your general (news) knowledge will be tested as well as weekly news conferences in which the week's news will be discussed and compared in detail.

Journalism Practice (news) teaches you to be critical, it will help you to get used to tight deadlines and it teaches you to think about news the whole time. It also teaches you how to write news in a powerful, short and concise way. At the end of the year, you should be ready for the challenges of a news office.

2. Evaluation

You will be evaluated continuously. The mark for the first semester will consist of the average of all the assignments to that date (50%) and the June test series assignment (50%). The predicate will consist of 50 % of the June mark, and 50 % of all the work in the second semester. The final year mark will consist of 50 % of the predicate and the final exam mark (50%).

3. Structure

Theory (see section 4) will be discussed in weekly lectures. Students write a number of news reports every week that should be submitted according to specific deadlines. The lecturer will decide how many assignments students will do every week. Students may also receive assignments on short notice when the news breaks or when newsworthy happenings turn up. You will receive complete feedback with your marked assignment. It is imperative that you study the corrections/feed back so that you do not repeat the same mistakes. In addition to the news module, students will also write weekly news tests, have weekly news conferences and do practical work at *Eikestadnuus*.

4. Content of lectures**1. The basics****1.1 What is news?**

1.1.1 What is the definition of news?

1.1.2 What is the function of news?

1.1.3 Who decides what gets published? (Editorial structure etc.)

1.1.4 The responsibilities of a cadet reporter

1.2 Types of news reports and their placement in the paper

1.2.1 Hard news

1.2.2 Soft news

1.2.3 Opinion shaping pieces

1.3 News values

1.3.1 What are the news values?

1.3.2 What strengthens something's news value?

Journalism Practice

- 1.4 **Basic principles of news writing**
 1.4.1 Identify people in reports: Attribution
 1.4.2 Identify sources
 1.4.3 Don't editorialise
 1.4.4 Give all sides to the story

- 1.5 **Style and form**
 1.5.1 Organising a report
 1.5.2 What should I include?
 1.5.3 Proper newspaper language

1.6	Leading paragraphs
1.6.1	Function of the leading paragraph
1.6.2	Basic elements and common
1.6.3	Types
1.6.4	The body of the report
1.6.5	A checklist for your report

- 1.7 **News sources**
 1.7.1 Where does the reporter get his information?
 1.7.2 Planning the writing process
 1.7.3 Contact with sources
 1.7.4 Building a bank of sources
 1.7.5 Where are the good sources hiding?

- 1.8 **Crime reporting**
 1.8.1 What does this beat include? What will I have to cover?
 1.8.2 Where do I get my info?
 1.8.3 How to write a crime report

- 1.9 **Court reporting**
 1.9.1 Types of cases
 1.9.2 The court structures
 1.9.3 The legal profession
 1.9.4 Procedures in court
 1.9.5 What may I not write?

2. Other subjects

2.1 Media releases

	2.1.1	The object of the exercise
	2.1.2	Basic principles
	2.1.3	How do I quote from a media release?
	2.1.4	What must I include about the organisation and source?
2.2	Editing	
	2.2.1	The traits of a good sub editor
	2.2.2	The sub editor's responsibilities
	2.2.3	The process
	2.2.4	Look out for these...

- 2.3 **Interviewing**
 2.3.1 Types of interviews
 2.3.2 The importance of preparation
 2.3.3 Types of questions
 2.3.4 Your record of the interview
 2.3.5 The structure of the interview
 2.3.6 Being flexible

- 2.4 **Translations**
 2.4.1 Why is it a necessary skill?
 2.4.2 What are the sources of information to be translated?
 2.4.3 What should I include?
 2.4.4 The four basic rules of translating

- 2.5 **Headings**
 2.5.1 The function of a good heading
 2.5.2 What a heading must never be
 2.5.3 The attributes of a good heading writer
 2.5.4 The process
 2.5.5 Headings on hard news reports
 2.5.6 Headings on soft news reports
 2.5.7 Basic rules and tips

2.6	Captions	
	2.6.1	The function of the caption
	2.6.2	What should be included?
	2.6.3	The do's and don'ts
	2.6.4	Creative additions to captions: headings, tags at beginning of the caption

2.7 **Tabloid style**

5. **Practical work**

Students will write stories for *Eikestadnuus* every week. The schedule for practical work at *Eikestadnuus* will begin on **15 February**. Students will be divided into groups. The practical work for *Eikestadnuus* will take place until the end of October. You are also encouraged to write for other media as a means to hone your practical writing skills. You can also produce multimedia video clips for *Die Burger*.

6. **An indication of some of the assignments**

→ **Deadlines will be provided for every assignment.**

General (hard and soft) news – when the news breaks, as decided by the lecturer and as initiated by students
 Court report Crime report Sports report Political report Tabloid report
 Preview report
 Headings, intro's and captions
 Reports with press releases and/or news agencies as source
 Sms news alerts
 Ideas for info-graphics and info-boxes

7. **Other assignments**

When the news breaks, it may be expected of students to write reports on short notice with a deadline the same afternoon/evening. Students have to get used to deadlines and the hectic working environment of a news office and therefore the department tries to expose students to real life situations. Therefore, it sometimes may be expected of students to cover news happenings over weekends and in the evenings.

8. **Prescribed source**

Harriss, J., Leiter, K. & Johnson, S. 1992. *The Complete Reporter – Fundamentals of News Gathering, Writing and Editing* (latest edition). New York: Macmillan.

9. **Recommended sources**

Ansell, G. 2005. *Introduction to Journalism*. Johannesburg Jacana Media.
 Brooks, Brian S, with Kennedy, George; Moen, Daryl R. and Ranly, Don. 2002. *News Reporting and Writing* (sixth edition). Boston, New York: Bedford/St. Martin's.
 Harrison, J. 2006. *News*. London: Routledge.
 Harcup, T. 2004. *Journalism. Principles and Practice*. London: Sage.
 Harrison, J. 2006. *News*. Oxon & NY: Routledge.
 Hough, George A. 1995. *News Writing* (fifth edition). Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
 Keeble, Richard. 1994. *The Newspapers Handbook*. London & New York: Routledge
 Nel, F. 2001. *Writing for the Media in Southern Africa (3rd ed)*. Cape Town: Oxford.

10. **Lecturer**

Ms J-A Floris | ☎ 021 808 2577 | email: jfloris@sun.ac.za

Features, Reviews and Columns

Approx 20 lectures (90 min) Approx 25 assignments

Art Journalism

17.02; 03.03

Columns

15.09; 06.10

1 Test series

1 Examination

1. Objective of course

To expose students to the vocational requirements of journalism: to produce useful reports under pressure – in this case features, reviews and columns. Assignments (features) on a variety of subjects must be completed before a certain deadline. The student will also be a member of the editorial team which will publish *Stellenbosch Media Forum* (SFM) towards the end of the year. Students will get the opportunity to study and practise various styles and genres of features writing. Short courses in art journalism and column writing form part of the course. The student is expected to not only master the practice of feature writing, but also to apply reflective practice: to be critical and analytical in terms of all aspects of journalism practice and to operate as a “reflective practitioner”.

2. Evaluation

Evaluation is done continuously. The mark for the first semester will consist of the average of all the assignments to that date (50%) and the June test series assignment (50%). The predicate will consist of 50% of the June mark, and 50% of all the work in the 2nd semester. The final year mark will consist of 50% of the predicate and the final exam mark (50%).

3. Structure

This module in Journalism Practice emphasises the more advanced aspect of journalism, namely the writing of features, reviews and columns – which requires a different approach than Journalism Practice News.

This Journalism Practice module takes a practical, hands-on approach in which you must complete assignments before certain deadlines. Each assignment will be subbed (edited) as if in a magazine environment as part of feedback to the student.

During the first semester the student is expected to master essential elements of features writing. A compulsory short course on art journalism forms part of this module. During the second semester more advanced genres of feature writing will be studied, such as investigative and narrative journalism. A short course in column writing will also be offered.

4. Practical work

In terms of an agreement between the Department and *Eikestadnuus*, a local newspaper, the BPhil-students are responsible for certain reports and features. Details on the assignments for *Eikestadnuus* and the schedule for these practicals will be available from the beginning of February. Students are also encouraged to write for other media as a means to hone writing skills. Write as much as you can – it’s the best way to learn. It is required of every student to produce at least one feature article for *SMF*.

5. Assignments

This consists of features, reviews and columns that will be handed in throughout the year.

6. SMF

The department's publication has been revived as *Stellenbosch Media Forum (SMF)*. It is also produced as an on-line publication. *SMF* replaced the *Stellenbosch Journalistic Insight*, which had to be discontinued in the nineties due to a lack of funds. In 2003 the first *SMF* was published as part of the department's silver jubilee celebrations.

The BPhil-students form the editorial team for the publication. Where applicable, completed assignments in other modules can be submitted for publication in *SMF*. The theme/planning/production will be done in liaison with me throughout the year.

7. An indication of some of the assignments

(Deadline dates will be provided) Interview

with a classmate

Stellenbosch on foot

Interview with of Stellenbosch person

A profile

Reviews on movies/TV-programmes

Plagiarism (use the Internet as primary source) An Obit on one of the following:

Jacob Zuma

Maria Ramos

Barack Obama

Wole Soyinka

Koos Kombuis

JM Coetzee

Natalie du Toit

Yusuf Islam

Miriam Makeba

Bennie McCarthy

A profile on a person of your choice

A travel feature

A column Investigative article

Narrative article

SMF features

8. Other assignments

Any other assignment which might contribute to reach the aims of this module.

9. In-depth project

The students's research and journalistic skills will be tested in this assignment, as well as the contents of some of the other modules, e.g. layout and design. This project is similar to the 25% thesis which is required in other honours courses.

The evaluation is according to four criteria – research abilities, page layout and design, use of language and editing and writing skills. This will count for 25% of your final year mark. The WED principles – writing, editing and design – will also be assessed.

The project counts for 25% of your final mark. A handout with more detail will follow later.

10. Internship

After the final exam students are required to do an internship of at least four weeks at an approved media-institution where the skills that have been acquired in this module will be applied. The internship assessment will be done by the media institution. This counts for at least 3% of the final mark. Internships must be organised well ahead of time and must be approved by me.

11. Prescribed source

Harriss, Julian, Leiter, Kelly & Johnson, Stanley. (latest Edition). *The Complete Reporter: Fundamentals of News Gathering, Writing and Editing*. New York: Macmillan.

12. Recommended sources

- Journal: *Journalism Practice*. Routledge, Taylor & Francis. ISSN: 1751-2786
- Adams, Sally with Hicks, Wynford. 2001. *Interviewing for Journalists*. London & NY: Routledge.
- Alan, J. 2001. *Responsible Journalism. A practical guide for working and aspiring journalists*. Chicago: Bonus Books.
- Ansell, G. 2005. *Introduction to Journalism*. Johannesburg: Jacana Media.
- Barker, D. 1998. *The Craft of the Media Interview*. London: Robert Hale.
- Bloom, S.G. 2002. *Inside the Writer's Mind. Writing Narrative Journalism*. Iowa State Press: Blackwell Publishing.
- Brady, J. 1977. *The Craft of interviewing*. New York: Vintage Books (Random House).
- Brooks, B. S., with Kennedy, G., Moen, D. R. and Ranly, D. 2002. *News Reporting and Writing*. (Sixth edition). Boston, New York: Bedford/St. Martin's.
- De Burgh, H. *Investigative Journalism. Context and Practice*. London & New York: Routledge.
- Fleming, C. 2002. *The Radio Handbook* (Second edition). London and New York: Routledge.
- Friedlander, E. J, with Lee, J. 1999. *Feature Writing for Newspapers and Magazines*. (Fifth edition). New York: Longman.
- Kalbfeld, B. 2001. *Broadcast News Handbook*. New York etc: McGraw-Hill.
- Handbook for African Journalists*. 2nd Printing. 1988. World Press Freedom Committee. Rex Rand Fund. Washington: Itiaba Publishers.
- Harcup, T. 2004. *Journalism. Principles and Practice*. London: Sage
- Harrison, J. 2006. *News*. London: Routledge.
- Kerrane, K. & Yagoda, B. 1998. *The Art of Fact. A Historical Anthology of Literary Journalism*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Knight, R.M. 2003. *A journalistic approach to good writing. The Craft of Clarity*. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State Press. Blackwell Publishing.
- Harrison, J. 2006. *News*. Oxon & NY: Routledge.
- Hicks, W. & Holmes, T. 2002. *Subediting for journalists*. New York: Routledge.
- Hilliard, R.L. 2004. *Writing for Television, Radio and New Media*. Belmont: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Hodgon, F.W. 1997. *Modern Newspaper Practice – A Primer on the Press*. (Fourth edition). Oxford: Focal Press.
- Hough, George A. 1995. *News Writing*. (Fifth edition). Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Jacobi, P. R. 1991. *The Magazine Article – how to think it, plan it, write it*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.
- Keeble, R. 1994. *The Newspapers Handbook*. London & New York: Routledge
- Kovach, B. with Rosenstiel, T. 2001. *The ten elements of journalism*. New York: Crown.
- McKay, J. 2000. *The Magazines Handbook*. London & New York: Routledge.
- Morrish, J. 1996. *Magazine editing. How to develop and manage a successful publication*. (Second edition). New York: Routledge.
- Nel, F. 2001. *Writing for the Media in Southern Africa*. (Third edition). Cape Town: Oxford.
- Rudin, R. & Ibbotson, T. 2002. *An introduction to Journalism. Essential techniques and background knowledge*. Burlington: Focal Press.
- Silvester, E (ed). 1996. *The Norton Book of Interviews*. New York & London: Norton & Co.
- Sloan, W.D. & Anderson, L.B. 2003. *Pulitzer Prize Editorials. America's Best Writing 1917-2003*. (Third edition). Iowa State Press: Blackwell Publishing.
- Smith, R.F. & O'Connell, L.M. 2003. *Editing Today*. (Second Edition). Ames, Iowa: Blackwell Publishing.
- Stein, M.L. & Paterno, S.F. 2001. *Talk Straight. Listen Carefully. The art of interviewing*. Ames, Iowa: Blackwell Publishing.
- Tleane, C. and Duncan, J. 2003. *Public Broadcasting in the era of Cost Recovery*. Johannesburg: FXI.
- Tuggle, C.A., Carr, F. & Huffman, S. 2004. *Broadcast News Handbook. Writing, Reporting & Producing in a converging media world*. 2nd Ed. NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Turner, G. *Understanding celebrity*. 2004. London: Sage
- Wells, G. 1988. *The Craft of Writing Articles*. London: Allison & Busby.
- Witt, L. 1991. *The Complete Book of Feature Writing*. Cincinnati: Writer's Digest Books.

13. Various clippings

Read as much as possible; collect clippings of inspiring journalism and keep it in a clippings file to refer to.

14. Lecturer

Ms J-A Floris | ☎ 021 808 2577 | email: jfloris@sun.ac.za

English for Journalists

1. Introduction

In this module, students will practise and improve their ability to communicate fluently, accurately and confidently in spoken and written English, both within their current academic context and in preparation for their future profession.

2. Objectives

Rather than explicitly teaching language structure, the course approaches the study of language from a discourse analysis perspective with the view to fostering students' critical awareness of language as social practice, whether as readers of texts or as writers. Students are required to read a variety of texts in preparation for seminar discussions, which aim to develop their ability to participate in debates, formulate arguments, respond to questions and do formal presentations in class. Written assignments, ranging from short reviews to longer opinion/analytical pieces, will allow students to focus on grammar, text structure, formulation and style.

3. Outcomes

Students will gain advanced critical reading skills based in an understanding of critical discourse analysis and will be able to communicate fluently, accurately and confidently in spoken and written English.

4. Structure

One seminar per week (Mondays 11:30 to 12:15)

5. Assessment

Continuous assessment of all work submitted for this module. One written assignment per term (25% x 4 = 100%)

6. Prescribed texts

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (seventh edition)

Webster's Student Companion

Reading material for each seminar will be provided by the course presenter.

7. Lecturer

Mr Simphiwe Sesanti

| ☎ 021 808-2625

| E-mail: simsesanti@sun.ac.za

Afrikaans vir Joernaliste

1. Agtergrond

Dié lesings het ontstaan omdat studente oor spesifieke taalaangeleenthede ingelig wou word wat hulle in hul loopbane (veral by Media24) sou help. Dit is 'n baie belangrike deel van die kursus, aangesien dit jou die binnebaan gee. Taalsake wat nie in die tweetalige, algemene klas aangeroeer kan word nie, word ook in dié lesings bespreek.

2. Uitkomstes

Jou vermoë om Afrikaans kort, bondig, korrek en netjies te skryf word dramaties verbeter.

Jy word geleer hoe om jou eie berigte deeglik en noukeurig te sub.

Die kursus, hoewel nie-kredietdraend, is 'n verrykingskursus vir alle Afrikaanssprekende studente, en verpligtend vir alle Media24-beurshouers.

3. Struktuur

Onderwerpe wat onder meer behandel word, kan die volgende insluit:

- Taalgebruik (grammatika; korrekte puntuasie; gebruik van leestekens; woordsoorte; lydende en bedrywende vorm; verlede, teenwoordige en toekomstige tyd; Romaans vs Germaans)

Die lees en bespreek van 'n stuk goeie skryfwerk/artikel

'n Nuwe gonswoord

Vertalings

Sub en bespreek van rou kopie Spesifieke hoofstukke in *Skryf*

Afrikaans Media24-styl

Oorskryf van opdragte

4. Voorgeskrewe bron

Müller, D. 2003. *Skryf Afrikaans van A tot Z – Die essensiële gids vir taalgebruikers*. Kaapstad: Pharos Woordeboeke.

5. Dosent

Ms J-A Floris | ☎ 021 808 2577 | email: jfloris@sun.ac.za

Your internship forms part of the module Journalism Practice. After the final exam in November 2011 you are expected to do an internship in December **of at least four weeks** at an approved media-institution where the skills that you have learned in this module can be applied. You can also do a second internship in January 2012. This must also be at least 4 weeks at the one institution. The internship will be assessed by your employer and counts for at least 3% of the final mark. Internships must be organised as soon as possible and must be approved by me. You are most welcome to contact me if you have difficulty to arrange an internship. Bursary holders do their internships at the institution that sponsors the bursary. Below is an example of the letter that you will hand to the editor of the news institution where you will do your internship. This must be done on the first day of your internship. It is your responsibility to collect the letter from the departmental secretary before you leave.

Lecturer

Ms J-A Floris | ☎ 021 808 2577 | email: jfloris@sun.ac.za

Hours: by appointment

November 2010

Dear colleague

Thank you for agreeing to give our student an internship of four weeks and thereby contributing to the improvement of our profession. We appreciate your time and expertise.

As some background: the internship is an extension of our student-journalists' education and training. For that reason we also need an evaluation of the internship at the end of their course. Students must be able to apply all the skills, both conceptual and practical, that they have gathered and honed in their post-graduate journalism course in a media environment

Attached please find the report according to which the beginner-journalist must be evaluated. The person to whom the student reports, must complete this. You can also make copies and have it completed by more than one senior.

Each skill (26 in total) evaluated, must count out of 10. If the student has excelled, you can give a mark of 8 or more out of 10 for that particular skill. If the student has complied with what was expected, you give 6 or 7 out of 10. If the student is average, you give 5 out of 10. If the student has not complied with what can be expected of a beginner-journalist, you give 4 out of 10 (= fail). If you have not evaluated a specific skill, as not all of them are applicable to your environment, merely fill in n/a (not applicable).

Please do not hesitate to contact me if you need clarification on certain aspects of the internship. Once again, with appreciation for your time and willingness to accommodate our student.

With kind regards from Stellenbosch

Gabriël Botma
BPhil Coordinator: Journalism Department e-
mail: gbotma@sun.ac.za
Tel: 021 808 2141



UNIVERSITY OF STELLENBOSCH
DEPARTMENT OF JOURNALISM

Private Bag X1 MATIELAND 7602 fax 021 808 4965

Report: Internship*

Name of student	
Period of Internship	Fromto.....

Maximum for each skill: 10 marks

(Indicate with a n/a the listed skill or quality that has not been tested/is not applicable)

	Skill or quality	10		Skill or quality	10
1.	Relevant computer skills in a news environment		14.	Clear writing and spelling (Afrikaans)	
2.	Initiative/enthusiasm		15.	Translation (English into Afrikaans)	
3.	Reliability of reporting/Accuracy		16.	Translation (Afrikaans into English)	
4.	Use of sources/more than one source/ correct attribution		17.	Knowledge of other languages/clear and correct usage	
5.	Digging for information		18.	Clear and correct speech (English)	
6.	News sense and judgement		19.	Clear and correct speech (Afrikaans, if applicable)	
7.	Constructing reports, especially lead writing		20.	General knowledge/frame of reference	
8.	Interviewing qualities		21.	Creativity	
9.	Page lay-out and design		22.	Dress, presentability and punctuality	
10.	Editing of reports (subbing, condensing, compiling, re-writing)/ or of audio (radio)		23.	Communication with members of the public	
11.	Headline writing		24.	Communication with staff members	
12.	Internet skills		25.	Handling a camera	
13.	Clear writing and spelling (English)		26.	Audio/video technique/multimedia skills	

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS *on student's personality, conduct, work attitudes and potential, and any other relevant skills*

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Name	Signed
-------------	---------------

Position	
-----------------	--

Phone	e-mail
--------------	---------------

Name of media institution/title of publication

*Please fax to: + 27 21 808 4965

Module 2

Broadcastmedia 772 (BM)

Submodules

	credits	%	Lecturer
Radio Journalism	6	5	Ms L van Zyl
TV Presentation	1.5	1	Ms E Daneel
TV Production	1.5	1	Ms R Landman
	9	7	

Broadcastmedia

Radio Journalism

1. Aim

This course aims to equip students with theoretical knowledge and practical skills as are required of radio news journalists.

2. Structure

Lectures will focus on the following aspects of radio news:

- What makes radio news exciting and dynamic
- Determining what is news worthy
- The importance of being and *staying* informed
- The necessity of responsible and accurate reporting
- Principles of and exercises in news writing
- Advancing stories/finding fresh angles
- The necessity of taking ownership of your story
- Compiling news bulletins
- Importance of using sound and how to gather sound
- Essentials when reporting “live”
- Field-reporting techniques
- Interviewing techniques
- The necessity of asking the *tough* questions
- Attending press conferences
- Following up on press releases
- The relationship between reporters and desk editors
- Do’s and don’ts when doing Question and Answer-sessions
- The daily news meeting – what input is required
- How to cope in a stressful environment
- Newsroom ethics – with emphasis on dealing with sources
- Presenting skills (news reading and doing “voicers”)
- The importance of Community Radio

3. Programme

This module is presented once a week.

Lecture times

First Semester	Tuesdays	11:30-13:00
Second Semester		
3rd term	Monday 26 July and Monday 16 August	14:00-16:00
Second Semester		
4th term	Tuesdays	11:00-12:30

4. Assignments and Evaluation

Students will be given numerous exercises on how to write a radio news story as well as recording and editing sound.

Students will also be tested weekly of their knowledge of news events. In addition, students will regularly be tested on their text book, *Toolkit*.

Students will be expected to do a practical project in June which will entail compiling a three minute-long programme on a pressing community issue. (This program will count 50% of a student's final mark).

A theoretical examination in November will cover theory as discussed in class, the content of the *Cape Talk/Kfm* Style Guide and certain chapters of *Toolkit*. (This will also count 50%)

5. Other

- Students who plan on becoming radio journalists, will be taken to *Cape Talk/Kfm* to gain first-hand experience as to how newsrooms operate.
- Guest speakers from the industry will be invited to address students.

6. Contact details lecturer

Lizma van Zyl | 📞 082 777 7987 | e-mail: lizmavz@mweb.co.za

Broadcastmedia

A Brief Introduction to TV Journalism

Time period **7 days** **10-13 August and 17-19 August 2010**

- **2 Interactive lectures:** 9 hours in total
- **Practical:** 2 x 30 minutes per student video recording and personal evaluation
2 days observation and evaluation of fellow students' TV work
- **Class feedback session:** 60 minutes in total

Objective of course

A brief introduction to TV Journalism. After two interactive lectures each student conducts a practice and a final TV interview of 4 minutes each with a fellow student under the following circumstances:

- Each interview (practice and final) is **recorded once** only.
- There is **no rehearsal** of the practice and final interview.
- The interviews are **not edited**.
- An **ordinary lecture room** is used.
- There is only **one digital video camera** with a **built in** microphone (no lapel mics).
- The lighting is **basic**.
- The students provide their own **back drop** on which visual material may be pinned.

1. Purpose

To provide students with the opportunity to conduct two **unrehearsed, unedited** TV interviews of 4 minutes each with a fellow student in extremely **basic** circumstances (ordinary lecture room, one digital video camera, no lapel mics, basic lighting). The student pairs remain identical for the practice as well as for the final recordings.

After 9 hours of interactive theory and one practice video recording, each student receives a mark for an **unrehearsed, unedited interview** in front of the TV camera. The aim is NOT to deliver a polished, professional TV presenter for the highly competitive TV market. The latter undoubtedly requires more than 2 x 30 minutes practical experience.

2. Evaluation

2.1 For the practice video recording no marks are allocated, because the purpose is to expose students to and familiarise them with a TV recording scenario.

The lecturer and fellow students evaluate and discuss each performance according to completed evaluation sheets of one page (see attachment).

- After the practice video recording each student completes a **debrief cycle** in order to formulate a plan of action for improvements. The debrief cycle is handed to the lecturer at the beginning of each student's final recording.

2.2 The final recorded TV interview of 4 minutes with a fellow student is evaluated in the following manner:

- **Effective** and **less effective** aspects are analysed.
- Methods to **improve** are discussed.
- A comprehensive **evaluation report** of 2 pages is completed by the lecturer (see evaluation report attachment for criteria).
- Each student's **mark** is filled in on the evaluation report.

3. Structure

- Two interactive lectures (9 hours in total)
- 2 x practicals of 30 minutes each per student
- 2 days practical observation and evaluation of fellow students' TV work
- A feedback session for the whole class (60 minutes)

4. Programme

4.1 Two interactive lectures (9 hours in total)

Two interactive lectures are based on the lecturer's personally compiled Work Manual of 48 pages. Examples of professional TV interviews are analysed.

4.2 Practical (2 x 30 minutes per student)

Two **unrehearsed, unedited** interviews of 4 minutes each are recorded.

The **part** that is evaluated starts with the lecturer's verbal instruction "Action" to "Cut."

Actions and speech that are recorded by the camera operator before "Action" and after "Cut" **cannot** be edited out, as there is no facility, budget or time allotted for editing.

Each student is required to **introduce** himself/herself and his/her programme.

Technical facilities are extremely **basic** (ordinary lecture room, only one digital video camera, no lapel mics, basic lighting).

Effective and **less effective** presenting and interviewing techniques are analysed. Methods to **improve** are discussed.

- **Practice video recordings**

First round of video recordings consisting of an interview of 4 minutes per student according to a completed timetable.

Students are present to observe the recordings and to actively take part in the evaluation by completing an evaluation sheet for students in front of the camera.

Feedback of camera interview is analysed with each student. No marks are allocated as this is a practice run.

One hour practical is allocated to each student pair.

After the practice video recording each student completes a **debrief cycle** in order to formulate a plan of action for improvements.

- **Final video recordings**

Final round of video recordings consisting of an interview of 4 minutes per student according to a completed timetable.

The interview topics differ from the practice runs.

Feedback of the camera interview is analysed with each student.

Marks are allocated by the lecturer and an evaluation report is completed by the lecturer. One hour practical is allocated to each student pair.

Only the two students who are evaluated plus their floor manager are present according to a time table.

4.3 Feedback session for the whole class (60 minutes)

Examples of students' TV interviews are shown in order to analyse effective and less effective presenting techniques.

The most frequent problems regarding the interviews are discussed. Solutions for each problem are discussed.

Examples of professional TV interviews are screened and evaluated. Each student receives a detailed evaluation report and marks.

5. Practical

See no. 4.

6. Assignments

See no. 4.

7. Tests

See no. 4.

8. Projects

See no. 4.

9. Other assignments

See no. 4.

10. Prescribed sources

None

11. Recommended sources

Blythin, Evan and Samovar, Larry A. *Communicating Effectively on Television*. Belmont, C.A.: Wadsworth. Brady, John. *The Craft of Interviewing*. 1976. Cincinnati: Writer's Digest.

Cleary, Sandra. *The Communication Handbook*. 1999. Juta and Co. Ltd. ISBN 0-7021-4748-6

Cohen, Akiba A. 1987. *The Television News Interview*. Newbury Park, C.A.: SAGE Publications.

Fang, Irving. *Television News/Radio News*, 4th edition (revised). St. Paul: Rada Press. ISBN 0-9604212-3-8

Habeshaw, Sue and Steeds, Di. 1987. *53 Interesting Communication Exercises for Science Students*. Technical and Educational Services Ltd. ISBN 0-947885-20x

Hawes, William. *The Performer in the Mass Media*. 1978. New York: Hastings House.

Hyde, Stuart W. 1991. *Television and Radio Announcing*, 6th edition. Houghton Mifflin Co. ISBN: 0-395-54446-7

King, Larry. 1994. *How to Talk to Anyone, Anytime, Anywhere*. NY: Three Rivers Press. ISBN 0-517-88453-4

Malandro, Loretta A. and Barker, Larry. 1983. *Nonverbal Communication*. New York: Random House.

Mehrabian, Albert. 1972. *Nonverbal Communication*. Aldine. Atherton. ISBN 0-202-25091-1

Metzler, Ken. 1977. *Creative Interviewing*. Englewood Cliffs: N.J. Prentice Hall Inc.

Metzler, Ken. 1997. *Creative Interviewing*, 3rd Edition. Allyn and Bacon. ISBN 0-205-26258-9

Morgan, John and Welton, Peter. 1986. *See what I mean? An Introduction to Visual Communication*. 2nd Edition. Edward Arnold. ISBN 0-340-55781-8

Nathan, Harriet. *Critical Choices in Interviews*. 1986. Berkeley, C.A.: University of California Institute of Governmental Studies.

Pease, Allan en Garner, Alan. 1981. *Lyftaal*. Tafelberg Uitgewers Bpk. ISBN 0-624-03347-3

Uris, Dorothy. *A Woman's Voice: A Handbook to Successful Public and Private Speaking*. 1974. Chelsea, M.D.: Scarborough House.

12. Lecturer

Elsabé Daneel | t 021 887 2614 | 📞 082 58 4397 | e-mail: elsabe@daneeltv.co.za

13. Attachments

13.1 Short evaluation report (1 page) to be completed by the students during the first practice video recordings. No marks are allocated.

13.2 Long evaluation report (2 pages) to be completed by the lecturer during the final video recordings. Marks are allocated.

Evaluation Scale 75% Excellent (cum) 70% Very good 65% Good 60% Above average 55% Average 50% Pass	<h1>TV Journalism</h1>	
	<h2>Evaluation Report</h2>	
Name of communicator		
Name of evaluator		100

Total

1. Visual Communication

A	Technical	1.	Camera / Audience Technique	
		2.	Background / Set Dressing	10
B	Styling	1.	Make-up	
		2.	Hair	
		3.	Clothing	
		4.	Accessories	20
C	Body Language	1.	Posture	
		2.	Gestures	
		3.	Eye contact	
		4.	Facial expression	
		5.	Nerve control	20

2. Auditive Communication

A	Vocal	1.	Pitch	
		2.	Inflection	
		3.	Accent	
		4.	Emphasis	
		5.	Volume	
		6.	Pace	
		7.	Pronunciation	
		8.	Articulation	
		9.	Rhythm	
		10.	Vitality	20
B	Verbal	1.	Content	
		2.	Structure	
		3.	Formulation	
		4.	Listening technique	
		5.	Timing	
		6.	Ad-lib	20

3. Rapport

1. Communication partner(s)
2. Content
3. Team
4. Yourself

Remarks

Evaluation scale 75% Excellent (cum) 70% Very good 65% Good 60% Above average 55% Average 50% Pass	Copyright Elsabé Daneel <h1 style="margin: 0;">TV Journalism</h1> <h2 style="margin: 0;">Evaluation Report</h2>
---	--

by Elsabé Daneel

Name _____ Total /100

1. Visual Communication

A. Technical

1. Camera/Audience Technique	
2. Background/Set Dressing	

Subtotal: /10

B. Styling

1. Make-up	
2. Hair	
3. Clothing	
4. Accessories	

Subtotal: /20

C. Body Language

1. Posture	
2. Gestures	
3. Eye Contact	
4. Facial Expression	
5. Nerve Control	

Subtotal: /20

2. Auditive Communication

A. Vocal Communication

1. Pitch	
2. Inflection	
3. Accent	
4. Emphasis	
5. Volume	
6. Pace	
7. Pronunciation	
8. Articulation	
9. Rhythm	
10. Vitality	

Subtotal: /20

B. Verbal Communication

1. Content	
2. Structure	
3. Formulation	
4. Listening Technique	
5. Timing	
6. Ad-lib	

Subtotal: /20

3. Auditive Communication

1. Communication partner	
2. Content	
3. Team	
4. Yourself	

Subtotal: /10

Broadcastmedia

TV Production

Period

26 August – 03 September 2010

It is a practical course during which groups of students produce short TV inserts. It runs more or less as follows:

Wednesday 25 August

18:00 – 20:00

- Discuss planning for week
- Discuss story ideas

Thursday 26 August

- Groups are allotted edit suites. They shoot short interviews with each other and practice using the editing software

- Research on story ideas continues

Friday 27 August

08:00 – 09:00

- Stories finalised
- Discuss practical implementation:
 - Who will fill which role;
 - What research is needed;
 - Who should be interviewed and how will they be found.

Friday 27 August

14:00 – 17:00

- Brief feedback on progress
- Tutorial:
 - Interviewing Tutorial: The sot
- Working together as a team
- Technicalities – lighting, time codes, sound
- Visuals

Week-end Saturday 28 August and Sunday 29 August

- Research
- Set up the shoot: arrange interviews, get to know the camera; arrange transport, etc
- Prepare interviews
- Start shooting if possible

Monday 30 August (and possibly part of Tuesday)

- shoot

Tuesday 31 August

08:00 – 09:00

- Short feedback on progress
- Tutorial: Structure

Rest of Tuesday 31 August and Wednesday 01 September

- Transcribe interviews and
- Do a paper edit
- Each group meets with the lecturer to discuss content and structure

Rest of week

- cut

Friday 03 September

18:00

- Finished products are presented to group as a whole

Lecturer

Ms Ruda Landman | rland@iafrica.com

Module 3

Journalism Technique 773 (JT)

Submodules

	Credits	%	
Newspaper and Magazine Production	5	4	Ms J Kloppers Ms D Nortjé
Internet Journalism	4	3	Ms C Visagie/ Mr A-P du Plessis Ms L-M Greeff-Villet
Computer Ability	2	2	Ms L Amoraal
	11	9	

Journalism Technique

Newspaper and Magazine Production

**Newspapers
Magazines**

First semester
Second semester

1. Structure

Lectures (Magazines and newspapers)
 Practical assignments (Magazines and newspapers)
 Woordfees newspaper (*Lip*)
 Semester examination (Newspapers)
 Magazine production (*Stellenbosch Media Forum – SMF*)
 Final assignment for magazines
 In-depth project

Dates of lectures – First semester

Monday 08 February
 Wednesday 10 February – Theory (Magazines and newspapers)
 Monday 15 February Monday
 22 February Wednesday
 24 February Monday
 01 March
 01-07 March - Woordfees

➔ The production of the Woordfees newspaper (*Lip*) will take place during the whole festival with final production on Saturday 06 and Sunday 07 March.

Monday 29 March
 Monday 12 April
 Monday 19 April
 Monday 03 May
 Monday 10 May

➔ Wednesday 02 June – Semester examination (09:00 – 12:00)

(Even though there will not be lectures in certain week, students will still have assignments to work on. Deadlines will be announced.)

Dates – Second semester

Tuesday 03 August to Friday 06 August Magazine layout and design
 Thursday 16 September SMF
 Wednesday 22 September SMF
 Thursday 23 September SMF
 Saturday 25 September SMF
 Saturday 02 October SMF
 Thursday 07 October SMF
 Wednesday 13 October SMF
 Thursday 14 October SMF
 Wednesday 20 October SMF
 Thursday 21 October SMF

➔ (Other dates as well as deadlines for assignments will be announced.)

2. Objective of module

2.1 First semester

The aim with this module is to introduce prospective journalists and layout artists to the principles of page layout and design for newspapers as well as print media production. At first students are exposed to a variety of styles and characteristics of different publications, while underlying and contemporary trends are indicated. Secondly, students are trained in the practical skill of layout while applying theoretical guidelines. To this end, the very creative though disciplined environment of a newspaper is simulated. Weekly layout assignments will be done on the computer program InDesign. Real newspaper production will take place during the Woordfees. Combined with the module Journalism Practice (News and Articles) students are equipped to appreciate the synergy between content and form and to exploit the possibilities of both.

2.2 Second semester

In the second semester, principles of layout and design in a magazine environment are explored. Students get the chance to develop their skills by analysing and graphically reinterpreting examples of market-leader magazines. The differences between newspaper and magazine layout are emphasised by examining the position of magazines in the media – why people buy magazines, as well as different magazine genres. A publication's market, which is inextricably bound to its character and which gives rise to the visual appearance of the publication, also receives theoretical attention. Furthermore, theoretical guidelines are practically implemented during the actual production of the SMF and students experience the need for synergy between word and image. Magazine production is refined on InDesign, which is the industry standard.

3. Outcome

The outcome of the theoretical and practical training in this module is that successful candidates can design and do layout for a newspaper or magazine. They develop a feeling for different styles and learn to evaluate and appreciate the discerning visual characteristics of different publications. The student must be able to design a front page, a news page, an editorial leader page and a sports page for newspapers, as well as various articles for magazines.

4. Learning opportunities

The theoretical content of this module is conveyed through weekly lectures and short courses, complemented by weekly practical assignments during which students do page layout and design for an imagined/real newspaper or magazine. Some Saturdays will also be used for magazine production. All assignments are assessed and provided with individual comments that form part of the feedback each student receives. In addition, during the daily news conference and in combination with an analysis of the day's newspapers, different layout styles and typographical characteristics are evaluated. In the process, students are positively inspired by works of excellence and negatively encouraged to improve on work that is not up to standard. The computer program InDesign will be used.

5. Evaluation

Work is being assessed continuously. All assignments are evaluated, marked and provided with comments. The criteria are those that apply in the journalism industry. The first semester's newspaper outcomes will count for 50% of the final mark (50% for assignments and 50% for the semester examination), and the second semester's magazine outcomes will count as 50% of the final mark.

Magazines (second semester): Aspects such as originality and creativity play just as important a role as a student's competence with the relevant software. Each student will be expected to complete one full assignment during lecture periods without external help and to demonstrate that s/he grasps the difference between newspaper and magazine layout as well as the importance of the typography and navigation of a magazine. The use and quality of photographs will also be considered for final evaluation.

Assignments need to be submitted strictly according to deadlines. If a student does not make a deadline without making arrangements with the lecturer before the deadline, the mark for the specific assignment will be zero. In a case where a student does not submit a specific assignment at all, the student will get an incomplete.

6. Compulsory reading material

Tim Harrower. *The Newspaper Designer's Handbook*. McGraw Hill.

Specified articles, handouts, various book in the library and indicated internet material.

7. Lecturers

Jacquette Kloppers | ☎ 021 406 3353 | e-mail: jacquette.kloppers@dieburger.com
Deirdré Nortjé | ☎ 021 446 1289 | e-mail: dnortje@weg.co.za

Journalism Technique

Internet Journalism

Part A Content Management & Social Media
Lecturers Carine Visagie & André-Pierre du Plessis

Time period

Tuesday 20 July 2010
Wednesday 21 July 2010
Thursday 22 July 2010
Friday 23 July 2010

Approx 24 hours Approx 4 assignments Approx 1 test

1. Objective of course

To teach students how to write for the internet, how to adapt reports and articles for the internet and how to do content layout to ensure that text is concise, scannable and credible. A strong emphasis is placed on current trends in online journalism, search-engine optimisation (SEO) and the effective use of social media. Attention will also be given to important technological developments and their influence on journalism.

2. Evaluation

Students will be evaluated on their ability to engage with social media, their knowledge of the theory for online content management, and their insight into topics covered in class time. Marks will be allocated for class assignments, tests, as well as social-media skills.

Mark allocation for the *Internet Journalism – Content Management* module will be as follows:

Class assignments	50%
Social media capability	20%
Test	30%

The module will carry a 50% weight towards the overall mark for the *Internet Journalism* course.

3. Structure

20 & 21 July (Carine Visagie)

1. Brief introduction to the internet
2. How users read on the internet
3. How to write for a website
4. Interactivity
5. Search engine optimisation
6. News on the web
7. Trends in online journalism
8. Working for a website: what to expect

22 & 23 July (André-Pierre du Plessis)

Journalism and social media

Using social media as a source for news

Social media and its legal implications Privacy on social media

Ethics and social media

2. Web 3.0: The journalist as the curator of content
3. Viral marketing

4. Programme

Tuesday, 20 July (Carine Visagie)	09:00 – 11:00	Brief introduction to the internet How users read on the internet How to write for a website
	11:00 – 11:30	Break
	11:30 – 13:00	Interactivity
	14:00 – 15:30	Assignment 1
Wednesday, 21 July (Carine Visagie)	09:00 – 11:00	Search engine optimisation News on the web Trends in online journalism
	11:00 – 11:30	Break
	11:30 – 13:00	Working for a website
	14:00 – 15:30	Assignment 2
Thursday, 22 July (André-Pierre du Plessis)	09:00 – 11:00	Introduction to social media Twitter, its tools and using it as news source Privacy and ethics in social media
	11:00 – 11:30	Break
	11:30 – 13:00	Web 3.0: Editors and curators on the web
	14:00 – 15:30	Assignment 3
Friday, 23 July (André-Pierre du Plessis)	09:00 – 11:00	Introduction to viral video journalism TIME Magazines' viral video journalism Uses of viral video for news organisations
	11:00 – 11:30	Break
	11:30 – 13:00	Create own viral video
	14:00 – 15:30	Assignment 4

5. Practical work

- Students will be required to engage with social media sites such as Twitter and Facebook.
- Students will also have to film their own video clip (either with their own cellphones or cameras, or the Department's video equipment) for use on their personal websites.

6. Assignments

Assignment 1: Current influences on journalism

Students will be expected to write a few short paragraphs (no more than 750 words) on how the following three factors have (or haven't) influenced traditional journalism: the internet in general; blogging; social networking; cellphones. The assignment must be handed in at the end of the session.

Assignment 2: Web 2.0

Students must each choose a news report from a local newspaper. In 400-500 words, they then must explain how this report can be adapted for the internet by applying Web 2.0 principles. Simple illustrations can be used to explain the layout of the story on a hypothetical website. The assignment must be handed in at the end of the session.

Assignment 3: Web 3.0

Students should find an example of how content is curated by crowd-sourcing on the internet and how a news organisation would be able to make use of this in a similar fashion. In 400-500 words they should explain what the benefit of this would be to a specific newspaper or magazine and include a mock-up of what this would look like (a drawing or a visual representation). The assignment should be handed in at the end of the session.

Assignment 4: Viral video journalism

Students should identify a current news story and create a 2-5 minute video in which they disseminate the information alternatively to a news report. The video should be uploaded to Vimeo, of which an account will be created by each student. The assignment should be completed by Monday 26 July at 09:00.

7. Tests

A test is scheduled for the second semester's test week.

8. Projects

None

9. Other assignments

None

10. Prescribed source

Class notes and complete study material as supplied to students.

11. Recommended sources

Class notes and complete study material as supplied to students.

12. Lecturers

Carine Visagie		 082 879 4304
André-Pierre du Plessis		 076 986 6742

Part B Web design and programming
Lecturer Lise-Marie Greeff-Villet

Time period		
Tuesday	27 July	(17:30 - 19:30; 20:00 - 22:30)
Wednesday	28 July	(17:30 - 19:30; 20:00 - 22:30)
Thursday	29 July	(17:30 - 19:30; 20:00 - 22:30)
Friday	30 July	(17:30 - 19:30; 20:00 - 22:30)
Saturday	09 October	(09:00 - 14:00)
Saturday	16 October	(09:00 - 14:00)

Approx 28 hours
0 assignments
0 tests
1 project

1. Objective of course

1.1 To teach students basic Adobe Photoshop skills that will enable them to create website designs at a beginners level, as well as effectively prepare graphics for web integration.

1.2 To teach students basic web design principles and html-programming skills, which will enable them to design a user-friendly and effective website. The students are taught to program in HTML and are exposed to the use of web design software by using Macromedia Dreamweaver as a point of departure. Attention is focused on the application of web standards for the development of effective graphic design, layout, programming style and web navigation structures.

1.3 To complement their knowledge of new and social media as taught in the Content Management & Social Media part of this course, by introducing students to widget, scripts and similar technical tools that can be used to utilize and optimize social media content on their own web site.

2. Evaluation

Students will have to deliver an effectively designed and programmed web site as an indication of their skill. The web site will be evaluated according to the following criteria:

• Appearance (graphic design, integration of graphic elements, design, aesthetica)	20
• Navigation (way in which navigation improves movement through the website)	15
• Content (adherence to accepted web standards regarding layout and design)	20
• Programming techniques	15
• Use of social media to enhance web site content	15
• Overall user-experience, extras	15
Total	100

The above-mentioned will carry a 50% weight towards towards the overall mark for the *Internet Journalism* course.

3. Structure

3.1 Introduction to Adobe Photoshop

Adobe Photoshop programme functionality
Creating and effective web design
Preparing and intergrating graphic elements for the web

3.2 Introduction to the internet and webpage design

Internet-terminology
Web addresses/URL's
Search Engines
Metatags
Hosting, domain names, aliases

3.3 Information architecture

How does one write for the web?
Grouping and organising content
Downloadable files — .pdf, .doc Editing language
Content management
Basic guidelines for web site content

3.4 Aesthetics and graphical design

The creation and use of handy graphics on webpages
The size of graphics on webpages
Effective colours and designs
Basic guidelines for web site graphics

3.5 Page layout

HTML Tables
Basic guidelines for page layout

3.6 Formatting

Stylesheets (CSS) HTML coding
Basic guidelines for formatting web site content

3.7 Navigation

Links
Bookmarks
Basic guidelines for navigational structure

3.8 Social Media Integration

Enhancing your site with social and new media
Widgets and scripts

3.9 Technical

- Organising and storing web files and graphics
- Browser compatibility
- FTP

4. Programme

Tuesday 27 July	17:30 - 19:30	Introduction to the internet and webpage design
	19:30 - 20:00	Break
	20:00 - 21:00	Aesthetics and graphical design
	21:00 - 22:00	Information Architecture
Wednesday 28 July	17:30 - 19:30	Adobe Photoshop programme functionalities
	19:30 - 20:00	Break
	20:00 - 21:00	Creating an effective web design
	21:00 - 22:00	Preparing graphics for the web
Thursday 29 July	17:30 - 19:30	Practical Session
	19:30 - 20:00	Break
	20:00 - 21:00	Page layout
	21:00 - 22:00	Formatting
Friday 30 July	17:30 - 19:30	Navigation
	19:30 - 20:00	Break
	20:00 - 21:00	Social Media Integration
	21:00 - 22:00	Stylesheets
Saturday 09 October	09:00 - 14:00	Practical Session (breaks as required)
Saturday 16 October	09:00 - 14:45	Practical Session (breaks as required)

5. Practical work

During practical sessions students will be expected to practise the programming and design techniques taught during lessons. They will do this by working on their web design projects under the supervision and guidance of the lecturer.

6. Assignments

There will be no assignments for this part of the module.

7. Tests

None

8. Project

Each student must develop a website. The focus of the website must be to market him/herself as a journalist. The student must be allowed to decide on the website's appearance. Each website must include the student's contact details, CV, photography portfolio, published written work and social media integration where applicable. Apart from the above, students are encouraged to use their own initiative with regards to other content on the website. The application of basic techniques with regards to design, navigation and programming, as it was taught during the internet journalism module, is required.

9. Other assignments

None

10. Prescribed sources

Class notes and study material as supplied to students.

11. Recommended sources

Class notes and study material as supplied to students.

12. Lecturer

Lise-Marie Greeff-Villet | 📞 082 200 6737 | E-mail: info@lisemarie.com

Journalism Technique

Computer Ability

Time period

Consult first and second semester time-table
Test series in June and Examination in November

1. Aim of module

- In this module the emphasis is placed on the refinement of basic computer and typing skills.
- The technique of a flowing typing style can only be promoted by copy typing. The speed test (10 minutes with a minimum requirement of 35 wpm) is an important measuring tool. Students who have a typing speed of less than 30 wpm at the beginning of the year, will be advised to follow an internet typing programme and their progress will be monitored weekly.
- Typing according to the letter-base, ensures a cleaner copy, but also draws attention to the co-ordination of hand (correct fingering) and sight. This co-ordination is an important aspect to ensure an easy (effortless) and effective style to enable the student to “compose” on the computer and that deadlines are met with ease and without stress.
- In computer ability the emphasis is placed on the effective use of all facets of Word 2003, spreadsheets in Excel (simple data interpretation) and a customised PowerPoint presentation

2. Approach

2.1 Word 2007

The editing and formatting of text by using short-cuts.

The use of the templates in Word 2003 e.g. fax forms, business letters, business documents.

To customise headers and footers and to insert page-numbers.

Developing creativity by using different fonts and font sizes, expanded and condensed text.

Inserting a table for various purposes e.g. data, comparisons, lists, CV's and Résumés.

Formatting a thesis/assignment e.g. foot-notes, index and tables

2.2 Excel

- Inserting data e.g. address lists, mark sheets and basic calculations: SUM, AVERAGE, PERCENTAGE
- Formatting the text e.g. row width, background, text colours, lines
- The completed data must be given in a graph
- The graph is imported in Word or PowerPoint.

2.3 Powerpoint

- From the Master Slide a presentation is customised which promotes creativity e.g. basic shapes, lines, call-outs, clip-art, word-art etc.
- Drawing up a flow-chart (organogramme).

3. Evaluation

During the short courses assignments will be given. The first semester mark consists of 40% of the assignments and 60% of the June test mark. The final mark consists of 40% of the progress mark (average of the year) and 60% of the mark obtained in the final examination in November.

4. Lecturer

Leona Amoraal | ☎ 082 411 7730 | e-mail: leona@amoraal.com

Module 4

Media Studies 774 (MS)

Submodules

	credits	%	Lecturer
Media Ethics	8	6	Mr S Sesanti / Prof G Claassen
Media and Society	8	6	Mr G Botma / Mr J Ogada
Research Methodology	3	1	Mr S Sesanti
	19	13	

Media Studies

Media Ethics

1. Introduction

This module provides students with an introduction to media ethics. The focus is on applied ethics within a journalistic context.

2. The objective of this module

To give a basic introduction and overview of media ethical theories and models underlying ethical decision-making in journalism, the salient normative frameworks and the ethical codes used by the South African media. To equip students with basic skills to reason about ethical dilemmas in journalism.

3. Rationale

Media ethics is an established field of study in journalism and mass communications curricula internationally, and in South Africa this area has seen some significant growth since democratisation. The need for journalists to be equipped with ethical decision-making skills have been highlighted by the Sanef Skills Audit in 2002, and has in recent years come sharply in focus with numerous ethical scandals gaining public attention.

4. Outcomes

Upon successful completion of this module students should be able to demonstrate insight into media ethical theories. The student should be able to understand the theories in relation to cultural complexities, especially those of the greater African. That is because South Africa is not an isolated island but an integral part of the African continent.

It will be expected of students to read widely, starting with the prescribed books, but not ending there. Students should consult other academic books on media ethics available in the library, as well as journal sources, available through the university's electronic database. Students must come to lectures prepared!

5. Dates

11 & 18 February

Introduction: background and context

- Why study ethics?
- The South African media landscape
- Ethics and the law

Read

Kruger, F. 2004. *Black, White and Grey*. Cape Town: Double Storey. Chapter 1 & 2

Retief, J. 2002. *Media Ethics – An Introduction to Responsible Journalism*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press. Pages 25-37.

25 February & 04 March

Ethical theories and models

- Meta ethics
- Normative ethics

Read

Kruger, F. 2004. *Black, White and Grey*. Cape Town: Double Storey. Chapter 3; Appendix 1, 3, 4, 5

Retief, J. 2002. *Media Ethics – An Introduction to Responsible Journalism*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press. Pages 37-45; 237-252.

25 March

Ethics in African contexts

- Ethical reasoning in Africa
- Deontology in a cultural context

Kasoma, F.P 1994. An Introduction to Journalism Ethical Reasoning in Africa. In Kasoma, F.P. (ed), *Journalism Ethics in Africa*. Nairobi: ACCE. Pages 22 - 37

Moemeka, A.A & Kasoma, F.P 1994. Journalism Ethics in Africa: An Aversion to Deontology? In Kasoma, F.P. (ed), *Journalism Ethics in Africa*. Nairobi: ACCE. Pages 38 - 50

01 April

Revision

08 April

Test

15 April

No formal lecture – draw up class ethical code

22 April

Applied ethics

- Applied ethics
- Contextual Reasoning

Andoh, I.F. Ethics in Newsgathering. In Kasoma, F.P. (ed), *Journalism Ethics in Africa*. Nairobi: ACCE. Pages 120 - 135

Kruger, F. 2004. *Black, White and Grey*. Cape Town: Double Storey. Chapter 3

Mwaura, P. 1994. Ethics and Protection of Journalists. In Kasoma, F.P. (ed), *Journalism Ethics in Africa*. Nairobi: ACCE. Pages 91 - 119

Day, L.A. 2006. *Ethics in Media Communications: Cases and Controversies*. Belmont: Wadsworth. Pages 54-74

06 May

Revision

28 May

June Exam

6. Assessment

A combination of the marks of the first test (08 April 2010), and the June test will make up the predicate mark.

A compulsory class exercise (compiling a code of ethics) to be completed.

Marks: The final mark for the module will be calculated on a 60%- 40% basis: the predicate will count 60% and the November exam mark 40% of the final mark.

7. Prescribed material

Kruger, F. 2004. *Black, White and Grey*. Cape Town: Double Storey.

8. Recommended material (consult the short loan desk in the library)

Berry, D. (ed.) 2000. *Ethics and Media Culture – Practices and Representations*. Oxford: Focal Press.

Black, J., Steele, B. & Barney, R. 1995. *Doing Ethics in Journalism*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Louis A. Day 1991. *Ethics in Media Communications: Cases and Controversies*. Belmont: Wadsworth. *Ecquid Novi* Vol. 15 (1) 1994.

Oosthuizen, L. 2002. *Media Ethics in the South African Context*. Lansdowne: Juta.

Retief, J. 2002. *Media Ethics – An Introduction to Responsible Journalism*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Ronning & Kasoma. 2003. *Media Ethics – An Introduction and Overview*. Juta.

Sanders, K. 2003. *Ethics & Journalism*. London: Sage

9. Lecturers

Simphiwe Sesanti	☎ 021 808 2625	e-mail: simsesanti@sun.ac.za
George Claassen	☎ 021 851 3232 or 083 543 2471	e-mail: george.claassen@gmail.com

Media Studies

Media and Society

1. Theme of module

An introduction to critical-cultural approaches to media.

2. The objective of this module

To investigate the position of South African media in society on a political, economic, cultural and social level, and within power relations both locally and globally. Upon successful completion of this module the student should be able to display an insight into critical theories developed to explain the interaction between media, institutions and audiences, be able to analyse recent developments in the South African media sphere through reference to these theories and be able to provide his/her own informed opinion on these developments.

3. Obligations of the student

To prepare for lectures, class discussions, tests and the examination by reading the relevant material (see point 7). Students must also take part in a group research project with a view to a class presentation and a written article in the fourth term.

4. Content

14 Lectures
2 Tests
1 Class presentation
1 Research article
1 Examination

5. Assessment

5.1 Predicate

For the final examination the predicate mark will consist of the June test result (50%) and the year mark (50%). The year mark is the average of the results for a reading test, a class presentation and a research article.

5.2 Tests and examination

The reading test in the middle of the first semester will be based on the prescribed book and lecture material. For the open book test in June additional reading is required, as well as for the class presentation and research article in the fourth term. The examination at the end of the year will test the level of acquired knowledge as well as the ability to apply it to the current South African environment. Some of these texts are available on the short loans desk ('reserve counter') of the university library.

5.3 Class presentations and research article

The class representative is to divide the class into groups in the third term. These groups must each pick a theme for research and discussion with a view to a class representation at the beginning of the fourth term. These representations must be based on a thorough reading of the literature, and contemporary examples from the South African media should be used. After the presentation, a written article of minimum 3000 words in length must be handed in. Start reading and preparing for your class discussions and articles long in advance.

6. Marks

The final mark for the module is made up of the predicate (50%) and the examination mark (50%).

7. Prescribed work

Fourie, Pieter J. (ed.) 2007. *Media Studies Volume 1 – Media History, Media and Society*. Cape Town: Juta.

Some additional material will be available at the short loans counter of the J.S. Gericke Library.

Compulsory extra reading material

Ansu-Kyeremeh, K. (Ed.) 2005. *Indigenous Communication in Africa*. Accra: Ghana Universities Press

Chapter 1

Campbell, R.; Martin, R. & Fabos, B. 2003. *Media & Culture*. Boston: Bedford/St Martins.

Chapter 1 (“Mass Communication – a critical approach”)

Chapter 13 (“Media economics and the global marketplace”)

Chapter 14 (“Conventional news, public journalism and democracy”)

Croteau, D. & Hoynes, W. 2000. *Media/Society*. Thousand Oaks: Pine Forge Press.

Chapter 5 (“Media and ideology”)

Chapter 6 (“Social Inequality and Media Representation”) *Chapter*

8 (“Active Audiences and the Construction of Meaning”) *Chapter 15*

(“Media effects and cultural approaches to research”)

Curran, J. & Gurevitch, M. (eds.) 2000. *Mass Media and Society*. London: Arnold.

Chapter 6 (“Rethinking Media and Democracy”)

De Beer, A.S. (Red.) 2000. Focus on: Media and racism, *Ecquid Novi*, 21(2).

Duncan, J. 2003. Another Journalism is Possible – Critical challenges for the media in South Africa. Durban, South Africa: Centre for Civil Society Research Report No. 10. <http://www.nu.ac.za/ccs/default.asp?3,28,10,856>

Fourie, P.J. 2002. Rethinking the role of the media in South Africa. *Communicare* 21(1):17-40.

Harber, A. 2002. Journalism in the Age of the Market. Harold Wolpe Memorial Lecture. September. www.nu.ac.za/ccs/default.asp?3,28,10,452

Jacobs, S. 2004. Public Sphere, Power and Democratic Politics: Media and Policy Debates in Post-Apartheid South Africa. PhD dissertation, University of London.

Chapter 4 (“Mapping the Contemporary Media Scene”)

Nyamnjoh, F. N. (2005). *Africa’s Media*. Pretoria: Unisa Press.

Introduction

Wasserman, H. & Jacobs, S. (eds.) 2003. *Shifting Selves: Postapartheid Essays on Mass Media, Culture and Identity*. Cape Town: Kwela.

Chapter 14 (“Yizo Yizo and Essentialism”) and 17 (“Covering the East – Veils and Masks: Orientalism in South African Media”)

8. Lecturer

Gabriël Botma | ☎ 021 808 2141 | e-mail: gbotma@sun.ac.za

Josh Ogada | ☎ 021 808 3488 | e-mail: joshua@fahamu.org

Media Studies

Research Methodology

Qualitative Research Methods for Journalists (QRMJ) Simpfiwe Sesanti

Time period
(24 March, 31 March, 07 April 2010)

1. Course objectives

Objective 1

To provide a very *brief* introduction to the theory and practice of qualitative research methods for journalists.

Objective 2

To introduce shortly the following qualitative research methods:

- Field research
- Interviews
- Ethnographic research
- Case studies
 - Historical research
 - Qualitative survey research
 - Qualitative content analysis

Objective 3

To *enable* students to study, describe, apply and practice at least *one* particular qualitative journalism research *method*.

Objective 4

To *describe* the basic elements of a qualitative journalism research project (developing the idea; putting it in a *proposal format*).

Objective 5

To *plan* and *write* a qualitative journalism research *proposal* (in co-operation with other lecturers in the Journalism Department).

2. Evaluation

Two tests: 50% + 50% = 100%

3. Structure

The short course will follow the outline stated under the objectives.

Also see point 4: Programme

4. Programme

24 March	Objectives 1, 2 and 3
31 March	Overview of the above and Objectives 4 and 5.
07 April	Test

5. Practical work

See point 6: Assignments

6. Assignments

- 6.1 For 24 March *Prepare Chapters 1, 2 & 5 in the Prescribed Book (Du Plooy, 1997)*
6.2 For 31 March *Prepare Chapters 6, 7 & 8 in the Prescribed Book*

7. Tests

07 April	Test 01	Closed book Test
14 April	Test 02	Hand in a Research Proposal – 800 – 1000 words.

8. Prescribed sources

Du Plooy, G.M. (Ed.). [1995] 1997. *Introduction to communication: Course Book 2 – Communication research*. Kenwyn, South Africa: Juta. ISBN 0 7021 3446 5.

The book is available from Protea Boekwinkel (proteaboek@mweb.co.za), as well as Van Schaik (021 887 2830), both in Stellenbosch. **Note:** The prescribed book is not the same as the later research book by Du Plooy as editor – see recommended texts.

9. Recommended sources

Mouton, J. 2001. *How to succeed in your master's and doctoral studies. A South African guide and resource book*. Pretoria: Van Schaik. (Or a later edition).

Babbie, E. & Mouton, J. 2001 (Or later edition). *The practice of social research*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Du Plooy, G.M. (Ed.) 2001 (Or a later edition). *Communication research – techniques, methods and applications*. Lansdowne: Juta. ISBN 0 7021 5641 8.

McQuail, D. 2000 (Or later edition). *McQuail's mass communication theory*. London: Sage.

Wimmer, R.D. & Dominick, J.R. 2006. *Mass media research - an introduction*. Belmont CA: Thomson Wadsworth.

10. Lecturer

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Module 5

Media, Culture and History 775 (MCH)

Submodules

	credits	%	Lecturer
Cultural Literacy	6	5	Prof G Claassen and Mr S Sesanti
Media History	3	2	Mr S Sesanti
	9	7	

Media, Culture and History

Cultural Literacy

1. Objectives of the course

The main objective of the course in Cultural Literacy is to give the modern journalist a better background knowledge of the present world. Most people – and this is unfortunately also true for the majority of journalists – have the tendency to uncritically make the modern world their point of departure. In other words, they see their own time as static and unchangeable. But if they really want to understand their own time, they must become conscious of the dynamics of change through the centuries. It is especially essential for a journalist – as the champion of one of the main pillars of democracy, namely press freedom – to possess a notion of history and a good general idea of and insight in the problems of the modern world. Only then can he or she report honestly and expertly to the general public.

2. What the course does not want to achieve

The course does not want to communicate a number of dull facts to the students. The words *Cultural Literacy* are already an indication of what the course wants to achieve. The word *cultural* is derived from the old Latin words *cultura* and *cultus*. Originally, the first word meant “cultivation” or “care” (of the land). Later it started to mean “education of the mind”. The Latin word *cultus* means among other things “civilization”. (By the way, our modern word *culture* can be used in the narrow sense – the arts – as well as in the broader sense – all the traditions, ideas, activities and forms of organization of human society). The Latin word *literatura* means originally “letter-writing”, from which the meanings “learning” and “scientific education” have been derived. Both words, therefore, emphasize the idea of *education*.

The reason for this course is reflected in the speech made on 9 November 1999, by James B. Wolfensohn, the president of the World Bank, before the World Press Freedom Committee. While reading the speech it becomes clear very soon that one needs a considerable amount of background knowledge in order to really understand it. Institutions and subjects like the OECD, the World Bank, Freedom House, the Cold War, Communism, the consequences of urbanization and globalisation for the Third World are mentioned. But even more important is the central theme of the speech, because it confronts the journalist with his/her place and task in society. For Wolfensohn sees a free press as an indispensable condition for ending the vicious circle of poverty, inequality and corruption. The central role of free media in every society makes this course that much more necessary.

3. Structure of the course

The course is a year course that will be offered in two blocks: The first block will be taught during the first semester (fourteen weeks) and the second one in the fourth quarter (six weeks).

The course is divided in seven general topics:

3.1 Introduction

Discussion of the purpose and structure of the course.

3.2 Subjects

3.2.1 The Origins of the Cosmos (presented by Prof G Claassen)

- Geological timescales
- The Great Extinctions
- The origins of humans and other species
- The origins of life: theories on comets, the primal soup and other mechanisms of origin.

3.2.2 The Origin of Myths, Religions, Legends and Rational Thinking (presented by Prof G Claassen)

- Prometheus Unbound (Shelley): The development of science and technology.
- “If God had not existed, we would have invented him.” (Voltaire): Religion in modern society.
- Rational thinking and the rise of science.
- The scientific method.
- C.P. Snow: The Two Cultures

3.2.3 There is life outside Western culture (presented by Mr S Sesanti)

Africa: The lost continent?

China: The sleeping giant?

India: Bollywood or Hollywood?

Japan: Country of the rising or setting sun?

The Middle East: Just a cauldron of hatred?

Russia: Giant with clay feet?

The Rise of the West: Why and how?

“America the beautiful”?

Europe: The Fall of the West?

3.2.4 **Globalization: How important is it?** (presented by Mr S Sesanti)

3.2.5 **Political systems** (presented by Mr S Sesanti)

- “We must make the world safe for democracy” (Woodrow Wilson): The origins and evolution of democracy and totalitarianism.
- The end of the “evil empire” (Ronald Reagan): capitalism and communism/socialism.

3.2.6 **The Emancipation of the Woman** (presented by Mr S Sesanti)

- “There are two kinds of women, goddesses and doormats” (Pablo Picasso)

3.2.7 **The future: The challenges of the 21st century** (presented by Mr S Sesanti)

- “Nothing lasts, except change” (Heraclitus)

4. **Continuous evaluation**

The topics under discussion will be tested as much as possible on account of topics of the day. There will be five assignments in the first semester. The length of these five assignments will be approximately 800 words, and they can be compared with a background article on the op-ed page of a newspaper. In the second semester there will be two assignments of a 1000 words each. Content-wise all assignments will be linked with topics that are under discussion at that moment.

The students receive a progress mark in June. In the case of this course the assignments will make out 60% of the first semester mark and the June examination 40%.

The predicate mark at the end of the year is calculated by adding to the progress mark the two assignments of the fourth quarter. Both marks have an equal weight. Because of this the last two assignments weigh somewhat heavier than the four of the first semester. The final mark is calculated by adding the predicate mark – weighing 60% – to the November examination mark, weighing 40%. Because of this the November examination weighs slightly more than the June examination. The reason is that both the last two assignments and the November examination are more difficult than the assignments and examination of the first semester.

5. **Lecturer**

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Mr S Sesanti | ☎ 021 808 2625 | E-mail: simsesanti@sun.ac.za

Consultation according to appointments

Media, Culture and History

Media History

1. Aim

To give a contemporary historical overview on the basis of *capita selecta* of some of the most important facets of journalism as it relates to the media scene in South Africa, with some references, where applicable, to the foreign situation.

2. Outcome

The ability to have an understanding of the origin of media, its impact on society, and to understand the role of the media as “historian” in itself.

3. Structure

Short course: 14 April, 21 April

14 April	09:00 - 10:30	Introduction
	Theme 1: Overview - Media history	
	10:30 - 11:00	Break
	11:00 - 12:30	Theme 2: Unheard voices in SA media
21 April	09:00 - 09:45	Theme 3: Historical important news events covered in the media (Group 1)
	09:45 - 10:30	Theme 4: Historical important media owners, and editors; journalists and photographers (Group 2)
	10:30 - 11:00	Break
	11:00 - 11:45	Theme 5: Historically important journalists and photographers (Group 3)
	11:45 - 12:30	Theme 6: The alternative media in SA (Group 4)

The first two themes will be presented by Simphiwe Sesanti; the last four as group work by the class. The groups will study the relevant sources and present a lecture of about 45 minutes. The lecturer must be presented with a **portfolio** of the project, complete with an **index**, with a **list of the group members, evaluation of each other's contribution**, the material in **neat order**, the **lecture in ppt-format**, and a **list of references**.

Course work

1 x group portfolio - Themes 3 - 6

1 x project (individual work)

4. Scope

4.1 **Theme 1: Media history overview** **(Simphiwe Sesanti)**

A general introduction to the history of the media. Where and how did the media come into being, and how has the media developed since? This will be followed by focusing on the media's origin in the Cape – in what later became South Africa – with reference to the development of specific media (print, broadcasting and new media).

4.2 **Theme 2: Unheard voices in the SA media** **(Simphiwe Sesanti)**

Who are the silent voices in the development and history of the media? A sub-theme, namely the voices of women, will be covered in this lecture. An historical overview of the development of women in journalism worldwide will be followed by focusing on women in South Africa, specifically black women.

4.3 **Theme 3: Historical important news events covered in the media** **(Group 1)**

The group must compile a lecture/discussion with the following focus:

Journalism has been described as 'the first draft of history'. What can one tell from the way the press has conveyed historical events over the last four centuries? Can one discern certain patterns? Was there a change in the way news was reported in terms of topic and contents? An overview of some major news stories with an input from the class in terms of students' own selection.

4.4 Theme 4: Historical important media owners and editors (Group 2)

The group must compile a lecture/discussion with the following focus:

What made some media 'moguls' and editors exceptional; what are the typical features of a great editor; how can their influence be measured today; if they weren't born or didn't become journalists, would it have made any difference in society?; what are the most important elements of their legacy? [Apart from the person(s) about whom you are doing your assignment, you also have to study at least one foreign and one South African editor/media owner.]

4.5 Theme 5: Historical important journalists and photographers (Group 3)

The group must compile a lecture/discussion with the following focus:

What made some journalists and photographers exceptional; what are the typical features of a great journalist/photographer; how can their influence be measured today; if they weren't born or didn't become journalists, would it have made any difference in society?; what are the most important elements of their legacy? [Apart from the person(s) about whom you are doing your assignment, you also have to study at least one foreign and one South African journalist/photographer.]

4.6 Theme 6: The alternative media in South Africa (Group 4)

The group must compile a lecture/discussion with the following focus:

In this lecture the history of certain South African alternative publications is discussed, as well as their survival strategies in circumstances very different from those in which they came into being. The nature and methods of two alternative weekly papers, Weekly Mail and Vrye Weekblad is investigated. This is concluded with a discussion of the possibilities for the development of new alternative media in South Africa.

5. Reading material

5.1 Theme 1: Media history: overview (Simphiwe Sesanti)

Banda, B. (2007). The Media in Africa. In Fourie: (2007: 60 – 86)

Berger, A.A. (1998). *Media Research Techniques* Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage

Claassen (1998): *Life's own story*. In De Beer: Mass media towards the millennium (1998:119-146)

Diederichs & De Beer (1998): The Fourth Estate: a *cornerstone of democracy*. In De Beer: Mass media towards the millennium (1998:85-119)

Mersham (1998): *A fascinating window on an unfolding world*. In De Beer: Mass media towards the millennium (1998:207-238)

Teer-Tomaselli & De Villiers (1998): *Theatre of the mind*. In De Beer: Mass media towards the millennium (1998:147-178)

Wigston (200): History of the South African Media. In Fourie: *Media Studies* (Vol 1) (2001:4 - 58)

5.2 Theme 2: Gender and the SA media (Simphiwe Sesanti)

Adhikari (1996). *Straatpraatjes Language, politics and popular culture in Cape Town, 1909-1922*

Berger, A.A. 1998. *Media Research Techniques* Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Mills

(1990). *A Place in the news From the women's pages to the front pages* Price-Groff

(1997). *Extraordinary women journalists*

Rabe, L. (2001). 'Eva-lusie' – die stem van die vrou in SA media (Intreerede)

Rabe, L. (2002:152-169). Eve-olution – the status of women in SA media

Rabe, L. (2004). *Media education and training: towards "en-gendered" newsrooms* Forum article. Ecquid Novi (25 (1)

Rabe, L. (2004). *Women voices in the media of the Afrikaans language community – an historical perspective*. *Communitas* (9:2004)

Rabe, L. (2006). *Rykie van Reenen - Journalist Extraordinaire, Communicatio* Vol 32 (1)

Rabe, L. (2006). *The wedge that cracked the rock – a pioneering woman journalist*. *Communitas* (11) 2006

5.3 Theme 3: Historical important news events

(Group 1)

Capita selecta from the following and any other relevant sources:

De Beer, Van Ryneveld & Schreiner (1999:1-15): *International news research: from Leipzig in the 1690s to news flows in the 1990s and beyond*.

Woodhull & Snyder (1998). *Defining moments in journalism*. (Selection) Zelizer &

Allan (2002). *Journalism after September 11*. (Selection).

5.4 Theme 4 & 5: Historical important media 'moguls' and editors, journalists and photographers

(Group 2 & 3)

Capita selecta from the following and any other relevant sources:

'Moguls' and editors

Demers (2003): *Global media news reader*.

Mouton (2002): *Voorloper*: Schalk Pienaar (Ditto).

Steyn (2002): *Penvegter*: PJ Cillié. (Sections of the book as discussed) Vosloo

(1982). *Die redakteur – kaptein van die skip*.

Sources will be supplied and traced by students for editors such as Klaaste, Mervis, Tyson, Plaatje, Qoboza, Beaverbrook, Delane, Northcliffe, Pulitzer, Hearst, Bradley, and other editors the class would like to add.

Journalists and photographers

Hachten (1998): *Why the public hates (some) journalists*

Rabe, L. 2006. *Rykie van Reenen - Journalist Extraordinaire*, *Communicatio* Vol 32 (1) Schudson

(1978): *Telling stories: Journalism as a vocation*.

Waller (2000): *A bigger picture*. (Selection).

Weaver (1998): *The global journalist – news people around the world*. (Selection).

Sources will be supplied and traced by students for reporters and photographers such as Chrestus, Peucer, (from the early period); Russell (Crimean War); Woodward en Bernstein (Watergate) and photographers (like Kappa and Oosterbroek) which the class may want to add.

5.5 Theme 6: Alternative media

(Group 4)

Capita selecta from the following and any other relevant sources:

Chris Atton (2002): *Alternative Media*

Keyan Tomaselli & P Eric Louw, editors (1991): *The Alternative Press in South Africa*

Les Switzer & Mohamed Adhikari, editors (2000): *South Africa's Resistance Press*

Irwin Manoim, editor (1996): "...you have been warned"- *the first ten years of the Mail and Guardian*

Michael Chapman, ed (2001): *The Drum Decade*.

6. Recommended reading material

A wide variety of books, with recommendations, will be brought to class. Many of those are in my office and can be signed out. However, students are expected to find sources themselves.

Web pages <http://www.mediahistory.umn.edu/index2.html>

<http://www.mediahistory.umn.edu/print.html>

<http://www.mediahistory.umn.edu/journ.html>

<http://www.mediahistory.umn.edu/radio.html>

<http://www.mediahistory.umn.edu/teevee.html>

<http://www.mediahistory.umn.edu/photo.html>

<http://www.swan.ac.uk/mediastudies/history.html>

<http://www.elon.edu/dcopeland/mhm/mhm.htm>

<http://www.berry.edu/ajha/> <http://www.berry.edu/ajha/linkShtml>

<http://www.utc.edu/Outreach/AEJMC-HistoryDivision/>

7. Evaluation

Evaluation consists of the group portfolio, as well as one individual project. The group work assignment will count towards 25% of the individual's mark, and the project for 75%. Total = 100.

All work done will be assessed according to the following criteria:

- adequate delimitation and conceptualising of the field and subject of research;
- adequate command of the relevant research method;
- familiarity with the relevant literature;
- clear and systematic presentation of the material and logical exposition of the argument;
- proper documentation and support of the results of the research;
- acceptable linguistic and stylistic presentation.

8. Activities

8.1 **Class activity:** Students should prepare for every class by studying not only the prescribed work, but also the previous week's media coverage of the relevant themes with a view to discuss this in class. The course depends on personal initiative.

8.2 **Assignment:** Information will be handed out in class.

9. Sources

Relevant lists above, as well as any other relevant sources.

Additional recommended sources:

Berger. A.A. 1998. *Media Research Techniques* Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Chapman, J. 2005. *Comparative Media History*. Cambridge, UK: Polity.

Conboy, M. 2002. *The press and popular culture*. London: Sage. Conboy,

M. 2004. *Journalism. A critical history*. London: Sage. Harrison, J. 2006.

News Oxon & NY: Routledge.

Lamb. C. 2004. *Drawn to the extremes The use and abuse of editorial cartoons* NY: Columbia University Press

Price-Groff. 1997. *Extraordinary Women Journalists* NY: Children's Press, Grolier Publ.

Sloan, W.D. & Anderson, L.B. 2003. *Pulitzer Prize Editorials America's Best Writing 1917-2003*. Third Edition. Iowa State Press: Blackwell Publishing.

Starr, P. 2004. *The creation of the media. Political origins of modern communications* NY: Basic Books

10. Lecturer

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Consultation according to appointments

Module 6

Specialist Journalism 776 (SJ)

Submodules

	credits	%	Lecturer
S&T Journalism (incl. Health Journalism)	5.5	5	Prof G Claassen Ms C Visagie
International Journalism (Global and Africa)	3	3	Ms L Louw-Vaudran
Photojournalism	4	5	Mr J van Tonder
Financial Journalism and Numerical Literacy	1.5	2	Mr R van Niekerk
	14	15	

Specialist Journalism

Science and Technology Journalism

1. Aim

The aim of the course and approach to training in science and technology journalism. The course has the following goals:

- 1.1 To teach journalism students a measure of science literacy by exposing them to the important fields of thought and some theories of science. The point of departure is that they, even if they had studied in natural sciences at an undergraduate level, have little knowledge of the trends in science.
- 1.2 To train students to report on scientific findings and developments to the lay public in an accessible way.
- 1.3 To teach students basic numerical literacy and how to report on statistical data in science.
- 1.4 To teach students to report on the environment.
- 1.5 To teach students the importance of interviewing skills on complex subjects with scientists.

2. The principles of interviewing

2.1 Preparation for the interview: research about the subject; CV and biography of scientist with whom the interview is to be conducted; setting questions.

2.2 Content of interview

Theme (peg on which the interview is hung). Golden thread running through interview.

Description of home, or at least office of scientist

Anecdotes

Good quotes woven through the interview

Other sources on the subject.

Remember to listen

"It's not what you are looking at, it's what you're seeing; it's not what you listen to, but what you're hearing; not what you touch, but what you feel." (Henry David Thoreau).

Completed article (product): "My rule of thumb is that if the subject unreservedly loves it, I have failed because no accurate, fair profile should be as rosy as the vanity we each have secreted in our hearts... The best we can hope for is a shrug and a grudging admission that what we wrote was fair."

Dorothy Nelkin

Truth, Fairness, Accuracy and Good Story-telling the pillars of a good interview.

3. General characteristics shared by scientists and journalists

- 3.1 Discoverers
- 3.2 Analytical methods
- 3.3 Patience and persistence
- 3.4 Continued studies and reading
- 3.5 The observant mind

4. Why scientists should communicate better

- 4.1 Public responsibility
- 4.2 Influence on policy makers and practise
- 4.3 Stimulating extra financing for research
- 4.4 Propagating cooperative research

4.5 Better control over research

5. Textbook science v Frontier Science

“Textbook science is the settled scientific knowledge on which (in natural sciences) one can build one’s own work. In contrast, frontier science is science as it is actually being conducted. Its results have just been obtained, they are uncertain and unconfirmed.”

H.H. Bauer. 1992. *Scientific literacy and the myth of the scientific method*. Urbana & Chicago: University of Illinois Press).

“It is certainly good to know that our publications survive for at least a few months before they are refuted.”

John Maddox, editor *Nature* (quoted by *Focus*).

“In textbook science an expert is easily identified. Someone who claims that there is a reasonable probability that an apple may fall from the bottom to the top is immediately known as a non-expert. But if we are interested in the effects of electronic smog it is difficult indeed to know who is an expert and who is not... Citizens are not much interested in textbook science but in frontier science... Unfortunately, public decision making with respect to new technologies is not about textbook science but always about frontier science. And decisions cannot be postponed until present frontier science has matured into textbook science... Scientists are intensely involved in frontier science because their emotions, their careers, their whole life depend on what they are doing. This entices many scientists to sell textbook science when they are actually talking about frontier science.”

B.C. Adelman-Grill et al. 1995. *EICOS: The Unique Laboratory Experience*. Paper presented at International Federation of Science Education, Barcelona.

6. Important challenges to the reporter of scientific findings

6.1 The researcher

- Scientists not interested in publicity
- Scientists do not understand news values
- Reporter should build good relations with scientists and vice versa.

6.2 The research project

- Basic or fundamental research (Genome mapping; relativity; evolution; cosmology)
- Practical or utility research (Prevention of e.g. cancer, Alzheimers, Parkinsons, by obtaining knowledge through genome mapping research)

6.3 To make the report understandable and accessible to the public

“Although dullness is the researcher’s prerogative, it is the reporter’s enemy. Given the task of writing an interesting story, the reporter must seek to humanise the research project, spelling out for the reader what it means in clear, careful and accurate words. The reporter must find out what the discovery or theory means or may mean eventually to the average person and then provide the details necessary to give the layperson a clear picture of the research.”

Julian Harriss et al. 1992. *The Complete Reporter* (6th edition).

7. Reading list

Read the following two books for the exams in June and November:

- 7.1 Jerry Coyne: *Why Evolution Is True* (for exam in June).
- 7.2 Simon Singh: *Big Bang* (for exam in November).

8. Numerical literacy and statistical processing of data

8.1 How to report on statistical data (Michael Blastland & Andrew Dilnot: *The Tiger That Isn’t – Seeing Through a World of Numbers*; Profile Books, 2007; Victor Cohn: *News & Numbers*).

8.2 Practical training in numerical literacy

9. Prescribed works (compulsory reading list)

As set out in 7 above.

10. Assignments

10.1 Write an article of an interview you have conducted with any scientist or researcher for your paper's op-ed page. The article must deal with the scientist's research and should also include human interest aspects of the person behind the research. It must be written in the style of a feature article and not as a question-answer article (maximum 2 000 words) (**31 August 2010**).

10.2-5 Take one scientific article from each of *Nature* (submission date: **2 March 2010**), *Science* (**23 March 2010**), *The South African Medical Journal* (**20 April 2010**), and *The South African Journal of Science* (**17 May 2010**). Write a **news report** (maximum 500 words) on each of the articles for a newspaper. Give a liftout quote that will attract readers' attention. Also write your own headline. Attach a copy of the original articles from the relevant magazines to your reports. Please note: the criteria for a scientific article is that it should be a report on scientific findings by the original researchers. You must take an article from the research division of the relevant magazine and not from the news section in which a journalist reports on research findings. The easiest way to determine this is to test whether the article has a comprehensive list of sources and footnotes at the end.

11. Lecturer

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Specialist Journalism

Health Journalism

Time period
1 day (Wednesday 05 May 2010)

Approx 7 hours
Approx 2 assignments

1. Objectives

To give students broad exposure to the unique challenges involved in reporting on medical issues, as well as to give students the opportunity to gain practical experience in terms of typical reporting tasks that they may encounter in the workplace.

2. Evaluation

Students will be evaluated on two assignments: one will carry a weight of 30%; the other will carry a weight of 70% towards a final mark for the module. The final course mark will form part of the mark for S&T Journalism in a ratio of 10% (Health Journalism and 90% (S&T Journalism)).

3. Structure

- Introduction to health journalism
- Where to find credible information
- Understanding research methodology
- Health-writing technique
- Building a relationship with scientists/experts
- Ethics in health journalism
- HIV/Aids reporting in SA

4. Programme

Wednesday 05 May 2010

09:00-10:30 - Introduction to health journalism
- Where to find credible information
- Understanding research methodology

10:30-10:45 Tea break

10:45-12:00 - Understanding research methodology (continued)
- Health-writing technique

12:00-13:00 - Practical session

13:00-14:00 Lunch

14:00-15:00 - Health-writing technique (continued)
- Building a relationship with scientists/experts
- Ethics in health journalism
- HIV/Aids reporting in SA

5. Practical work

Practical work is incorporated into the 2 assignments (see below).

6. Assignments

Assignment 1 (30%): A mock press conference will be held during classtime. Students will be expected to compile a short news report on the talk.

Assignment 2 (70%): Students will receive a research article, as published by a reputable medical journal. The students will be expected to write a detailed report relating to this study. Other sources can be incorporated.

7. Recommended sources

Health Writer's Handbook by Barbara Gastel (Blackwell Publishers)

8. Lecturer

Ms Carine Visagie | 📞 021 468 8288 | 📱 082 879 4304 | e-mail: cvrooy@health24.com

Specialist Journalism

International Journalism

Lecturer

Louw-Vaudran	28-30 April 2010
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1. Objectives of the course

In a globalised world, where news is circulated and distributed at an increasingly rapid pace to an increasingly wider audience, all journalists need a thorough background knowledge of international issues. While not everyone will become an international correspondent, it is highly likely that any journalist in the course of her or his career will undertake reporting assignments in other countries or be called upon to write or edit copy and opinion pieces on international issues.

South-Africa's role in the international arena has in the last few years become increasingly important. This is thanks to the country's role as leading member of the Africa-group in the United Nations, as member of IBSA (India, Brazil, South Africa), as a close observer of the Middle East situation and as important negotiator in the international trade talks (the present Doha-round). Readers, viewers and listeners in South-Africa are increasingly interested and concerned by reports on world events. The course will provide an overview of the main issues, roleplayers and institutions in the international arena. To give students a practical idea of what the work of a foreign correspondent entails, the experience of a foreign reporter will also be discussed. What does a foreign reporter do? What are the opportunities for international reporting?

South Africa's priorities internationally however are focused on the African continent: the Southern African Development Community, the African Union, mediating in conflicts in Africa and economic ties with the rest of the continent are increasingly gaining importance. A good knowledge of Africa's institutions, crises and history is therefore essential. The scramble for Africa's resources, the increasing role of China in Africa and issues around democratisation will be addressed in this section. How news about Africa is presented in the South African media and how to make these stories attractive to readers, viewers and listeners will also be discussed.

2. International Journalism: 28-30 April 2010

Day 1

Introduction

Session 1: *The World Spotlight*

International issues for discussion, group activity.

Session 2: *Inside the foreign editor's mind.*

'International vs Local' in a flat world. What goes onto the World Page?
Analysis of South African media reporting on international issues.

Afternoon

Session 1: *Can we believe it?*

Credible news sources on international issues. Cable channels vs websites.
The BBC, VOA and who else?

Session 2: *Off to....*

Becoming a foreign correspondent. Do's and don'ts on assignment in a foreign country.

Day 2

Session 1: *Newswatch Africa.*

Current Africa issues and their portrayal in mainstream media.

Session 2: *Press freedom*

Discussion and analysis of newspapers from around Africa. The impact of restricting media laws on quality and credibility

Afternoon

Session 1: *Who to quote?*

Sources on African politics: AU, Nepad, Regional Economic Communities, NGO's, and Thinktanks

Session 2: *Off to...*

When on assignment to an African country. What to take with you? Preparations. Reporting AU-summits, elections in Africa. Protocol, news conferences, interviewing heads of state.

Day 3

Session 1: *In the news today.*

Compiling an international news bulletin/web page. Where are the priorities? Who does it best?

Session 2: *Group work*

Debate main hot topics in Africa. DRC, Darfur, Zimbabwe, Media, South Africa's Africa policy. Podcast interviews

Afternoon

Session 1: *The future of reporting Africa*

Is anyone interested? Big SA media groups closing down offices. What are the implications? Views from the experts. Discussion

Session 2: *Feedback. Assignment.*

3. Lecturer

Liesl Louw-Vaudran

| ☎ 012 346 9500 / 012 346 9502

| e-mail: llouw@issafrika.org

Specialist Journalism

Photojournalism

Approx 20 lectures (40 hours) Approx 8 assignments
Approx 2 projects

1. Objective of course

Visual literacy with specific reference to the roll of photography in the media. To train the student in operating digital equipment and develop skills with regards to editing and decision-making.

2. Evaluation

Key concepts are tested by means of practical assignments. Each photograph is required to tell a story and meet certain generally accepted standards.

Pictures handed in for assignments are projected in class and discussed in a public forum, rather than engagement with students on an individual level. Additional time is arranged with individuals as required.

Marks for assignments are made up of the following considerations:

Story- or newsvalue

Overall impact (Composition & crop)

Technical

Presentation

3. Structure

Part 1 deals with technical aspects of photography – lighting, shutter speed and depth of field. Composition and its application in photojournalism covers 27 key elements.

Part 2 comprises a series of lectures on the practical approach to different subgenres, including news, sport, features, portraits and photo stories. The emphasis is on how the medium is applied in journalism. The importance of being multi-skilled and proficiency in modern technology is a constant focus.

Ethics is an underlying part of the entire course. Lectures are very visual with many examples from magazines, newspapers and news agencies.

4. Programme

01 – 04 Technical

Summary and informal evaluation

05 – 07 Composition

08 – 16 Practical approach to photojournalism

5. Practical work

Two excursions are undertaken, but students are encouraged to submit work done on own accord.

6. Assignments

Light reading

Shutter speed

Depth of field, selective focus

Composition – several assignments

Practical approach to news, features, portraits

7. Tests

N/A

8. Projects

A portfolio, covering the following categories, is submitted at the end of the course:

Photo story News / Sport
Portraits Features

9. Other assignments

Ad hoc assignments related to specific events.

10. Prescribed sources

Kobre, Ken: *Photojournalism: The Professional's Approach*

11. Recommended sources

Waller, M: *A Bigger Picture: A Manual of Photojournalism in Southern Africa*

12. Lecturer

Mr J van Tonder | ☎ 083 228 3907 | E-mail: jvtond@media24.com

Specialist Journalism

Financial Journalism and Numeric Literacy

Short course: 23-25 August 2010

1. **Financial Reporting** (For all Commerce, Accounting, Finances graduates)

This course gives the beginner journalist the opportunity to get a theoretical as well as practical understanding of financial journalism. Various learning opportunities exist within the course.

Monday 23 August

1.1 **Defining financial news**

- The South African financial news landscape
- The international financial news landscape

1.2 **What do financial journalists report on?**

- The different sectors
- Beats
- Class task #1: Identify 4 articles that falls in different business news sectors

1.3 **Where does financial news come from?**

SENS .

Contacts:

In the company (CEO, COO, CFO, PR) Analysts

Fund Managers Economists

Media releases

Internet

Annual general meetings

Annual reports

1.4 **Class task for the afternoon**

- Write a financial news bulletin for this evening's television news containing three local and two international business stories. One of the local stories should contain the market movements. Please motivate why you've chosen your main story. (400 to 500 words)

Tuesday 24 August

1.5 **How does the JSE work?**

- Class task #2: write a mid morning JSE report of about 150 to 200 words. Answer questions like: did the market open positive or negative, which factors contributed to the movement, what did the rand do, which companies showed the biggest losses or gains?

1.6 **Class discussion on the factors that contribute to the movement of the market.**

Company news

How do we analyse it?

Which numbers are important?

How do we report on it for different news mediums?

1.7 **What are the elements of a good business story?**

- Did the journalist dig deeper?
- Did the journalist use the right figures or numbers?
- Does your intro answer the question "so what?" to the target audience?
- Does it take into account external trends?
- What effect does it have on the future?

1.8 **Preparation for the final assignment**

- Information and news releases will be given to the students to start preparing for the final assignment on the annual results of a locally listed retailer.

Wednesday 25 August

1.9 Further preparation for the final assignment

An analyst from Sanlam will come and discuss the results of the retailer as well as the local trading environment for retailers with the class. He will touch on subjects such

- what do analysts look at when evaluating annual results?
- what is important to the investment community?
- what are the readers' interests?

1.10 Final assignment

- Write an article of about 500 to 600 words about the discussed retailer's results. Bear in mind the comments made by the analyst and use this as well as your own research to write the article. Please state your target audience as well as the publication you write for. Remember to use the elements of a good business story as well as elements for the best use of figures and stats. Photo's will be supplied, but you are welcome to use your own graphics.

1.11 Books and websites that might interest you

Van Zyl, Cecilia., Botha, Ziets., Peter, Skerrit (2006). *Understanding South African Financial Markets*. Second edition. Van Schaik, Pretoria.

Fink, Conrad. C. (2000). *Bottom Line Writing*, Iowa State University Press, Ames.

Silbiger, Steven. (2005). *The 10-day MBA*. Piatkus Books, London.

Roux, Andre. (2002). *Everyon's Guide to the South African Economy*. Seventh edition. Zebra Press, Cape Town.

www.jse.co.za www.moneyweb.co.za
www.fin24.co.za
www.investorwords.com www.xe.com
www.wsj.com www.ft.com
www.bbc.co.uk

2. Numerical Literacy (For all non-commerce graduates) Monday-Wednesday 23-25 August 2010

Monday 23 August

2.1 Class task #1

- Interview the person sitting next to you to find any significant number in his or her life.
- Why do we use numbers in stories?
- How do we use numbers in stories?

2.2 Class task #2

- Go and find examples in today's paper or online stories with numbers.
- Class discussion on the use of numbers
- Why do we need to explain why we use the numbers we chose in a story?
- Why do we need to put those numbers into context?

2.3 Homework

Identify any topic and create a sidebar for a newspaper or magazine including no less than ten different numbers or statistics related to your topic. Use graphics or photos and remember to state the source of your information. Also do some research on the popular mistakes journalists make when using numbers in articles.

Tuesday 24 August

2.4 Class task #3

- Conversion exercise

2.5 Class task #4

- Calculation exercise – percentage, percentage change, etc.
- Large and small numbers
- Millions, billions, trillions

2.6 Homework

- Go to www.alertnet.org.za
- Draw a graph on any topic containing at least four countries and interpret the graph in approximately 200 words
- Choose any current humanitarian crises and write about 350 words using some of the data available on the website. Keep in mind what you've learned about the use of numbers and pacing your story!

Wednesday 25 August

2.7 Polls, survey's, etc

- What questions to ask when using the above
- Revisiting tips on making stories and numbers sing

2.8 Final assignment

- Topic to be confirmed
- Word count: approximately 500 to 600 words

Useful books and websites

Muller, Dalene (2003). *Skryf Afrikaans*. Pharos, Cape Town.

The Economist (1992). *Desk Companion*. John Wiley & Sons, UK.

The Economist (2007 Edition). *Pocket - World in Figures*. Legoprint, Italy.

www.mathmistakes.com

www.onlineconversion.com

www.timeconversion.com

www.economist.com/styleguide

www.poynter.org www.alertnet.org

3. Lecturer

Mr Ryk van Niekerk | 📞 011 713 9244 📞 083 408 9477 | E-mail: ryk.vanniekerk@sake24.com

Module 7

Indepth Project 777

Submodule

	Credits	%	Lecturer
Indepth Project	30	25	Ms J-A Floris

Specialist Journalism

Indepth Project



UniversiteitStellenbosch
University

Department of Journalism



Indepth Project (25%)

Supervisor: Ms J-A Floris

26 November 2010

Full marks

100

The Indepth Project must be handed in on **Friday 26 November 2010, no later than 16:00**.

It is a **journalistic research project** in which your ability to research and present a media related subject of your own choice is tested. You can approach the project as a multimedia project (e.g. two radio programmes, and two features, or in other combinations/other media). It must fulfil the following criteria:

- It must consist of a series of **four feature articles**, for usage in the mass media, of maximum 1 500 words each on one topic, logically arranged (indicate length at end of project together with sources).
- If it is a radio programme, it must be a minimum of 20 minutes (4 x 20 minutes if you produce 4 programmes and do not include print media features).
- If you include a TV documentary, the programme must be a minimum of 15 minutes (4 x 15 minutes if you produce 4 programmes and do not include print media features).
- The articles must be designed and presented typographically, i.e. you must do the layout by writing headlines, teasers and including pictures. Please note, you are not allowed to get help in the execution of this, as this is part of your final assessment. If you use other media than print, the technical packaging of your programmes will be evaluated.
- The same applies to programmes, irrespective of audio or video. The technical aspects will be evaluated in lieu of the typographical aspects of the print media features. You are not allowed to get help in the editing/packaging of your programmes.
- Approach the project as if you are completing a series for a mainstream newspaper, radiostation or TV channel. It is in other words a project that is produced for the mass media, not an academic exercise (according to social-scientific style).

The evaluation of the indepth project will be according to the principles of WED (Writing, Editing, Design) and will be judged according to the following criteria:

1. Research capability. Your ability to research all facets of your subject intensively, is important. It will be evaluated in two ways:

- Research by means of all sources, books, newspapers, magazines, the Internet, and other background material throwing light on your subject.
- Interviews you have conducted with diverse specialists and experts on your subject. Quote enough people in each article.

2. **Typographical presentation.** The way, in which you present your articles visually and typographically, is of the utmost importance. The articles must individually be edited with suitable headlines, pictures and other graphical material, which are **scanned and not glued** in the proper places. Also use teasers, sidebars and other typographical methods to arrange and present your articles in a visually attractive way. It is also important that you ensure clear typographical continuity in the series of articles. The series must also show that you understand the role of infographics in the modern news office and that you can apply the principles – use graphics in such a way that it is creative and add to the visuality of the feature. If you use other media than print, your series will be evaluated according to the specific criteria for that medium.

3. **Language usage and editing.** Good and creative use of grammar and language as well as thorough editing of copy. If you use audio or video, each programme must be supported by a full text document. These texts have to fulfil all the requirements of journalism.

4. **Bibliography.** At the end of the four articles, separate from them, you must include a comprehensive source list. It must also include a list of interviews (names and dates) and Internet addresses. The length of each feature should also be indicated.

5. **Ringbind:** The project must be handed in ringbound. If you include CD's/DVD's, make sure they are mounted on the pages. The CD/DVD case must also have a front page.

*The indepth project counts for 25% of your total final mark. The student with the best indepth project receives the **Golden Pen Award**, sponsored by the Rowland and Annie Hill Trust.*

Addendum 2

Addendum 2.1: PGDip (RU) programme documents

Rhodes University Postgraduate Diploma in Journalism and Media Studies

Term 1, 2010 Reporting Skills and Principles for Journalists

Course Coordinator:

Jenny Gordon: Room 211 Africa Media Matrix

Phone: 046 603-7135

j.gordon@ru.ac.za

Facilitator:

Anna Christensen: Room 220 AMM

Phone: 046 603-7158; Cell: 082 339- 3344

a.christensen@ru.ac.za; annac@netactive.co.za

Consultations: By appointment

Meeting Times and Venues:

Monday: 11:00-1:00 in Room 203

2:30-5:00 in Writing Lab

Wednesday: 11:00-1:00 in Room 203

2:30-5:00 in Grahamstown

Thursday: 11:00-1:00 in Room 203

2:30-5:00 in Writing Lab

Other times and venues for field trips and movies to be arranged.

Required text:

Harrower, T. 2007. *Inside Reporting*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Also The Rhodes School of Journalism Style Guide, a good dictionary, *Roget's Thesaurus*, *The Grahamstown Handbook*, The phone directory.

Recommended Reading:

Ansell, G. *Introduction to Journalism*. 2005. Johannesburg: Jacana Media.

or Ansell, G. and Rossouw, R. *Basic Journalism*. 2002. Milpark: M&G Books.

Journalism:

Sample all local, national and international newspapers and magazines, watch as much television news as your eyes can handle and listen to as much radio news as is possible in Grahamstown. Do this every day. Make clips of all stories that catch your eye, whether they are good or bad and bring them to class to discuss, take notes on radio and television news that draws your attention

Campus publications: *Activate, The Oppie Press, Rhodes, Rhodes Journalism Review.*

Local publications: *Grocott's Mail, Grahamstown This Week, Makana Moon*

Daily Dispatch, The Herald, Daily Sun or Die Burger

Graham's Town: The Untold Story; A social history and self-guided tour. 2002. A Black Sash Publication. *Walking Tours of Grahamstown.* These are sold at Makana Tourism.

A national daily such as *Business Day* or *The Sowetan*

National & international weeklies such as *The Sunday Times, Mail & Guardian, City Press, Sunday Sun or The Financial Times.*

As many magazines as possible (maybe we can share these)

There will be a small library of books on journalism in my office, others will be put on short term loan in the library. You will be required to read at least one, report back to the group on it during week 5 and submit your review on week 6.

Photojournalism: Paul Greenway will teach a series of classes on photojournalism in the 3rd and 4th weeks of the term. An SLR or other good digital camera would be useful, but not required. Cameras will be available for loan from the department.

Course description: This course aims to introduce you to basic news writing and reporting skills, as well as reporting principles such as legal and ethical issues, regardless of medium. You are required to read books, newspapers and magazines, listen to the radio and watch television news. You must demonstrate an insatiable appetite for news, the ability to raise issues and to critically evaluate how news is reported.

The Brief: The course will be based around the fictionalised assumption that you are a foreign correspondent reporting for your favourite news publication. (Writing for broadcast journalism will be covered later in the course.) You will be expected to compile a portfolio including writing about the political, social and economic structure of Grahamstown and surrounds, profiles of public officials or locals you find newsworthy. Your work will include basic beat reporting as well as magazine-style articles. You will be required to work on two projects for Human Rights Day. Details will be revealed in the first week of the course. Your portfolio will include drafts that will be handed in, either for class discussion or editing by your lecturer, and the final copy to be submitted at a later date. Late submission of the draft or final copy will result in a 25% lowering of final mark.

Most assignments will be handed in by 10:00 Friday morning, others at the beginning of the lecture on the due date. They will be typeset in Times New Roman 12pt with double spacing. Format, either hard copy or email, will be announced.

Assumption of prior learning: Students are not expected to have any prior learning in journalism. However, their undergraduate and/or graduate education should have prepared them to engage with media thoughtfully, critically and articulately.

Course outcomes:

By the end of this section of the course, you should be able to:

Spot a good story

Successfully pitch a good story

Chase a good story

Write a good story to a variety of specifications (including a tight deadline)

Take competent photographs to accompany any story you write

Be familiar with industry jargon

Manage time efficiently so that independent work is productive

Deepen your English language proficiency, including writing clear, concise and grammatically correct sentences, leads and paragraphs for news and news features

Develop an ethical awareness

Critique contemporary journalism.

DP requirements: To attend all class meetings and pracs. To submit all assignments by deadline; no exceptions unless for university-sanctioned reasons. To be an involved participant in all class activities.

DP requirement for the year: At least one week full-time internship in a newsroom of your choice (it is your responsibility to procure this workplace experience). The departmental assessment form must be filled by your supervising editor and included in your year-end portfolio.

Words for thought:

“Genuine objective journalism not only gets the facts right, it gets the meaning of events right. It is compelling not only today, but stands the test of time. It is validated not only by 'reliable sources', but by the unfolding of history. It is journalism that ten, twenty, fifty years after the fact still holds up a true and intelligent mirror to events.”

T.D. Allman, journalist

Week 1: 8-12 February

News writing: The Interview

PP Presentation: How to, and not to, conduct an interview

Interview Anna Christensen.

Week 1 Assignments:

Reading: Find two good profiles and bring them to class for discussion.

Reader: Ansell 74-97

Writing: Write an interview of your class facilitator for your dream publication: plus/minus 500 words. Draft due: 10 February; Final: 12 February.

Write a paragraph on the two profiles you have read, tell your colleagues what you liked/didn't like about it. Submit with the Christensen interview.

Ongoing Project for Grocott's: What does Human Rights Day mean to Grahamstown?

Week 2: 15-19 February

PP Presentation: What is news? Who is the Gatekeeper? How decisions are made. Finding the Story. Angling/Selling the story.

Assignments:

Read: Harrower: Chapters 1 & 2 .

Reader: Niblock, "What is news?" in Keeble; King Jr., "I have a dream" in Ansell

Writing: You have hit the jackpot and been assigned to cover Martin Luther King, Jr.'s "I have a dream" speech. Write 400 words for 19 February.

Week 3: Rural & farm schools in Grahamstown and surrounds

Week: 3: 22-26 February

Getting Started: News Writing Basics: The "5Ws & an H" and beyond

Photojournalism: Monday 2:30-5:00; Thursday 11:00-1:00 and 2:30-5:00

Assignments:

Read: Harrower: Chapter 3

Reader: Ansell pp. 75-97; Kapuscinski, "Crossing the Border"

Field trip: Egazini tour. After consultation with your facilitator find a story that interests you.

Writing: 400 words for 26 February. Write for Grocott's.

Ongoing project:

You are writing a review of the book you have chosen for week 6.

Week 4: 1-5 March

Lecture: Reporting basics: "Get me a great quote" and subbing your own copy

Photojournalism: Monday 2:30-5:00; Thursday 11:00-1:00 and 2:30-5:00

Assignment:

Read: Harrower, "Reporting Basics"

Reader: "News Subbing Simplified" in Keeble

Writing: Research and write a local news story to be discussed with course facilitator; 500 words plus photos for 9th March. You will sub each other's copy.

Words for thought: "*Nature gives us one tongue and two ears so we could hear twice as much as we speak.*" Epictetus

Week 5: 8-12 March

Lecture: Covering different types of news: from Obits to *Drum*. Stopping at "You wore flip-flops to the White House?!"

Assignment:

Reading: "Covering the News" in Harrower

Reader: Wyrick, "Modes and Strategies", Lamb, "Where it began", and Sampson *Drum: The Making of a Magazine*.

Writing: What Human Rights Day means to Grahamstown due: 15 March

Week 6: 15-19 March (Human Rights Week)

Lecture: The world of features: From Dachau to Mugabe

Assignment:

Read: "Beyond Breaking News" in Harrower

Reader: Taylor, "What Makes a Good Feature? The Different Genres"; Gelhorn, "Dachau"; Lamb, "The Madness of Mugabe"; and du Preez and Pauw "Exposing Apartheid's Death Squads",

Writing: Turn in 650-word review of your book by 10:00 Friday 19

Week 7: 22 to 24

Preparation for Scifest, 24 -30 March. The description of projects for SciCue follow. The rest will be revealed in the fullness of time.

"Disobedience, in the eyes of anyone who has read history, is man's original virtue."
T.D. Allman, journalist

"Never believe anything until it is officially denied."

Claud Cockburn, journalist

Other information

Printing costs: You may print in the labs using your university printing account.

Borrowing equipment: University equipment may be borrowed for course-related work only. Equipment is signed out from the store against your name. This binds you to the conditions of equipment use, and your final marks may be withheld if equipment is not returned, replaced or its loss paid for. Once you have signed for equipment, you accept responsibility for it and may not “lend” it to anyone else before returning it to the store.

Course assessment

This course counts 20% of your overall grade for the year. This course mark will have four components:

There will be at least two written assignments every week (excluding *SciCue* week). They will be graded over 100 percent and their average mark will account for 5% of the course mark.

The *SciCue* experience will account for 7% of the course mark.

Your reading review will account for 1% of the course mark.

Assessment criteria

Students will be tested:

On their ability to think creatively and practically when faced with a journalistic challenge;

On their ability to research, report and write;

On their ability to write clearly in English;

On their ability to consume media thoughtfully and convey their responses articulately

For evidence of their ability to use the diversity of resources available to information-gatherers at Rhodes University and in Grahamstown;

For evidence of originality and flair;

For evidence of an ability to make connections between media production and media reflection.

Course evaluation

The course will be evaluated at the end of the term through a process mediated by the CHERTL.

Project descriptions

SciCue (7%)

News meetings

You should attend all 8.30am news meetings, unless you have been given the day off. You will be expected to pitch your own story ideas at these meetings.

Coaching

The *SciCue* editor (Brian Garman) along with your lecturer (Anna Christensen) and a coaching editor (Rod Amner) are available to coach you throughout the reporting and writing process.

Assessment

Portfolio (7%)

A portfolio of your work should be submitted at the end of the *SciCue* project. The portfolio must include:

At least six published stories in a variety of story forms, styles and genres, along with a short critical reflection on each. You must include a copy of an unedited version of the story submitted to the course lecturer or *SciCue* editor **as well as** a copy of the final published version. Your brief reflections should document learning, discoveries and questions.

In 600-800 words, reflect critically on the experience as a whole (*SciCue* as newsroom, *SciCue* as learning vehicle).

Use of the following terms of reference to guide your essay:

Productivity: Reflect on your own productivity, taking into account the context you were working in, the effort you expended, and the number of stories published.

Story ideas: How did you generate story ideas? What were the problems in this regard? Critically evaluate the quality of your story ideas.

Performance at news meetings: Tell us about how you felt at these meetings and why you felt that way. Were you able to clearly pitch story ideas in news meetings? Explain.

Research: Evaluate the quality of your research on stories. What kinds of research did you undertake? What have you learned about research?

Sources: What did you learn about dealing with sources? How did you deal with difficult or uncooperative sources?

News writing: Did you learn to better organise and express the point of the story? Did you learn to experiment with different forms of journalism?

Journalistic mission: What could / should journalism be for in *SciCue*? Discuss with reference to the newspaper's vision, mission, editorial policies and the actual journalism produced by the newspaper this year. Note how stories are decided on and what news values dominate the selection of news items.

Yourself: evaluate your own performance in the newsroom using the criteria listed below. Use a scale of 1 to 10 to rate your own performance. This same table will be used by the editors to give you further feedback.

Newsroom performance (1%)

Your general performance on *SciCue* will be assessed by the *SciCue* editor and by your course lecturer using the following criteria:

1. Attendance, reliability, consistency, persistence
2. Generation of story ideas, participation in news meetings, news awareness
3. Motivation, enthusiasm and effort

4. Intellectual curiosity, critical thought and creativity
5. Accuracy and attention to detail, quality of writing

How to caress a sentence

Good writers are good readers. And good journalists read good journalism.

Every Thursday morning for five weeks we will share with each other at least some of the good journalism we choose to read this term.

We will not have reviews on the Thursdays of Week 1 or of Week 6 (*SciCue*). Students will sign up for the other weeks at the rate of 2 – 3 per week, so that each student has one presentation slot.

Your reviews will be graded by your classmates in an anonymous ballot. The grade that counts towards your course mark will be an average of this poll.

The Thursday session of Week 1 will introduce you to some examples of good journalism, as well as guidelines on how to set about selecting, reading and reviewing the writer of your choice. These reviews should provoke lively discussion, leading to the sort of thoughts and questions that unsettle minds and displace complacency.

Other information

Time allocation: You are expected to spend 20 hours a week on this section of the course. This time may be spent in class, or on research, legwork, or writing – and re-writing. Be sure to use your time wisely; the sooner you gather your information, the sooner you can start writing. And the more time you spend writing, the better your story will be. Efficient time management has a direct bearing on the final product.

Ways of learning: This course does not rely so much on formal delivery of teaching material as it does on mutual discovery. Much of the learning offered by this course will come from active participation in a variety of activities, especially class discussions. The course facilitator will be available frequently for consultation. If you experience any problems, or wish to raise any issues, please communicate sooner rather than later.

Access to computer labs: There is a 20-station lab set aside for postgraduate students (room 223). However, master's and honours students also have access to this facility. If there are no work stations available in the postgrad lab, diploma students also have access to the Writing & Editing lab (room 212). As third-year and fourth-year teaching pracs take place in this lab, there are certain periods when it is not available. However, you are welcome to work there outside of teaching time. You are provided with 24-hour access to both labs, seven days a week.

Printing costs: You may print in the labs using your university printing account.

Borrowing equipment: University equipment may be borrowed for course-related work only. Equipment is signed out from the store against your name. This binds you to the conditions

of equipment use, and your final marks may be withheld if equipment is not returned, replaced or its loss paid for. Once you have signed for equipment, you accept responsibility for it and may not “lend” it to anyone else before returning it to the store.

Source book: Start a source book (also known as a contact book) as soon as you can. It will become the source of your professional comfort – in it will lie the starting points of a thousand stories. Alongside each entry, make brief notes on the designation of each source. Add appropriate information such as their business interest, their own contacts, their roles and responsibilities, and their temperament. Think carefully about the format of your contact book: depending on the kind of reporting you will end up doing, you might need a highly portable contact book. Also consider a method of duplication in case your contact book is lost – a journalist without a contact book cannot be consoled and is liable to commit regrettable acts.

*Hitchhiker's guide to planning a feature story
(lifted lock, stock and pencil from Rod Amner)*

Step 1: The story planner

Some questions to guide your early thinking:

Where did your idea come from? (research, brainstorm, observation, mindmap, etc)

Who is your target audience?

Consider how your audience affects the content, style, language, register or tone of your feature.

What is the story really about? Do you have a clear focus? If so, what is it?

Which news values informed the selection of this story?

Have you spun the story into something fresh? Will your readers care?

Does the idea have movement to it (change, motion, direction – something people are developing interest in, starting to talk about, or think about, or plan for)?

Is there a STORY there? Is there a tale in your idea that will draw the reader along – a story that has a beginning, middle and end?

Is there tension? Tension comes with conflict, a problem to be overcome, a mystery to be solved. Tension is reading the first paragraph of a story and not knowing what the last paragraph is going to say.

Is the story true? There are many compelling ideas – about inventions, and social movements, and diseases – that turn out not to be true.

Do YOU like the story? You're going to be spending time working on this piece.

Shouldn't it be something you love doing?

Consider methods of newsgathering / research:

observation (immersion, fly-on-the-wall, participant observation, third place),

document research (CARR, policy, academic, records, etc.),

interviews (Q&A, one-on-one, focus groups, in-depth, structured questionnaire).

Think about sources:

How will you access, evaluate and use sources?

Consider concepts such as balance, fairness, variety of perspectives, traditional and non-traditional sources, representivity, authority, credibility, expertness.

How will you assess whether they are reliable and trustworthy?

Plan the structure of your editorial package as a whole (sidebars, fact boxes, diagrams, timelines, infographics, vox pops, photographs, graphics, cartoons), and the form of the main story (inverted pyramid, champagne glass, nut graf, narrative or five boxes).

Step 2: Conduct background research

Step 3: Conduct interview/s

Step 4: Write it hot!

Note: This outline is intended as a guide only. It is not a sugar-coated pill. Those often stick in the throat of real life.

Books available in my office; others to be reviewed after consultation with your lecturer.

Brown, A. *Street Blues: The Experiences of a Reluctant Policeman*. 2008. Cape Town: Zebra Press.

Feinstein, A. *After the Party: A Personal and Political Journey inside the ANC*. 2007. Jeppestown: Jonathan Ball.

Harden, B. *Africa: Dispatches from a Fragile Continent*. 1992. London: Harper Collins.

Harris, P. *In Another Time*:

Kapuscinski, R. *The Shadow of the Sun: My African Life*. 1998. London: Penguin.

Kapuscinski, R. *Travels with Herodotus*. 2007. London: Penguin.

Lamb, C. *Small Wars Permitting: Dispatches from Foreign Lands*. 2008. London: Harper.

Pilger, J. *Tell Me No Lies: Investigative Journalism and its Triumphs*. 2004. London: Jonathan Cape. (Selected chapters)

Pottinger, Brian. *The Mbeki Legacy*. 2008. Capetown: Zebra Press.

Sampson, A. *Drum: The Making of a Magazine*. 2005. Jeppestown: Jonathan Ball.

Steinberg, J. *Three-Letter Plague: A young man's journey through a great epidemic*. 2008. Jeppestown: Jonathan Ball.



PGDipJourn 2010 Media and Society

JMS lecturer

Guy Berger. Email: g.berger@ru.ac.za Consultations by appointment.

Course description

This semester-long course provides knowledge about general theoretical issues around media and society, as well as contemporary debates in South African journalism and media. The course runs on a seminar basis with participants required to do high-level academic and empirical research as well as class presentations and journalistic stories. It counts 20% of the total PGDip mark, and should take up some 240 hours of learning in total (contact time, exams, individual reading). That approximates to about 20 hours a week you should spend on this course.

Course aims

This course aims to give you context at two levels: general theory, and South African media issues, that will inform your work as a journalist. This means:

- (a) you will become familiar with different theoretical perspectives on media and society, and be able to critically assess them;
- (b) you will also be able to apply them to provide knowledge and understanding about South African media;
- (c) finally, the course will expose you to excellence in presentation skills and help get you into a habit of developing critical consumption of news as a regular part of your life.

Course outcomes

At the end of this course, the key outcomes are that you should be able to:
articulate a theoretical understanding of the relationship between media and society;
demonstrate an informed understanding of the media industry and issues, with a focus on news production;
contextualise South African media production in relation to broader media and society issues.

Approach to learning:

Seminars

This course will operate through seminars, with most presentations by class participants and discussion led by the course lecturer. The seminars will take place once a week in the mornings, 9.30 to 13.00 over terms 1 and 2. Venue is room 103, Africa Media Matrix:

Readings and Resources

Readings will be supplied, but you are expected to go far beyond them. Regular sources to be consulted include: themediaco.za; journalism.co.za.

DP requirements

Attendance at all seminars unless excused in advance;
Research, writing and powerpoint presentation of an essay to the class.
Submission of the final version of the essay, written in full academic style;
Submission of ALL weekly story assignments;
Passing of 70% of news awareness tests.

Expectations

What we expect of you is serious, focussed participation in this course, and earnest attempts to marry the different strands of theory, SA media and contemporary news. In class you are expected to participate – *from an informed position* - in the discussion. This means you should:

have completed the required reading for each session.
bring evidence of your notes of the readings.
take notes during the sessions (elementary T-line skills will be taught).

What you can expect of the course lecturer is learning support and critical feedback.

Assignments

Mark allocation:

The essay will count five percent of your PGDip marks. The best of your news stories will be five percent, and the exam 10 percent.

Assessment criteria

How you are marked for this essay will be an invaluable guide to you about how you can expect to score in the exams. In marking the essay, we will be looking at

- (a) considerations of format, style and structure;
- (b) evidence of reading;
- (c) evidence of your ability to summarise, abstract, synthesise and argue;
- (d) original insight into the topic.

For stories, you will be marked on the basis of form and content. Writing must conform to the JMS style guide. You will be assessed for: language use, accuracy, coherence, and structure on the side of form; and comprehension, clarity and interest-worthiness on side of content.

Check the learning outcomes listed above: you will be assessed in terms of how you can demonstrate that you are achieving these.

Course evaluation

There will be a mid-module evaluation as well as one at the end. These will both be anonymous, so your uninhibited feedback is requested.

General information

Equipment: when applicable to you, you will need to go to the Store to book out a cordless keyboard and mouse, and data projector remote control, in advance of your presentations.

You are expected to email a text-essay version of your presentation to the class a minimum of three days before actual delivery.

You must revise this essay after presentation in the light of class discussion, before resubmitting it for marks.

Deadline for essay: Thursday 13 May, 12 midday. ***Late essays will not be marked and will receive zero points.***

The course is subject to external examination.

Course details

Session	Date	Topic	Presenter	
1	11	Feb (Fri)	1. Intro: Information Society & the Media	GB
2	16	Feb (Tues)	2. Cntd	GB
3	23	Feb (Tues)	3. Technological perspective: McLuhan	
4	2	Mar (Tues)	4. Liberal Pluralism perspective: 4 theories	
5	9	Mar (Tues)	5. Ethics and regulation	
6	16	Mar (Tues)	6. Language perspective:	
7	23	Mar (Tues)	7. Political Economy perspective:	
8	30	Mar (Tues)	8. Public Sphere, civic journalism, Social democratic perspective	
9	13	Apr (Tues)	9. Civil Society & Development perspective	
10	16	Apr (Fri)	10. Cultural studies perspective	
11	27	Apr (Tues)	11. Organisational perspective (gatekeeping)	
12	7	May (Fri)	(NOTE: 3 May is World Media Freedom Day). 12. Audience perspective	
13	11	May (Tues)	13. Conclusion.	

All readings below will be on short-loan, or available via RU library electronic database. All students are expected to read all the resources listed below. Access to each class will depend on you producing a written summary of your reading. For your research papers, you will be required to show evidence of additional reading. Specific topics for the research papers will be given to you at the first class.

1. & 2. The Information Society

Webster, F. 2000. *Theories of the Information Society*. London: Routledge.

Berger, G. 2003. Interrogate the Information Society. *Rhodes Journalism Review*, December, no 23, 7-11.

Fourie, PJ. 2004. *Media Studies*, vol. 1. Chapter 19: Globalisation, the Information Superhighway and development.

Curran, J and Park, M-J. 2000. *De-Westernizing Media Studies*. Chapter 1: Beyond globalization theory.

Fourie, PJ. 2004. *Media Studies*, vol. 1. Chapter 1: A South African Media Map.

Boyd-Barrett, O and Braham, P. 1995. *Media, knowledge and power*. Section 2.1 The study of the media: theoretical approaches.

Visa requirement for entry to day's class: write a three page synopsis of Webster's theories.

Story requirement: a story with a length between 200 and 300 words, on the subject of the new Rhodes library and its significance for the Information Society.

2. Technological perspective

McLuhan, M. 1964. *Understanding media. The extensions of man*. Chapter 1 and Chapter 2.

Starr, P: 2004. *The Creation of the Media*. New York: Basic Books.

Benkler, Y. 2006: *The Wealth of Networks: How Social Production Transforms Markets*. Ch 6: Political Freedom Part 1: The Trouble with Mass Media. New Haven: Yale University Press.

Story requirement: a story with a length between 200 and 300 words, on the subject of how Rhodes students use ICTs in their media consumption.

3. Liberal pluralism

Joseph, B. 2005. Journalism in the global age between normative and empirical *Gazette: the international journal for communication studies*. 67(6): 575–590

Donahue, GA, Tichenor, PJ, Olien, CN. 1995. A guard dog perspective on the role of media. *Journal of Communication*. Vol 45. No. 2. 115 -132.

Hadland, A. 2007. State-media relations in post-apartheid South Africa: an application of comparative media systems theory. *Communicare*. 26 (2) December 2007

Steenveld, L. 2007. The SAHRC Inquiry into racism in the media: problematising media state relations. *Ecquid Novi: African Journalism Studies*, 28 (1&2): 1

Story requirement: a story with a length between 200 and 300 words, on the subject of how students see the watchdog role of journalism.

4. Ethics and regulation

Berger, G. 2009. The struggle for press self-regulation in contemporary South Africa: charting a course between an industry charade and a government doormat.

<http://nml.ru.ac.za/files/SACOMM%20CONFERENCE%202009%20Berger%20paper%20-%20final.doc>. Paper presented to conference “Communication and Media: Past, Present and Future”, Southern African Communication Association. Sept 2009.

White, A. 2008. *To tell you the truth. The Ethical Journalism Initiative*. Brussels, International Federation of Journalists.

Kieran, M. *Media ethics*. Chapter 3, Objectivity, impartiality and good journalism.

<http://www.presscouncils.org>

Belsey, A and Chadwick, R. 1992. *Ethical issues in journalism and the media*. Chapter 8: Objectivity, bias and truth, By Andrew Edgar

Kruger, F. 2006. *Black, white and Grey - Ethics in South African journalism*. Chapter 2, the South African Media Landscape, and Appendix 1.

Story requirement: a story with a length between 200 and 300 words, on student views about a major media ethics issue and their relevance to media freedom and regulation issues.

5. Language perspective:

Allan, S. 2004. *News culture*. Chapter 4: The cultural politics of news discourse.

Fourie, PJ. 2004. *Media Studies*, vol. 1. Chapter 10: Media and the production of meaning; Chapter 14: A critical assessment of news.

O’Shaughnessy and Stadler, J. 2002. *Media and society. An introduction*. 2nd edition. Chapter 7: Semiology; Chapter 8: Reading images.

Ornebring, H and Jonsson, AM. 2004. Tabloid Journalism and the Public Sphere: a historical perspective on tabloid journalism. *Journalism Studies*, Volume 5, Number 3, 2004, pp. 283–295

Boyd-Barrett, O and Newbold, C. 1996. *Approaches to media: a reader*. Ch 59: Questions of genre.

Richardson, J E. 2007. *Analysing Newspapers: an approach from critical discourse analysis* Chapters to be assigned.

Story requirement: a story with a length between 200 and 300 words, on the subject of “journalese” in regard to coverage of the World Cup.

6. Political economy perspective

Tumber, H. *News – a Reader*. 1999. Chapters 18 to 20.

Fourie, P J. 2004. *Media Studies*, vol. 1. Chapter 2: Characteristics, trends and the political economy of the media; Chapter 3: Media ownership and control.

Boyd-Barrett, O and Newbold, C. 1996. *Approaches to media: a reader*. Ch 22: For a political economy of mass communication; Ch 26: On the Audience Commodity and its work.

Benkler, Y. 2006. *The Wealth of Networks: How Social Production Transforms Markets*. Ch 3: Peer Production and Sharing Ch 4: The Economics of Social Production.

Berger, G and Barratt, E. 2008. *The Extra-ordinary Editor*. Johannesburg: Sanef. Chapter on Editorial Independence.

Story requirement: a story with a length between 200 and 300 words, on the subject of price and media consumption amongst students.

7. Public Sphere, social democratic perspective, public broadcasting

Habermas, J. 1989. *The Structural Transformation of the Public Sphere: An Inquiry into a Category of Bourgeois Society*. Cambridge Massachusetts: The MIT Press.

Boyd-Barrett, O and Newbold, C. 1996. *Approaches to media: a reader*, Chs 27 – 31 On the public sphere.

Fraser, N. 1990. "Rethinking the Public Sphere: A Contribution to the Critique of Actually Existing Democracy". Social Text (Duke University Press)

Berger, G. 2009. (Ed). *Beyond Broadcasting. The future of state-owned broadcasters in Southern Africa*. Grahamstown: Highway Africa. <http://nml.ru.ac.za/blog/guy-berger/2009/09/02/beyond-broadcasting-future-state-owned-broadcasters-southern-africa.html>

Mwangi, S.C. 2010. A Search for an Appropriate Communications Model for Media in New Democracies in Africa. ijoc.org/ojs/index.php/ijoc/article/viewFile/463/386

Story requirement: a story with a length between 200 and 300 words, on the subject of how students see the SABC as a public broadcaster.

8. Civil society and development perspective, citizen journalism

Charity, A. 1995. *Doing public journalism*. Chapter One. Overview.

Rosen, J. 1999. "The Action of the Idea: Public Journalism in Built Form", in T. Glasser (ed.) *The Idea of Public Journalism*. New York: The Guilford Press.

Gilmor, D. 2004. *We the media*. <http://wethemedia.oreilly.com/>

Haas, T. 2004. "Alternative media, Public Journalism and the Pursuit of Democratisation", *Journalism Studies* 5(1): 115-121. persistent link: <http://0-search.ebscohost.com.echea.ru.ac.za:80/login.aspx?direct=true&db=ufh&jid=5BX&site=ehost-live>

Community radio in South Africa

<http://www.columbia.edu/itc/sipa/nelson/newmediadev/Community%20Radio%20in%20South%20Africa.html>

<http://www.pjnet.org/>
Public journalism network

<http://www.comminit.com/africa/index.html>

Soulbeat Africa website. Communication for change:
project of Soul City and the Communication Initiative

Story requirement: a story with a length between 200 and 300 words, on the subject of the the communications character of a local NGO.

9. Cultural studies perspective

Thwaites, T; Davis, L and Moles, W. 2002. *Introducing Cultural and Media Studies*. Chapter on Ideology.

Lule, J. 2001. *Daily News, Eternal Stories. The Mythological Role of Journalism*. New York: Guilford. Chapter to be assigned.

Allan, S. 2004. *News culture*. Chapter 6: The gendered realities of journalism; Chapter 7: 'Us and them': racism in the news.

Fourie, PJ. 2004. *Media Studies*, vol. 1. Chapter 15: Representation: race, gender and sexual orientation.

Lule, J. 200. *Daily News, Eternal Stories. The Mythological Role of Journalism*. New York: Guilford.

Allan, S. 2004. *News culture*. Chapter 6: The gendered realities of journalism; Chapter 7: 'Us and them': racism in the news.

Rhodes Journalism Review on racism.

Barker, C. 2000. *Cultural studies: theory and practice*. London: Sage.

Story requirement: a story with a length between 200 and 300 words, on the subject of how some local people see gender and race in coverage around the World Cup.

10. Organisational perspective

Tumber, H. 1999. *News – a Reader*. Part II: Production of News; Part IV: Sources of News; Part V: Objectivity and Ideology of News.

Watson, J. 2003. “The practice of media: pressures and constraints”, in *Media Communication. An Introduction to Theory and Process*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan. pp 173-204.

Story requirement: a story with a length between 200 and 300 words, on the subject of how news is made at a local medium (eg. Captivate, RMR, Grocott's, Radio Grahamstown, Rhodos, Oppipress).

11. Audience perspective

Allan, S. 2004. *News culture*. Chapter 5: News, audiences and everyday life.

Ross, K and Nightingale, V. 2003. *Media and audiences. New perspectives*. Chapters 1 – 3, Chapter 5.

Glenn, I and Knaggs, A. The *Daily Voice* and the return of the Coloured repressed. Unpublished paper available at: www.hsrc.ac.za/Document-1302.phtml

Allan, S. 2004. “News, audiences and everyday life”, in *News Culture*. Maidenhead: Open University Press. pp 98-118.

Fiske, J. 1987. “Active Audiences”, in *Television Culture*. London: Routledge. pp 62-83.

Strelitz, L. and Steenveld, L. 2006. “Thinking about South African tabloid newspapers”, unpublished article.

Thwaites, T., Davis, L. and Mules, W. 2002. “Ideology”, in *Introducing Cultural and Media Studies: A Semiotic Approach*. Basingstoke: Palgrave. pp 158-179.

Winston, B. 2002. “Towards tabloidization? Glasgow revisited, 1975-2001” *Journalism Studies* 3(1): 5-20. persistent link: <http://0search.ebscohost.com.echea.ru.ac.za:80/login.aspx?direct=true&db=ufh&jid=5BX&site=ehost-live>

Story requirement: a story with a length between 200 and 300 words, on the subject of how some local people relate to tabloid newspapers or broadcasting.

Rhodes University
Postgraduate Diploma in Journalism and Media Studies

Term 2, 2010
Reporting Skills and Principles for Journalists

Course Coordinator:

Jenny Gordon: Room 211

Facilitator:

Anna Christensen: Room 227 African Media Matrix

Phone: 046 603-7151; Cell: 082 339 3344

a.christensen@ru.ac.za; annac@netactive.co.za

Consultations: By appointment

Meeting Times and Venues:

Monday: 11h00-13h00 in Conference room

14h30-17h00 in Writing Lab

Wednesday: 11h00-13h00 in Conference room/Writing Lab

14h30 – 17h00 Venue TBA

Thursday: 11h00-13h00 Conference room/Writing Lab

14h30-17h00 Venue TBA

Other times and venues by arrangement

Required text:

Harrower, T. 2007. *Inside Reporting*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Also The Rhodes School of Journalism Style Guide, a good dictionary, *Roget's Thesaurus*, *The Grahamstown Handbook*, The phone directory

Journalism:

Sample all local, national and international newspapers and magazines, watch as much television news as your eyes can handle and listen to as much radio news as is possible in Grahamstown. Do this every day. Make clips of all stories that catch your eye, whether they are good or bad and bring them to class, take notes on radio and television news that draws your attention.

Every **Thursday afternoon** for five weeks we will share with each other at least some of the good journalism we choose to read this term. Four students will sign up per week, so that each student has one presentation slot. **You will supply photocopies of your articles to your classmates no later than Wednesday morning.** Your reviews will be graded by your classmates in an anonymous ballot. The grade that counts towards your course mark will be an average of this poll.

The Thursday sessions will introduce you to some examples of good journalism, as well as guidelines on how to set about selecting, reading and reviewing the writer of your choice. These reviews should provoke lively discussion, leading to the sort of thoughts and questions that unsettle minds and displace complacency.

Recommended Reading:

Ansell, G. *Introduction to Journalism*. 2005. Johannesburg: Jacana Media.

Or Ansell, G. and Rossouw, R. *Basic Journalism*. 2002. Milpark: M&G Books.

Journalism:

Campus publications: *Activate, The Oppie Press, Rhodes, Rhodes Journalism Review*.

Local publications: *Grocott's Mail, Grahamstown This Week, Makana Moon*

Daily Dispatch, The Herald, Daily Sun or Die Burger

Graham's Town: The Untold Story; A social history and self-guided tour. 2002. A Black Sash Publication. *Walking Tours of Grahamstown*. These are sold at Makana Tourism.

A national daily such as *Business Day* or *The Sowetan*

National & international weeklies such as *The Sunday Times, Mail & Guardian, City Press, Sunday Sun* or *The Financial Times*.

As many magazines as possible (there are quite a few in my office)

Course description: This course aims to take you beyond basic news writing and reporting skills and into the world of community and immersion journalism, as well as personal narrative. Writing style and skills will be expanded. You are required to continue to read books, newspapers and magazines, listen to the radio and watch television news. You must demonstrate an insatiable appetite for news, the ability to raise issues and to critically evaluate how news is reported.

Assumption of prior learning: Students are not expected to have any prior learning in journalism. However, their undergraduate and/or graduate education should have prepared them to engage with media thoughtfully, critically and articulately.

Course outcomes:

By the end of this section of the course, you should be able to:

Spot a good story

Successfully pitch a good story

Chase a good story

Write a good story to a variety of specifications (including a tight deadline)

Take competent photographs to accompany any story you write

Be familiar with industry jargon

Manage time efficiently so that independent work is productive

Deepen your English language proficiency, including writing clear, concise and

grammatically correct sentences, leads and paragraphs for news and news features

Develop an ethical awareness

Critique contemporary journalism.

DP requirements: To attend all class meetings and pracs. To submit all assignments by deadline; no exceptions unless for university-sanctioned reasons. To be an involved participant in all class activities.

DP requirement for the year: At least one week full-time internship in a newsroom of your choice (it is your responsibility to procure this workplace experience). The departmental assessment form must be filled by your supervising editor and included in your year-end portfolio.

Outings: Grahamstown venue for Immersion Journalism

Eastern Star press

Farm schools

Movies: Tuesday and Thursday 19:00: dates TBA

Week 1: 12 – 16 April

Guy Berger: Monday 12; 9h30 – 13h00 & 14h30 – 17h00

Farm Schools: Cathy Gush; Tuesday 13; 11h00 – 13h00

Sakhisizwe/others

Readings:

Harrower; Chapter 6; pp 122-130

Personal Narrative: Power point/Assignment

Readings:

George Orwell ‘Shooting an Elephant’

Reader 1:

Christina Lamb ‘Where it began’ in Small Wars Permitting: Dispatches from Foreign Lands
Ryszard Kapuscinski ‘Crossing the border’ and ‘Condemned to India’ in Travels with Herodotus

Martha Gelhorn ‘Dachau 1945’ in John Pilger ed. Tell Me No Lies

Labour reporting: Terrence Bell; Friday 16; Time 11h00

Readings sent by email

Week 2: 19 - 23 April

Monday 19: Scicue Portfolios due 11h00 in my box

Community Journalism: Rod Amner

Reminder:

Readings for Rod’s class

Broken homes/Slumlords/Dying to live

<http://www.dispatch.co.za>

Week 3: Immersion Journalism: Power Point/Outing/Writing Lab

Reading:

Diana K. Sugg *The most difficult journey*

http://www.baltimore.sun.com/news/bal_te.angels19dec19,0,2163705.story

Diana K. Sugg *Angels and Ghosts* @ www.poynter.org

Narrative approaches: Simultaneous; sequential; substitutionary; interior monologue

Readings:

<http://herseyhiroshima.com/hiro.php>

Short Loan:

Tom Wolfe ‘The new journalism’ in Tom Wolfe and E.W. Johnson eds (1975) *The New Journalism*. London GB: Picador.

Robert Boynton ‘Introduction’ and Calvin Trillin in Robert S. Boynton. (2005) *The New*

New Journalism. New York NY: Vintage Books.

www.thenewjournalism.com

‘Whatever happened to the new journalism’ by Bill Beuttler at:

www.newnewjournalism.com

Reader 2:

. Truman Capote ‘In cold blood’ in Gay Talese and Barbara Lounsberry eds. (1966) The Literature of Reality; Writing Creative. Non-fiction New York City, NY: Harper Collins.

Norman Mailer ‘The executioner’s song’ in Gay Talese and Barbara Lounsberry eds. (1966) The Literature of Reality; Writing Creative. Non-fiction New York City, NY: Harper Collins.

Gay Talese ‘The loser’ in Gay Talese and Barbara Lounsberry eds. (1966) The Literature of Reality; Writing Creative. Non-fiction New York City, NY: Harper Collins.

C.D.B. Bryan ‘Friendly fire’ in Gay Talese and Barbara Lounsberry eds. (1966) The Literature of Reality; Writing Creative. Non-fiction New York City, NY: Harper Collins.

Joseph Mitchell ‘The rats of the waterfront’ in Gay Talese and Barbara Lounsberry eds. (1966) The Literature of Reality; Writing Creative. Non-fiction New York City, NY: Harper Collins.

Week 4: 26 – 30 April (27 is Freedom Day) Narrative Approaches

Readings:

Short Loan:

Tom Wolfe ‘The new journalism’ in Tom Wolfe and E.W. Johnson eds. (1975) The New Journalism. London GB: Picador.

Robert Boynton ‘Introduction’ and Calvin Trillin in Robert S. Boynton. (2005) The New New Journalism. New York NY: Vintage Books.

www.thenewjournalism.com

‘Whatever happened to the new journalism’ by Bill Beuttler at:

www.newnewjournalism.com

Week 5: 10 – 14 May

Beat reporting

Covering the police; sports, courts, etc.

Readings:

Harrower: Chapter 5

James Fallows ‘Why We Hate the Media’ in Atlantic Monthly

www.theatlantic.com/past/docs/issues/96feb/media/media.htm

Methods of Newsgathering:

Consider methods of newsgathering / research:

observation (immersion, fly-on-the-wall, participant observation, third place),

Other information

Printing costs: You may print in the labs using your university printing account.

Borrowing equipment: University equipment may be borrowed for course-related work only. Equipment is signed out from the store against your name. This binds you to the conditions of equipment use, and your final marks may be withheld if equipment is not returned, replaced or its loss paid for. Once you have signed for equipment, you accept responsibility for it and may not “lend” it to anyone else before returning it to the store.

Course assessment

This course counts 20% of your overall grade for the year. This course mark will have four components:

There will be at least two written assignments every week (excluding *SciCue* week). They will be graded over 100 percent and their average mark will account for 5% of the course mark.

The *SciCue* experience will account for 4% of the course mark.

Your reading review will account for 1% of the course mark.

Assessment criteria

Students will be tested:

On their ability to think creatively and practically when faced with a journalistic challenge;

On their ability to research, report and write;

On their ability to write clearly in English;

On their ability to consume media thoughtfully and convey their responses articulately

For evidence of their ability to use the diversity of resources available to information-gatherers at Rhodes University and in Grahamstown;

For evidence of originality and flair;

For evidence of an ability to make connections between media production and media reflection.

Course evaluation

The course will be evaluated at the end of the term through a process mediated by the CHERTL.

Descriptions

SciCue (4%)

News meetings

You should attend all 8.30 am news meetings, unless you have been given the day off. You will be expected to pitch your own story ideas at these meetings.

Coaching

The *SciCue* editor (Brian Garman) along with your lecturer (Anna Christensen) and a coaching editor are available to coach to you throughout the reporting and writing process.

Assessment

Portfolio (3%) **DEADLINE: Monday 19 April, 11:00 in my box downstairs. Any late submissions will automatically lose 50% of the mark.**

The portfolio must include:

At least four published stories in a variety of story forms, styles and genres, along with a short critical reflection on each. You must include a copy of an unedited version of the story submitted to the course lecturer or *SciCue* editor **as well as** a copy of the final published version. Your brief reflections should document learning, discoveries and questions.

In 600-800 words, reflect critically on the experience as a whole (*SciCue* as newsroom, *SciCue* as learning vehicle).

Use of the following terms of reference to guide your essay:

Productivity: Reflect on your own productivity, taking into account the context you were working in, the effort you expended, and the number of stories published.

Story ideas: How did you generate story ideas? What were the problems in this regard? Critically evaluate the quality of your story ideas.

Performance at news meetings: Tell us about how you felt at these meetings and why you felt that way. Were you able to clearly pitch story ideas in news meetings? Explain.

Research: Evaluate the quality of your research on stories. What kinds of research did you undertake? What have you learned about research?

Sources: What did you learn about dealing with sources? How did you deal with difficult or uncooperative sources?

News writing: Did you learn to better organise and express the point of the story? Did you learn to experiment with different forms of journalism?

Journalistic mission: What could / should journalism be for in *SciCue*? Discuss with reference to the newspaper's vision, mission, editorial policies and the actual journalism produced by the newspaper this year. Note how stories are decided on and what news values dominate the selection of news items.

Yourself: evaluate your own performance in the newsroom using the criteria listed below. Use a scale of 1 to 10 to rate your own performance. This same table will be used by the editors to give you further feedback.

Newsroom performance (1%)

Your general performance on *SciCue* will be assessed by the *SciCue* editor and by your course lecturer using the following criteria:

1. Attendance, reliability, consistency, persistence
2. Generation of story ideas, participation in news meetings, news awareness
3. Motivation, enthusiasm and effort
4. Intellectual curiosity, critical thought and creativity

5. Accuracy and attention to detail, quality of writing

Good writers are good readers. And good journalists read good journalism.

Every Thursday morning for five weeks we will share with each other at least some of the good journalism we choose to read this term.

Three students will sign up per week, so that each student has one presentation slot.

Your reviews will be graded by your classmates in an anonymous ballot. The grade that counts towards your course mark will be an average of this poll.

The Thursday sessions will introduce you to some examples of good journalism, as well as guidelines on how to set about selecting, reading and reviewing the writer of your choice. These reviews should provoke lively discussion, leading to the sort of thoughts and questions that unsettle minds and displace complacency.

Other information

Time allocation: You are expected to spend 20 hours a week on this section of the course. This time may be spent in class, or on research, legwork, or writing – and re-writing. Be sure to use your time wisely; the sooner you gather your information, the sooner you can start writing. And the more time you spend writing, the better your story will be. Efficient time management has a direct bearing on the final product.

Ways of learning: This course does not rely so much on formal delivery of teaching material as it does on mutual discovery. Much of the learning offered by this course will come from active participation in a variety of activities, especially class discussions. The course facilitator will be available frequently for consultation. If you experience any problems, or wish to raise any issues, please communicate sooner rather than later.

Access to computer labs: Diploma students have access to the Writing & Editing lab (room 212). As third-year and fourth-year teaching pracs take place in this lab, there are certain periods when it is not available. However, you are welcome to work there outside of teaching time. You are provided with 24-hour access to the lab, seven days a week.

Printing costs: You may print in the labs using your university printing account.

Borrowing equipment: University equipment may be borrowed for course-related work only. Equipment is signed out from the store against your name. This binds you to the conditions of equipment use, and your final marks may be withheld if equipment is not returned, replaced or its loss paid for. Once you have signed for equipment, you accept responsibility for it and may not “lend” it to anyone else before returning it to the store.

Source book: Start a source book (also known as a contact book) as soon as you can. It will become the source of your professional comfort – in it will lie the starting points of a thousand stories. Alongside each entry, make brief notes on the designation of each source. Add appropriate information such as their business interest, their own contacts, their roles and responsibilities, and their temperament. Think carefully about the format of your contact

book: depending on the kind of reporting you will end up doing, you might need a highly portable contact book. Also consider a method of duplication in case your contact book is lost – a journalist without a contact book cannot be consoled and is liable to commit regrettable acts.

*Hitchhiker's guide to planning a feature story
(lifted lock, stock and pencil from Rod Amner)*

Step 1: The story planner

Some questions to guide your early thinking:

Where did your idea come from? (research, brainstorm, observation, mindmap, etc)

Who is your target audience?

Consider how your audience affects the content, style, language, register or tone of your feature.

What is the story really about? Do you have a clear focus? If so, what is it?

Which news values informed the selection of this story?

Have you spun the story into something fresh? Will your readers care?

Does the idea have movement to it (change, motion, direction – something people are developing interest in, starting to talk about, or think about, or plan for)?

Is there a STORY there? Is there a tale in your idea that will draw the reader along – a story that has a beginning, middle and end?

Is there tension? Tension comes with conflict, a problem to be overcome, a mystery to be solved. Tension is reading the first paragraph of a story and not knowing what the last paragraph is going to say.

Is the story true? There are many compelling ideas – about inventions, and social movements, and diseases – that turn out not to be true.

Do YOU like the story? You're going to be spending time working on this piece.

Shouldn't it be something you love doing?

Consider methods of newsgathering / research:

observation (immersion, fly-on-the-wall, participant observation, third place),

document research (CARR, policy, academic, records, etc.),

interviews (Q&A, one-on-one, focus groups, in-depth, structured questionnaire).

Think about sources:

How will you access, evaluate and use sources?

Consider concepts such as balance, fairness, variety of perspectives, traditional and non-traditional sources, representivity, authority, credibility, expertness.

How will you assess whether they are reliable and trustworthy?

Plan the structure of your editorial package as a whole (sidebars, fact boxes, diagrams, timelines, infographics, vox pops, photographs, graphics, cartoons), and the form of the main story (inverted pyramid, champagne glass, nut graf, narrative or five boxes).

Step 2: Conduct background research

Step 3: Conduct interview/s

Step 4: Write it hot!

Note: This outline is intended as a guide only. It is not a sugar-coated pill. Those often stick in the throat of real life.

PGDip 2010: Paper 3

Critical Media Production (*Grocott's*)

Level, weighting and duration

Postgraduate Diploma in Journalism and Media Studies

Assessment weighting:

This course will count 25% towards your final PGDip mark.

Duration:

3rd term 2010; 19 July – 27 August

JMS lecturers/ coaches

Guy Berger, Anna Christensen, Simon Pamphilon

Grocott's Mail editors/ coaches

Steven Lang, Abongile Mgaqelwa, Michael Salzwedel

Phone: 6227222

Times and venues

During Term 3, this course runs for 40 hours per week. News diary meetings and much of journalistic work will take place in the *Grocott's Mail* newsroom, but some writing will be in the Writing Lab at the AMM. Critical reflection sessions will take place in the AMM.

Prior learning

This course assumes that you already have an introductory foundation of skills and knowledge in journalistic reporting and writing, developed over the first term.

Broader context

This course aims to prepare you for a career as a thoughtful, resourceful, and skilled journalist. It will further enhance your reporting and writing skills but also aims to go beyond the reproduction and transfer of vocational skills so that you may one day play a role in improving South African journalism (in terms of imaginative and effective reporting and writing approaches). To this end, it will pick up on debates around the role of journalists and journalism in society dealt with in your Media & Society paper. For example, you will explore ethics in the context of your practice.

Unlike last term, this term's coursework will be centred on *Grocott's Mail*, which is produced for the people who live, work and play in Grahamstown. The paper aims to be a high-quality, informative, accurate and credible community newspaper that serves the interests of Grahamstown residents. At the same time the newspaper provides fertile ground for the education and training of journalism students.

You will have the unique privilege of helping to serve and improve the newspaper by reporting and writing news stories that are authoritative, interesting and important, as well as features and in-depth pieces for a broad cross-section of Grahamstownians. You will flex a wide range of reporting muscles and will write in a variety of genres and styles. You will learn from your exposure to the structure, routines, practices and professional ideologies of a mainstream newsroom and from the considerable editorial skills of the newspaper's leadership. The adrenaline rush of deadlines will fire you and you should have fun. Since *Grocott's* is both a newsroom and a classroom, you will "learn by doing" and critically reflect on your practice.

We expect you to assess your strengths and weaknesses or areas that you most want to grow and learn and start the *Grocott's* experience from that point. The experience entails you entering into a learning contract with the newspaper requiring you to operate as a professional journalist.

Hopefully, the *Grocott's* experience will teach how a diverse team of people equipped with different toolkits, understandings and responsibilities comes together with the common goal of producing their finest work under changing and demanding circumstances.

Course evaluation

Formal evaluation of the course takes place during and at the end of term. Students are also encouraged to approach staff with constructive suggestions at any point during the course.

Course outcomes

Reporting and research outcomes:

Generate story ideas from personal observation, contacts, news sources, books, magazines, other news reports, databases, official documents, reference libraries, research studies and group brainstorming;

Demonstrate knowledge of current affairs for local journalism;

Demonstrate an ability to develop local or regional stories from issues or events on a national or international level;

Interact with sources with confidence and professionalism.

Know and be able to use, when necessary, the legal rights of access to information available to journalists;

Use appropriate qualitative journalistic research methods in the Southern African context.

Writing and editing outcomes:

Write clear, concise and grammatically correct sentences, leads and paragraphs for news and news feature stories, and in line with the Rhodes/Grocott's style guide;

Write in a range of formats, styles and genres for the paper and for online;

Quote and attribute sources appropriately and correctly;

Write structured news stories using appropriate journalistic story forms;

Sub-edit news texts following the Rhodes Grocott's Style Book;

Place stories in broad context for a particular audience;

Understand the purpose and positioning of a piece of writing or a publication;

Outcomes related to managing a production process:

Produce quality work under deadline pressure while adhering to the tenets of journalism;

Manage time efficiently so that independent work is productive;

Work as part of a team with a diversity of opinions and roles among the team;

Behave professionally, with reference to treatment of others, adherence to deadlines, accuracy and to enhance teamwork in a media team;

Motivate for story resources, story assignments, story space and story play in a professional, mature and effective fashion.

Experience the work of sub-editing.

Proofread the final printouts in order to spot any missed errors.

Critical engagement with the ethics and "politics" of journalism:

Make defensible ethical decisions;

Debate and test conventional definitions of news;

Hold yourself and your "colleagues" to high standards;

Plan and produce effective media texts employing some of the principles and practices of "public" and/ or "community" journalism and/ or "development journalism";

Apply knowledge about the various economic, ethnic/ cultural, religious and other communities of the newspaper coverage area in determining story coverage;

Be critically aware of the impact of journalism and journalists in society and reflect ethically on your own behaviour, values and authored products.

WEPD outcomes:

Recognise the visual possibilities of stories with digital photographs, art, graphics, charts, breakout boxes and sidebars and take usable digital photographs and manipulate them using Photoshop. Also, recognise the online possibilities – including video and tweets.

Learning contract

You will be required to enter into a formal “learning contract” with *Grocott’s Mail*. This contract makes explicit the newspaper’s expectations of you as a professional journalist and also tells you what you can expect from your supervisors at the newspaper and the JMS department.

Grocott’s work hours

News meetings happen at 8.30am every day at Grocott’s. You will also be using the writing lab, the AMM conference room, as well as meeting with Rod Amner in his office when you work on education stories which may appear in the occasional Ukufunda page in the paper.

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	W/end
8.30am	News meeting: 8.30am	News meeting: 8.30am	News meeting: 8.30am	News meeting: 8.30am	News meeting: 8.30am	Occasional reporting assignments
Early AM	Coaching sessions	Preparation time	Coaching sessions	Coaching sessions	Coaching sessions	
	<i>Grocott’s Mail</i> newsroom	Preparation time	<i>Grocott’s Mail</i> newsroom	<i>Grocott’s Mail</i> newsroom	<i>Grocott’s Mail</i> newsroom	
LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	
Early PM	<i>Grocott’s Mail</i>	2-3.30pm: Group meetings	<i>Grocott’s Mail</i>	<i>Grocott’s Mail</i>	Group meetings	
Late PM	<i>Grocott’s Mail</i>	4-5pm: Post mortem session at <i>Grocott’s</i>	<i>Grocott’s Mail</i>	<i>Grocott’s Mail</i> newsroom	Prep time	

The first course meeting on 19 July will cover these issues:

9-10.00: introduction to the paper : What is journalism for? What could/ should it be for in Grahamstown?
 An analysis of *Grocott’s Mail’s* vision, mission, editorial policies – Guy Berger
 Your style guide – Anna Christensen
 10-11.00: Introduction to Nika – Simon Pamphilon
 Afternoon: Induction at *Grocott’s* – Louise Vale

Group work

You will all be in seven groups, each with three members.

At any given time, one member of each group will likely be working in the writing lab on features, one in *Grocott’s* on news and another there working for online. This will ensure that each news story (where appropriate) is covered in different ways and under guidance of different mentors. News will be Guy, Features will be Anna, and online will be Michael.

The group members will take turns reporting on their story ideas and at *Grocott’s* diary meetings. Each group member will switch after a fortnight so that another of his or her groups will have an opportunity to attend diary meetings. Each group also needs to convene on at least two formal slots a week in order to review and plan strategies and prepare reports for news diary conferences.

Each member of each group will be rotated through the following journalistic experiences on a two week cycle, with the requisite output:

Breaking news stories – 10 stories required
 Feature stories – 5 stories required
 Online stories – 10 stories required, 3 pictures/video and 10 tweets.

Group 1: Thomas Holder
 Ruth Woudstra
 Zimkita Mkosana

Group 2: Alessandro Candotti
 Karl Gernetzky

	<i>Molatelo Ramothwale</i>
Group 3:	<i>Andrew Chapman</i> <i>Aurelie Kalenga</i> <i>Richard Stupart</i>
Group 4:	<i>Thandi de Beer</i> <i>Yusuf Omar</i> <i>Dipuo Sedibe</i>
Group 5:	<i>Hailey Gaunt</i> <i>Ryan Hancocks</i> <i>Theresa Taylor</i>
Group 6:	<i>Alexander Gaillard</i> <i>Elizabeth Gowans</i> <i>Reneilwe Malatji</i>
Group 7:	<i>Bradford Keen</i> <i>Mokgaetji Shadung</i> <i>Simone Marais</i>

News meetings

Your group rep should attend all news meetings in the given fortnight of him or her being on duty, alternating representation every two weeks by substituting the incumbent with another team member. You will be expected to pitch your group's story ideas at these meetings.

Possible story realms include:

Municipal/ local government and local political reporter;

Education reporter

Business reporter

Health and welfare reporter

Sport reporter

Crime, court and justice system reporter

Arts and cultural affairs and entertainment (gig guide, movie information, TV guide, horoscopes) reporter

Religion/ spirituality reporter

Consider these additional/ alternative beats:

Unemployment

Poverty

Local economic development, enterprise

Labour

Community development (including non-governmental organizations)

Environment

Tourism

Profiles (of people)

HIV-Aids

Reporting on race, class, gender

Property, housing

Land reform

Gender

Farming

Social life (interpreted broadly) and social scene (weddings, parties, functions)

Investigative reporter

Literary/ narrative/ creative non-fiction journalist

Journalist in charge of developing opinion, essays, think pieces, interpretive features

Can you think of any others?

Geographic beats

Also, consider developing story ideas from geographical beats. Why not cultivate sources in areas like Tantyi, Fingo Village, Joza and its many extensions, Silvertown, the informal settlements, new housing developments, outlying farms and rural settlements, Port Alfred and Kenton-on-Sea, the various suburbs, the university, Stones Hill, etc?

Of your course requirement of printed stories, at least ten should be registerable across the following tick-box:

Health	
Entertainment	
Community	
Court/crime	
Sport	
Business	
Education	
Science and Technology	
Human interest	
Campus	

Coaching

The *Grocott's* editors along with the Rhodes lecturers are available to coach to you throughout the reporting and writing process. Note that you are also encouraged to set up one-to-one sessions with the course lecturers to help you assess your strengths and weaknesses as a *Grocott's Mail* journalist, and to do some strategic planning around your story ideas, sources, journalistic approaches, reporting and writing skills, and so on.

Post-mortems

Weekly post-mortems of the previous week's editions of *Grocott's Mail* will be held together with all members of the *Grocott's Mail* editorial staff on Tuesdays at 4pm.

These sessions will invariably include a lot of peer assessment. The following tips on peer assessment come from Rhodes radio lecturer, Jeanne du Toit:

"Ask questions first, before commenting. Sometimes this process of clarifying and listening is as important as any final judgement you might make about someone's work.

Mention strengths before you look at weaknesses. We are inclined to focus only on flaws, which is not always the only useful thing to do.

When you mention weaknesses, always offer constructive suggestions regarding the way improvements can be made.

Try not to be too personal in the way you criticise – in other words evaluate the work, not the person.

When your own work is being assessed, try not to feel defensive. Listen, ask questions. It is always valuable to know how your work is perceived by someone else, even if you think they are getting it wrong.

Try not to take it personally when your work is criticised."

Sub-editing and proofing:

Grocott's sub-editor Anna-Karien Otto has prepared these basic guidelines on how to edit stories. Each student will have some days scheduled when part of your duties will include sub-editing.

Please note: Only edit stories on Wednesdays and Thursdays.

Log in under the Nika username Subbing student 1, 2 or 3.

NB: Only edit stories that have been marked as SUB in the headline by the sub-editor, Anna-Karien.

When you have finished editing, mark the story as SUBBED (in the headline) and click on Save and Close.

Anna-Karien will then check it and move it through to Layout.

IN THE SUBBING FOLDER

Read the yellow note at the top of the article first as additional info such as whether the article must be cut down or not will be noted there.

Close all paragraph breaks and organise the text into paragraphs if needed;

Correct all grammar and spelling, especially names, titles and institutions.

Check spacing, especially at the end of sentences (*Grocott's* style is to only have one space between sentences).

Make sure all the information makes sense - if it doesn't, speak to the writer. DON'T make changes if you don't know what's cooking.

Make sure the story reads well, is easily understandable and flows well;

Check for legal and ethical issues.

If you feel major changes are necessary, speak to A-K. Err on the side of caution;

Read the Grocott's Mail style guide and apply it. If you aren't sure, ask A-K.

When you are done, mark the story as SUBBED and Save and Close.

A-K will then check it and sent it through to Layout.

PROOFING AND CHECKING PAGES

A-K will pass along pages for you to check. Remember that one shouldn't make too many changes on the page as these should have been done in Subbing. Use a blue or red pen as black ink won't show up.

Change headlines if needed;

Re-check spelling and grammar;

Check spacing;

If there are significant layout changes you think should be made, speak to A-K.

When you are done, give the page back to A-K to check before giving back to the designers.

Steven Lang then checks it, after which it is sent to PE to be printed.

NOTE: Every student, whether on subbing/proofing duty or not, should make a point of checking your stories on the page print-outs pasted-up on the wall in the reporters'/layout people's offices. If your story appears with typos, **you** will be embarrassed – even if these errors weren't of your making, but crept in during the sub-editing or lay-out stage. If you spot mistakes in your stories, bring them to the attention of the sub, news editor or editor.

The assignment programme

You will write a 3000 word essay linking your Term 2 Media Studies theory topic to Grocott's Mail. Due date: 27 October.

Daily journal

You need to keep a daily journal, writing a minimum of 250 words a day in it, reflecting on your journalistic experience, team work and other learnings. This must be submitted with your portfolio.

Prescribed readings

Newspapers and magazines (you should glean at least one clipping per week from the following list as a potential story idea for a follow-up article in *Grocott's Mail*):

Grocott's Mail.

At least one daily newspaper (eg. the *Daily Dispatch*, but *Business Day*, *The Daily Sun* and *The EP Herald* are also available in Grahamstown).

At least one national weekly newspaper (eg. the *Mail & Guardian*, *The Sunday Times* and *City Press*).

At least one international newspaper (eg. get a free subscription to the *Financial Times* or find a good/great newspaper online).

At least one magazine that interests you.

The Rhodes/Grocott's Style Book and a good dictionary.

The Grahamstown Handbook.

Francois Nel's *Writing for the Media in SA* is an affordable and useful text that uses mostly South African examples.

Lauterer, J. 2000. *Community journalism: the Personal Approach*. Iowa State University Press. (chapter on sports journalism)

The Missouri Group. 2005. *News Reporting and Writing*. Boston: Bedford/ St. Martin's.

Course assessment

This course runs over Term 3 and counts 25% of your total PGDip mark. Of that:

Portfolio (60%)

A portfolio of your work should be submitted at the end of Term 3. The portfolio must include:

35%: At least 20 published stories in a wide variety of story forms, styles and genres, along with a short critical reflection on each. You must include a copy of an unedited version of the story submitted to the course lecturer or *Grocott's* editor as well as a copy of the final published version – so always be sure to save a copy on RUConnected/Moodle. Your reflections should document learning, discoveries and questions.
25%: Reflect critically on the course as a whole (including issues such as the beat system, *Grocott's* as newsroom, *Grocott's* as learning vehicle, *Grocott's* as community/ public/ development newspaper.)

Assignment (20%):

Newsroom performance assessment (20%)

Your general performance on this course will be assessed by the *Grocott's* editors and the course lecturer using the following criteria:

Criterion for newsroom assessment	A (10)	B (6)	C (2)
1. Attendance and reliability			
2. Generation of story ideas and participation in news meetings			
3. Consistency, effort, persistence			
4. Motivation, enthusiasm and effort			
5. Creativity and imagination			
6. Accuracy and attention to detail			
7. Curiosity and news awareness			
8. Professionalism			
9. Ability to work in a team			
10. Intellectual curiosity and critical thought			

Course requirements and other information

DP certificates

To qualify for a Duly Performed Certificate, you must:

Submit all assignments, including the journal as well as portfolio of all course-related work for the course.

NOTE: The journal must be posted at RU connected on the relevant space.

Take deadlines seriously.

Mutual responsibilities

Note that we are all in the process of co-engineering the partnership with *Grocott's Mail* as well as many components of this course. This class should be seen as a think-tank that can feed valuable insights into the design of future projects/courses in the department and possibly further afield.

Some of the learning in this course may come from secondary sources. But, mostly, it will come from your own direct experience and reflection upon it. Learn from your journalism. Integrate the theory and practice where you can – strive for each to enrich the other. The course facilitator will be available for consultation throughout the term. If you are experiencing problems of any kind please raise them sooner rather than later.

Access to the resources

As a postgraduate student, you have preferential access to the Writing and Editing lab in the AMM. However, there will be a few times when Journalism 3 writers will be given preferential access to the newsroom. Please respect this. You will be provided with access to a workstation at *Grocott's Mail*. You may make use of the telephone in the *Grocott's Mail* newsroom (responsibly). You may sign out *Grocott's* cameras.

Grocott's Mail Learner's Contract

Student journalists working at *Grocott's Mail* are fulfilling a compulsory practical component of their diploma and therefore continue to be bound by the rules and regulations governing the activities of Rhodes University students (e.g. plagiarism). In other words, for the duration of your contract, you are required to treat *Grocott's Mail* as an extension of the Rhodes University campus.

There is no financial remuneration for this component of your diploma. As this practical assignment is an integral part of your education as a journalist you will therefore not be paid, either by *Grocott's Mail* or by Rhodes University. The educational purpose of your time at the newspaper, as described in your course outline, is to give you an experiential and reflective learning experience about practical writing and reporting as a professional on a real newspaper.

Expectations

You are expected to operate as a professional journalist would. Among other things, this includes:

Handing in copy on time.

Handing in copy that is clean, i.e. correctly spelt (been through a spellchecker and physically checked by you), properly punctuated, coherently structured and accurately sourced.

Communicating clearly at all times with your supervising editor(s).

Displaying appropriate commitment to the production processes of a commercial newspaper. On occasion, this will mean working outside and beyond normal working hours to fulfil deadline requirements. Overtime will be made up in consultation with your supervising editor(s), taking into account slow periods in the production cycle.

Flexibility. The life of a journalist is unpredictable and challenging; surviving it creatively requires lateral thought, energy and adaptability.

Locating stories. While you will be assigned stories by the editor(s), you are also expected to source your own. These you will pitch in the news meeting, indicating the story angle, sources and picture possibilities (where applicable).

Being a responsible employee. This includes respecting the manner in which you use facilities such as telephones and computers.

Punctuality. You will be punctual for editorial news meetings, for work and for all appointments you make with sources.

Ethical behaviour. You will ensure that sources are fully aware that you are interviewing them for newspaper publication and not for classroom assignments. You will consult with the Editor before committing to showing a story or parts thereof to a source before publication.

Sensitivity. You will exercise caution when covering issues such as crime, HIV/AIDS, rape, children, abuse victims, or any other potentially sensitive topic.

Representing *Grocott's Mail*. Do not make commitments on behalf of the newspaper. Rather, refer issues back to editor. Do not behave or dress in a manner that would reflect adversely on the newspaper.

Duration of Contract

This contract covers the period you are required to spend in fulfilment of your diploma requirements, i.e. Term 3, 2010.

Hours of work

All news meetings (daily, 08h30-09h15);

Monday 09h15-17h00;

Friday 09h15-13h00; 14h00-15h30;

Tuesday post-mortem session 16h15-17h00.

Note: The work required may sometimes require your input after-hours or on weekends. On average, the total time you spend on all aspects of the course should not be less than 24 hours a week.

Output

While it is recognised that PGDips are beginner journalists, you should be able to significantly enhance your portfolio while working at the newspaper by writing a variety of stories. These would include hard news, news features, news backgrounders, captions, fillers and briefs (nibs).

You should also leave *Grocott's Mail* with experience in:

recognising stories;

researching them

producing them to standard and on deadline

reflecting on the experience and drawing lessons.

You will strive together with your supervising editor(s) to publish at least one story in each issue of the newspaper for the duration of your contract.

Confidentiality

You will treat as confidential, any sensitive information you receive while working at *Grocott's Mail*.

Social Responsibility

Grocott's Mail is a community newspaper for the people of Grahamstown. All interactions relating to the newspaper will be conducted with thoughtful attention to the vision and mission of *Grocott's Mail* and to everyone you come into contact with—sources, readers, critics, admirers, etc.

Assessment

At the end of your stay, your performance as a student journalist will be assessed by the *Grocott's Mail* editors. This will be in addition to the standard academic assessment required by the School of Journalism and Media Studies.

Non-performance

Behaving professionally as a journalist also means being subject to professional disciplinary action when necessary and appropriate. Non-performance during your practical assignments will be subject to standard disciplinary procedures at Rhodes.

What you can expect from your supervisors

Your success as a student journalist depends on your coaching editors as much as on yourself. In return for your commitment therefore, this is what you can expect from us:

Your continuing education will be our priority.

We will be available during the paper's production times for all your work-related queries.

You will receive honest feedback on your work at every stage of the production cycle.

We undertake to provide direction, guidance and support for your reporting assignments; but;

We shall not do the work for you.

Signed:

Student

For the School of Journalism and Media Studies, Rhodes University

For *GROCOTT'S MAIL*

On this _____ day of _____ 2010

Grocott's Mail Learner's Contract

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researching them

producing them to standard and on deadline
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Signed:

Student

For the School of Journalism and Media Studies, Rhodes University

For *GROCOTT'S MAIL*



RHODES UNIVERSITY

Journalism & Media Studies 4 (Television) Television Intensive Course (6 weeks)

Fourth Term 2011

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Purpose

The fourth term Television Intensive Course supplements students' existing practical journalism skills base by providing the capacity to motivate, create and reflect upon basic television journalism production.

Students entering this course will learn, in a hands-on environment, the operational basics of proposal writing, scripting, preproduction, production management, camera/sound work, presenting, post production and voice over. An attempt will be made to provide a multi-skilled approach which provides overviews of the medium, and individual capacity building. Students will enjoy a basis for future development in the television industry, as well as the ability to undertake video projects single-handedly.

1.2 Credit Value

The JMS4 Intensive Course is worth 20% of the year mark, which means students are expected to spend approximately 40 notional hours per week on the course. These hours include contact time, individual/team work and assessment time.

2. Assumptions of Prior Learning

By the fourth term, it is assumed that students would have participated in advanced reporting and journalism specialization courses in terms one to three, that they have a thorough understanding of their own specializations, that they see their journalistic practice in relation to Media Studies issues and that they are aware of the problems and limitations of their medium.

3. OUTCOMES

3.1 Specific Outcomes

On successful completion of this course, students will be able to:

Produce short form-television documentary work within the parameters of professional industry standards, either alone or in teams.

Critically reflect on the documentary video they produce; its context, impact and bias.

Work in a collaborative environment in which roles and responsibilities in the achievement of multi-skilled competency are developed as life-long learning.

Have developed personal choice around decisions affecting form, content and conception, purpose and the execution of television documentary production.

Articulate an informed understanding of television production that links to debates about democracy, development and needs analysis, and the media.

Critical Outcomes

Students will be able to:

identify and solve problems

work in a team

organize and manage yourselves

Research (collect, analyse and evaluate) information for TV journalism

communicate effectively

use science and technology

recognize problem-solving contexts

reflect on and explore effective learning strategies

participate as a responsible citizen

be culturally and aesthetically sensitive

4. TEACHING METHODS

The course will involve seminars and workshops around television production, including video viewing sessions, and term-long practical documentary work assignments.

Students will be encouraged to participate in a process of experiential learning by doing.

Students will enjoy a mixture of individual and group learning dynamics.

Emphasis is placed on critique and self-reflection and these priorities are combined with writing for the television industry skills development.

5. COURSE DELIVERABLES

5.1 Short- form television documentary:

The Course has as its chief output, the production of a five-minute TV journalism product. This is produced collaboratively in crews, who share tasks and learning, under the mentorship of the Course Coordinator.

Besides the production of a five-minute short-form documentary, all process and production records associated with the production will be collated in a physical file.

5.2 Production File

This physical paper-based file will include:

- Comprehensive proposals
- Written reports, essays and assignments
- All versions of the scripts
- All production management documentation
- All records of communiqués; electronic and hard copy.
- Minutes of all meetings with stake-holders or story participants
- Minutes of all production and crew meetings

NOTE: Students will produce the short-form documentaries as crews, but each student will be expected to produce an individual physical file reflecting her specific role in the production.

6. COURSE STRUCTURE

	Course outcomes	Student action	Course deliverables
Week 1	Idea development Script development	Research scripting forms, develop a personal form, propose & pitch idea	Proposal
Week 2	Camera skills development Lighting course	Study manual, attend workshops, project pre-production, script development, practice camera work	Preproduction script
Week 3	Editing course	Study manuals, attend workshop, script development, project production, practice camera work, practice editing	Production script
Week 4	Practical assignments Written assignments	Study manuals, script development, practice camera work, practice editing, project production and post-production	Developed Production Script
Week 5	Practical assignments Written assignment	Study manuals, script development, practice camera work, practice editing, post-production, prepare production files	Postproduction script Start self-reflective analysis of project
Week 6	Publication	Finalize productions and post-production. Prepare written assignment. Finalize production files. Assessment and evaluation. Organize studio show.	One broadcast quality 5-minute social documentary per crew, 1500 word self-reflective analysis of project per student, 1 production file per student

7. STUDENT ASSESSMENT

Specific Outcomes	Assessment Criteria	Assessment Tasks
1. Produce journalistic work within the parameters of a specific brief	Refer to the JMSTV4 Assessment grid	<u>Summative task:</u> Students craft a production item, focusing on each step of the production process
2. Work in a collaborative environment in which you negotiate roles and responsibilities	Refer to the JMSTV4 Assessment grid	<u>Summative tasks:</u> Students collaboratively produce proposals for their productions on the basis of the brief they've been given. Students collaboratively compile short-form television documentary work.
3. Articulate an informed understanding of the production of television that links to debates about democracy and development	Refer to the JMSTV4 Assessment grid	Formative tasks: Self and peer assessment discussion groups and viewing sessions.
4. Critically reflect on the journalistic projects you produce, drawing on different modes of critique (e.g. the language of the producer of journalism and the media studies critic), and engage with the social implications of your journalistic products	Competent to advanced understanding of production in terms of production language and the language of media studies critique	<u>Formative tasks:</u> Weekly debriefing meetings in which students critically discuss with staff their involvement in the production process. .

7.1 STUDENT ASSESSMENT GRID

CRITERION	A	B	C	Fail
Grade description	Highly proficient	Proficient	Competent	Not yet competent
Technical: vision, sound, editing	Technically perfect	Technically sound	Technically ok, mistakes rectifiable with some effort	Technically bad, would have to be redone
Conceptual: concept, creativity, cohesion	Demonstrates great skill & insight	Attractive, exciting	Unexciting, mundane, fulfils basic requirements	Incoherent, uncreative, unattractive
Interpersonal: professionalism, team-work (communication effectivity, reliability, accountability)	Interacts brilliantly, can handle conflict well, very empathic/supportive	Interacts effectively, handles conflict ok, empathic/supportive	Interacts ok, just handles conflict, barely empathic /supportive	Interaction is disruptive, causes conflict, not empathic/supportive

8. DP REQUIREMENTS

Students are required to submit all assignments to deadline. Fully engaged participation and attendance in all Course activities is mandatory.

9. COPYRIGHT

All copyright subsists with the School of Journalism & Media Studies, and Rhodes University

10. COURSE COORDINATOR

Paul Hills:
Room 110, African Media Matrix
p.hills@ru.ac.za
SMS 0827366420

Course coordinator: Paul Hills

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p.hills@ru.ac.za



School of Journalism & Media Studies

Rhodes University, South Africa

Post Graduate Diploma in Journalism and Media Studies
2012



Course teacher: Paul Greenway

Contact Details: p.greenway@ru.ac.za

Room 220, AMM Tel: 603 7153

Cell: 072 893 2808

Availability: by arrangement/appointment

Lecture times: Tues: 09.00-12.00

Thurs: 09.00-12.00

Venue: Seminar Room 201

Overview

The Introduction to Photography course has a number of objectives. In the print media market, 'cross-discipline' competency is gaining importance and employers are making greater demands for their journalists to 'bounce' between different disciplines, often at short notice, or indeed fulfil a number of tasks at once. With this in mind the course intends to broaden your skills base by aiming to:

1. develop competency with the practical and technical aspects of photography.
2. develop and refine a level of visual literacy that will enhance and inform
 - your own photographic and technical output, as well as
 - your consumption of visual media generally.

Assumptions of prior learning

As post graduate students it will be assumed that you will pose a level of academic and personal maturity that delights in academic and creative stimulation and personal growth. You should be computer literate and, at least, possess a foundational knowledge of journalism, and journalistic practice.

Critical cross-field outcomes

Upon completion of this course you should:

- have developed an enthusiasm for critical engagement regarding visual imagery.
- be competent and confident in engaging with your PGdip and journalism peers on a critical and creative level.
- be competent and confident in your engagement of media representations at an individual, community, national and international level.
- communicate effectively, both generally, and through your graphic output.
- be willing to 'own' and be responsible for your personal media output.
- acknowledge and embrace your cultural and aesthetic sensitivity and responsibility.

Specific intended outcomes

Upon completion of this course you should:

- be competent with the 'technical workings' of the 35mm digital SLR camera
- be familiar with technical aspects as they relate to image creation
- be familiar with the underlying qualities and criteria that relate to the 'reading' of images.
- demonstrate technical and creative ability so as to generate quality images in any number of 'less than ideal' circumstances.

- be competent at conceptualising and generating images that strengthen written content.
- possess a descriptive and critical 'visual repertoire'.
- possess a working knowledge of image editing software (Photoshop) so as to enhance and prepare images for publication.

Teaching Methods and Assessment

- The course will consist of two lectures a week with a variety of assignments weekly.
- A photographic documentary project to be completed over the first vacation (31 March – 15 April) will form part of your assessment. Due date for the documentary will be given in due course.
- In addition a structured portfolio of work will be required for assessment at the end of the third term.

Course content by week

Date	Week	Module	Content
21 Feb	2	1	Introduction Course Outline Expectations Digital and Analogue SLR Cameras <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • basic structure • operating sequence • lenses EXERCISE 1 - practical
23 Feb	2	2	Visual elements Navigation Framing and Composition EXERCISE 2 - written
28 Feb	3	3	Aperture Shutter speed ISO/ASA Depth of field EXERCISE 3 - practical
1 March	3	4	EXERCISE 4 - practical Exposure Metering EXERCISE 5 - practical
6 March	4	5	Good vs. bad images Image usage and the stand-alone Ethics and copyright issues
8 March	4	6	The photographic documentary PROJECT
4 May	11	6	Image editing software (Photoshop)
11 May	12	7	Image editing software (Photoshop)

Recommended Reading

London, Upton, Stone, Kobre and Brill. 2005. Photography. Pearson/Prentice Hall: New Jersey

Harrower, T. 2007. Inside Reporting: A practical Guide to the Craft of Journalism. McGraw Hill: New York

Evening, M. 2004. Adobe Photoshop CS for Photographers: A professional image editor's guide to the creative use of Photoshop for the Macintosh and PC. Elsevier: Amsterdam.

<http://www.reportage.org/Archive/archive.html>
<http://www.viiphoto.com/photographer.html> } For documentaries

<http://www.msnbc.msn.com/id/3842331/>
http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/in_pictures/7235046.stm
<http://www.mq.co.za/weekwas.aspx> } for the week in pictures

Kevin Carter discussion

<http://nml.ru.ac.za/blog/paul-greenway/2008/02/22/kevin-carter-s-vulture.html>
<http://www.time.com/time/magazine/article/0,9171,981431-1,00.html>
http://www.flatrock.org.nz/topics/odds_and_oddties/ultimate_in_unfair.htm

Spencer Platt discussion

<http://blog.foreignpolicy.com/node/3800>
<http://www.spiegel.de/international/0,1518,469070,00.html>

There are numerous other websites as well as photographic books available in the Library (around 770)



RHODES UNIVERSITY

Post Graduate Diploma in Journalism & Media Studies

ONLINE JOURNALISM

A MODULE OF NEWS REPORTING AND EDITING SKILLS AND PRINCIPLES

Level and duration: NQF level:

Seven (7) Journalism and Media Studies Term 1 & 2: (eight weeks) Tuesday (14h15 – 17h00) Venue: TBA

Facilitator:

Jude Mathurine
Room 208, AMM

Email: j.mathurine@ru.ac.za | Twitter: [@newmediajude](https://twitter.com/newmediajude) | Blog: [New Media Lab](#)

Phone: 046 603 7100

Consultation times: Email to arrange appointment

Course Overview

The practice of journalism in multi-platform digital media environments demands effective use of Internet-based tools for research, production and distribution of news. Emerging editorial practices such as data journalism, online writing and editing, blogging and micro-blogging and online content curation shape the focus of this course. Students also examine the online media landscape and discuss a range of 'new media' technical terms, concepts and phenomena.

Mark Allocation

10% - News Reporting Skills & Principles paper

10% - Critical Journalism Praxis paper

Assumption of prior learning

This course requires learners to be able to navigate and conduct Web searches, use a wordprocessing application (MS Word or similar) and send e-mails (RUMail or Gmail is fine). The course will not involve multimedia journalism production. Students may opt to choose a modality (TV, radio, web) based elective (if offered) in fourth term.

Teaching & learning

Teaching and learning uses a combination of educational methods including lectures, guest lectures, guided practicals and assignments. Course materials will be available either through library short loans, RUConnected or handouts.

Assignments

Consult the [Journalism and Media Studies Guidelines](#) on appropriate style for referencing essays and research papers. Pay special attention to referencing of Web based resources.

Consult the [JMS Style Guide](#) for house style for news reports and features. Ten percent will automatically be deducted for failing to comply with style and referencing requirements.

Evidence of plagiarism will constitute a **zero mark** and provide grounds for disciplinary hearing. Learners should familiarise themselves with the Departmental guidelines on fair use, sourcing and quotations to avoid running afoul of the rules.

Assignments must be typed and formatted as an MS Word document. Assignments must be submitted via RU Connected (unless otherwise indicated).

All assignments are deemed to be produced for the purpose of publication. Work of exceptional quality will be made available for publication on Grocott's Mail Online. *It is essential that you inform all news and story sources that their comments and views may be subject to publication.*

If you are unable to submit an assignment for whatever reason, do notify and provide the required proofs (see Student Handbook) to the Administrative Manager, [Belinda de Lange](#). Proofs such as letters, affidavits and doctors notes are NOT to be given to the lecturer.

Submit all assignments on or prior to the publicised deadline. No extensions will be granted. Late assignments result in a zero mark.

Ask a peer to proofread your assignments for accuracy, grammar, spelling, syntax and sense prior to submission. Students will be penalised for sloppy mistakes.

Avoid covering a story on any activity in which you are involved or to which you have a close personal connection. Avoid using family members or significant others (boyfriend, sibling, parent, digsmate, etc.) or friends as **primary sources**. Reasonable justification needs to be provided if you do so.

Rely primarily on YOUR OWN reporting and research. When citing material other than your own, **ALWAYS credit** the original source.

Avoid quoting journalism faculty or j-students as sources in your articles and assignments **unless this forms part of an assignment or is approved in advance.**

Etiquette

- Arrive on time for class. The lecturer reserves the right to bar late students from class. Conversely, if the lecturer is more than 15 minutes late *AND cannot be located by the class representative*, the lesson may be considered cancelled.
- Attendance of all lectures and practicals are compulsory unless you have applied for, and been granted, a leave of absence (LOA). LOA applications are made to the Administrative Manager (b.delange@ru.ac.za) NOT the subject lecturer.
- For a detailed account of DP requirements and other vital information, see page 9 [of the JMS Student Handbook](#).
- Learners must engage with certain structured tasks and/or required readings before each lesson (check RUConnected or the course outline for details).
- Students will be kept informed by e-mail and through [RUConnected](#).
- The lecturer will assist with queries and problems during the times specified in this course outline. Queries will be addressed by e-mail. Twitter or SMS correspondence relating to the course will NOT be answered.
- Turn off your mobile phones in the lecture venue. I reserve the right to summarily eject anyone whose phone rings.
- Since you will work on lab computers in the African Media Matrix, Rhodes University and likely on your personal computer at home, ensure that all portable memory devices (including portable hard drives, memory sticks, memory in digital cameras and mobile phones) are VIRUS FREE. AVG is a free virus protection program that you can download and use if you cannot afford a decent anti-virus program. Do not use infected devices or memory.
- Readings are usually provided for each lecture. These are either available via RUConnected, in your reader or through RU library short loans. Readings should be completed PRIOR to the class. It is your responsibility to audit what should be read for the next class.
- Active listening and notetaking skills are essential to the craft of journalism. Effective notetaking does not mean copying lecture Powerpoints. Lecturers are not under obligation to provide copies of their presentations, so pay attention.

Time commitments

There is one lecture a week totaling about three contact hours. *To succeed students are expected to spend an equal amount of time on subject readings, practicals and assignments.*

OUTCOMES

At the end of this course, you should:

Specified Outcomes

- Demonstrate familiarity with working concepts and terminology associated with online journalism.
- Employ online tools for basic data journalism.

- Demonstrate awareness of the best platforms, conventions and practices for gathering, shaping, publishing and promoting of online editorial.
- Demonstrate awareness of ethical and professional considerations for online journalistic research, writing and publishing

Assessment

Assignments will be marked according to assessment criteria that will be outlined as part of the brief for each assignment. This course constitutes ten (10) credits of your postgraduate diploma.

Learning Resources

Students should read/or subscribe to [The Media magazine](#), [bizcommunity.com](#), [Memeburn](#) (for tech culture and online business) and other industry journals and blogs that are identified throughout the course.

Learners should subscribe to relevant web RSS feeds as identified throughout the course using [Google Reader](#) (or any other feed reader)

Learners should set up a [Twitter account](#) and follow relevant thought leaders in their respective spheres of interest. [South African Editors on Twitter](#) is a good place to start.

Prescribed Readings:

- Harrower, T. 2009. *Inside Reporting: A practical guide to the craft of journalism* (2nd ed). McGraw Hill.

Recommended readings (these can be downloaded where indicated or can be found on shortloan at the RU library):

- Briggs, M. 2007. *Journalism 2.0 – how to survive and thrive*. Knight Foundation. Creative Commons License.
- Briggs, M. 2010. *JournalismNext: a practical guide to digital reporting and publishing*. Washington, D.C., CQ Press.
- Gillmor, D. 2010. *Mediactive*. United States, Dan Gillmor.
- Luckie, M. S. 2010. *The Digital journalist's handbook*. United States, CreateSpace [Shortloan bar code: 14390046]

Intellectual Property

Copyright of all of work co-resides in the School of Journalism & Media Studies and Rhodes University. Sources must be informed that all outputs are considered subject for distribution on the publishing platforms of [Grocott's Mail](#).

Disclaimer

This course outline is a **guide** and will **remain flexible** to account for new developments and opportunities. Use this course outline to plan your work but note content may be subject to change.

PGDIP JOURNALISM & MEDIA STUDIES: ONLINE JOURNALISM

The course deals with, but is not limited to the following areas:

22 March 2012	Online Journalism: Local and Global Context	<p>Bosch, T. 2010. Digital Journalism and online public spheres in South Africa in <i>Communicatio</i> 36(2). London UK: Routledge.</p> <p>IFJ. 2010. The Big Changes. In <i>Journalism Unions in Touch with the Future</i>. Belgium: International Federation of Journalists.</p> <p>O'Reilly, T. and Battelle, J. 2010. <i>Web Squared: Web 2.0 Five Years On</i>. O'Reilly Media.</p>
29 March 2012	Data Journalism: Online Research	<p>Eghawary, E. 2011. <i>Data Journalism</i>. Centre for Investigative Journalism.</p> <p>Harrower, T. 2009. <i>Inside Reporting: A practical guide to the craft of journalism (2nd ed)</i>. Boston: McGraw Hill (pp 72-74)</p>
18 April 2012	Data Journalism: Intro to data analysis and visualisation	<p>Houston, B. 1999. <i>Computer Assisted Reporting: A Practical Guide</i>. Bedford: St. Martins</p> <p>Luckie, M. 2010. Data Visualisation. In <i>The Digital Journalist's Handbook</i>. Lexington, Ky. s.n.</p> <p>Rajamanickam, V. 2005. <i>Infographics Session Handout</i>. Indian Institute of Technology.</p>
25 April 2012	Data Journalism: Open Book Test	RU Connected
2 May 2012	Online writing & editing	<p>Brooks B, Kennedy G, Moen D & Ranly D. 2004. Writing for the Online Media in <i>News Reporting and Writing</i>. Missouri Group (pp 427-448)</p> <p>Briggs, M. 2007. How to report news for the Web in <i>Journalism 2.0 – how to survive and thrive</i>. Knight Foundation. Creative Commons License (pp 62-73)</p> <p>Luckie, M. 2010. Writing for the Web. In <i>The Digital Journalist's Handbook</i>. Lexington, Ky. s.n.</p>
9 May 2012	Online writing & editing	<p>Brooks B, Kennedy G, Moen D & Ranly D. 2004. Writing for the Online Media in <i>News Reporting and Writing</i>. Missouri Group (pp 427-448)</p> <p>Briggs, M. 2007. How to report news for the</p>

		<p>Web in <i>Journalism 2.0 – how to survive and thrive</i>. Knight Foundation. Creative Commons License (pp 62-73)</p> <p>Luckie, M. 2010. Writing for the Web. In <i>The Digital Journalist's Handbook</i>. Lexington, Ky. s.n.</p>
16 May 2012	J-Blogging	<p>Bruns, A. & Jacobs, J. (eds). 2007. <i>Uses of Blogs</i>. New York: Peter Lang Publishing (Chapters 1,2,3)</p> <p>Luckie, M. 2010. Blogging. In <i>The Digital Journalist's Handbook</i>. Lexington, Ky. s.n.</p>
23 May 2012	Real-time reporting & UGC curation	<p>Grygar, J. 2010. <i>100 essential tips to being a smarter Twitterer</i>. Retrieved 26 August 2010 from http://jimgrygar.byethost12.com/100-tips-essential-to-being-a-smarter-better-twitterer/</p> <p>Posetti, J. 2009. Transforming Journalism... 140 Characters at a Time in <i>Rhodes Journalism Review #29</i>. Rhodes University, Grahamstown. Retrieved 26 August 2010 from http://www.rjr.ru.ac.za/rjrpdf/rjr_no29/Transforming_Journ.pdf</p> <p>Memeburn. 2010. <i>Twitter and its impact on journalism</i>. Retrieved 26 August 2010 from http://memeburn.com/2010/08/interview-mg-editor-discusses-twitters-impact-on-journalism/</p>

Assessment tasks

- Data Journalism: Open Book Test (5%)
- Online reporting assignment (5%) Assessment criteria provided on Online Journalism course site on RUConnected.
- An online project worth 10% will be incorporated into your portfolio credit for **Critical Journalism Praxis (third term)**

Rhodes University
School of Journalism & Media Studies
Term 4 Intensive: The Art of Fact

Facilitator:

Anna Christensen: Room 227 African Media Matrix
Phone: 046 603-7151; Cell: 082 339 3344
a.christensen@ru.ac.za; annac@netactive.co.za

Consultations: By appointment

Meeting Times:

Tuesday: 10:00-12:00
Wednesday: 10:00-12:00
Thursday: 10:00-12:00

Course description:

This intensive course is designed to help you understand the history of long-form journalism to give you a broad perspective on your present passion. It will stretch your reporting skills and capacities, allowing you to indulge in a subject that really interests you, to dig deep and to experiment with narrative. Clear your calendar, as you will be reading and writing for the next eight weeks!

The course aims :

To delve into creative non-fiction from historical and literary perspectives.

To explore the skill of gathering information.

To dissect structure, dealing with:

Scenes

Frame

Voice

Subject

Character

Narrator

Point of view

Chronology

Detail

Dialogue

Dramatic tension

Action

Metaphor

To deconstruct some of the best narrative non-fiction, looking at:

Scenic constructions

Interior monologue

Simultaneous narration
Sequential narration
Substitutionary narration
Interior monologue

Assignments :

There will be weekly written assignments on topics we are exploring, including historical and analytical approaches to long-form journalism. The emphasis will, of course, be on experimenting with narrative in creative nonfiction.

Weekly journal entries of no less than 500 words that include your thoughts, inspirations, and lack thereof, provoked by readings and weekly seminars. These will be monitored by the lecturer and feedback will be given.

An investigation of the work of one superb long-form journalist and the presentation of a seminar on this person's writing. You will demonstrate knowledge of at least one of the author's books and two works of long-form journalism. You will provide your classmates with one written copy of the author's works on the Friday before your presentation. Your classmates will be prepared to discuss gently the merits of your case for the author with whom you have just fallen in love. Prepare for a 30-minute presentation and a 30-minute discussion.

The creation of, with regular consultations with your lecturer, a piece of fact-based writing that is 5 000 words long. Your writing must grapple with:

time and chronology

characters and subjects (characters being human and subjects being things, situations, issues, ideas, concepts)

place

"I" (the choice to be in or out of the story)

context (historical cultural, social, conceptual, technical)

conflicts, contradictions and ironies.

This will be accompanied by a reflective essay and a bibliography.

In order to do this we are going to:

Dissect structure – writing long is like putting up a suspension bridge over a sea to connect two islands; unless you know what you are doing it will sag in the middle or break! (Anthea Garman)

Discover voice – in hard news you can hide behind the professional, disinterested journalist's voice, or the voice of the newspaper. When you go long you've got to find your own or create your own.

Explore the relationship to a source and source material to find out where you stand.

Reflective essay requirements:

In this reflective essay I want to see evidence of not just answering the questions I set but of your reading about writing and responding to what other authors think about this particular form of writing. I want to see evidence that you've read beyond the reader and found important stuff to provoke your work.

Reflect on your experimentation with the six main structural components: time, character, place, I, history, etc., and conflicts. Explain your choices and what provoked them. Tell me which of these six elements drives your piece in particular. Which were simple to deal with, which ones difficult?

Reflect on your choices about the final presentation of the story on the page.

Reflect on what you left out, decided not use. Why?

Reflect on how you decided to use the background readings you did (history, context etc) and how you decided to acknowledge the work of other writers.

Tell me what you've discovered about "voice" and your own voice in the process of doing this writing in particular, but also reflect on your growing understanding and use of your own voice this year.

In conclusion: what have you learnt about *structure* and writing?

Bibliography:

Must contain at least 5 references which deal with the non-fiction subject matter which informs your piece of writing.

Must contain at least 10 references which deal with the craft of writing, at least 5 of which are not in the reader.

REQUIRED READINGS

In the RU library on 48-hour loan (or buy your own books)

James Agee, *Let Us Now Praise Famous Men*

Truman Capote, *In Cold Blood*

John Hersey, *Hiroshima*

Tracy Kidder, *The Soul of a New Machine*

Norman Mailer, *The Executioner's Song*

Read anything you can by:

James Agee

Svetlana Alexiyevich

Keven Bloom

Ted Conover

Truman Capote

Joan Didion

Annie Dillard

John Hersey

Ryszard Kapuscinski

Tracy Kidder

Norman Mailer

Rian Malan

Gay Talese

Hunter S. Thompson

Tom Wolfe

Readings:

Part One: The New Journalism.

"The New Journalism", by Tom Wolfe in *The New Journalism*, Tom Wolfe, London: Picador, 1996: 15-22.

“Introduction” by Robert Boynton in *The New New Journalism*, Edited by Robert S. Boynton, New York, Vintage: xi-xxxi.

“The New Literature” by Carolyn Forché. *Writing Creative Nonfiction* by Carolyn Forché and Philip Gerard, 2001: 104-113

“The Art of Literary Journalism” by Norman Sims. *Literary Journalism: A New Collection of the Best American Nonfiction*, 1995: 3-19.

“Breakable rules for literary journalists” by Mark Kramer. *Literary Journalism: A New Collection of the Best American Nonfiction*, 1995: 21-34.

“Introduction: notes for young writers” by Annie Dillard. *In Fact* edited by Lee Gutkind, Norton New York, 2005: xi-xvii.

Part Two: A Selected historical background.

Thucydides, *History of the Peloponnesian War* (431 B.C.E.)

<http://ebooks.adelaide.edu.au/t/thucydides>

Herodotus, *The History of Herodotus* (440 B.C.E.)

<http://classics.mit.edu/Herodotus/history.1.i.html>

Daniel Defoe, *History of the Plague in London*

<http://www.gutenberg.org/files/17221/17221-8.txt>

Oliver Wendell Holmes, *The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table* (1858)

<http://www.gutenberg.org/dirs/etext96/aofbt10.txt>

Mark Twain, *Roughing It*

<http://www.gutenberg.org/files/3177/3177.txt>

Part Three: Pioneers

From *The True and Genuine Account of the Life and Actions of the Late Jonathan Wild* by Daniel Defoe. *The Art of Fact: A Historical Anthology of Literary Journalism*, Edited by Kevin Kerrane and Ben Yagoda, New York, Touchstone, 1998: 23-28.

From *The Life of Samuel Johnson* by James Boswell. *The Art of Fact: A Historical Anthology of Literary Journalism*, Edited by Kevin Kerrane and Ben Yagoda, New York, Touchstone, 1998: 29-33.

“Watercress Girl” by Henry Mayhew. *The Art of Fact: A Historical Anthology of Literary Journalism*, Edited by Kevin Kerrane and Ben Yagoda, New York, Touchstone, 1998: 34-37.

“The Great Tasmania’s Cargo” by Charles Dickens. *The Art of Fact: A Historical Anthology of Literary Journalism*, Edited by Kevin Kerrane and Ben Yagoda, New York, Touchstone, 1998: 38-45.

From *Specimen Days* by Walt Whitman. *The Art of Fact: A Historical Anthology of Literary Journalism*, Edited by Kevin Kerrane and Ben Yagoda, New York, Touchstone, 1998: 46-48.

“An Experiment in Misery” by Stephen Crane. *The Art of Fact: A Historical Anthology of Literary Journalism*, Edited by Kevin Kerrane and Ben Yagoda, New York, Touchstone, 1998: 63-70.

From *The People of the Abyss* by Jack London. *The Art of Fact: A Historical Anthology of Literary Journalism*, Edited by Kevin Kerrane and Ben Yagoda, New York, Touchstone, 1998: 83-89.

Part Four: “Why I Write”

George Orwell

Joan Didion

Terry Tempest Williams. *Writing Creative Nonfiction* by Carolyn Forché and Philip Gerard, 2001: 6-7.

Part Five: Selected Approaches to Writing Nonfiction

“How to Write about Africa” by Binyavanga Wainaina in GRANTA: The Magazine of New Writing/92: The View from Africa: 92-95.

“Unit A: New Myths for Old”. *The Writer’s Voice: A Workbook for Writers in Africa*. Dorian Haarhoff, 1998: 1-8.

“But Tell It Slant: From Poetry to Prose and Back Again” by Judith Ortiz Cofer. *Writing Creative Nonfiction* by Carolyn Forché and Philip Gerard, 2001: 8-13.

“A Braided Heart: Shaping the Lyric Essay” by Brenda Miller, *Writing Creative Nonfiction* by Carolyn Forché and Philip Gerard, 2001: 14-24.

“Finding Good Topics: A Writer’s Questions” by Lane Degregio. *Telling True Stories* edited by Mark Kramer and Wendy Call, Penguin, 2007: 20-22.

“Finding Good Topics: An Editor’s Questions” by Jan Winburn. *Telling True Stories* Edited by Mark Kramer & Wendy Call, Penguin, 2007: 22-24.

“Reporting for Narrative: Ten Tips” by Mark Kramer. “Interviewing: Accelerated Intimacy” by Isabel Wilkerson. *Telling True Stories* edited by Mark Kramer and Wendy Call, Penguin: 24-30.

Part Five: The Interview, Profile & Character

“Interviewing: Accelerated Intimacy” by Isabel Wilkerson. *Telling True Stories* edited by Mark Kramer and Wendy Call, Penguin: 30-34.

“Truman Capote” by Andy Warhol, *Rolling Stone Interviews*, Back Bay Books, New York, 2007: 79-93.

“Dr. Hunter S. Thompson” by P.J. O’Rourke. *Rolling Stone Interviews*, Back Bay Books, New York, 2007: 388-398.

“Calvin Trillin” in *The New New Journalism*, Edited by Robert S. Boynton, New York, Vintage:379-402

“Hearing our Subjects’ Voices: Quotes and Dialogue” by Kelley Benham. *Telling True Stories* edited by Mark Kramer and Wendy Call. Penguin, 2007: 104-107.

“Hearing our Subjects’ Voices: Keeping it Real and True” by Debra Dickerson. *Telling True Stories* edited by Mark Kramer and Wendy Call. Penguin, 2007: 107-109. “Character” by Jon Franklin. *Telling True Stories*, edited by Mark Kramer and Wendy Call. 2007: 126-128.

“Developing Character” by Stanley Nelson. *Telling True Stories*, edited by Mark Kramer and Wendy Call. 2007: 129-131.

“Composite Characters”. *Keep it Real*, edited by Lee Gutkind, New York, W W Norton & Company, 2008: 39-41.

“Family Members as Characters”. *Keep it Real*, edited by Lee Gutkind, New York, W W Norton & Company, 2008: 59-61.

“Portrait of a Circus Girl” by Julia Offen. (handout)

“Getting Inside Characters’ Heads”. *Keep it Real*, edited by Lee Gutkind, New York, W W Norton & Company, 2008: 68-69.

“The Emotional Core of the Story” by Tom Wolfe, *Telling True Stories*, edited by Mark Kramer and Wendy Call. 2007: 149-154.

Part Six: Structure

“A Brief History of Narrative in Newspapers” by Jack Hart. Handout.

“Constructing a Structure: Introduction” by Mark Kramer and Wendy Call. *Telling True Stories* edited by Mark Kramer and Wendy Call. Penguin, 2007: 97-98.

“What Narrative Writers Can Learn from Screenwriters” by Nora Ephron. *Telling True Stories* edited by Mark Kramer and Wendy Call. Penguin, 2007: 98-100.

“To Begin the Beginning” by Deneen L. Brown. *Telling True Stories* edited by Mark Kramer and Wendy Call. Penguin, 2007: 100-104.

“A Story Structure” by Jon Franklin. *Telling True Stories* edited by Mark Kramer and Wendy Call. Penguin, 2007: 109-112.

“Summary vs. Dramatic Narrative” by Jack Hart. *Telling True Stories* edited by Mark Kramer and Wendy Call. Penguin, 2007: 111-112.

“Weaving Story and Idea” by Nicholas Lemann. *Telling True Stories* edited by Mark Kramer and Wendy Call. Penguin, 2007: 112-116.

“Endings” by Bruce Desilva. Handout.

“Reconstructing Scenes” by Adam Hochschild. Handout.

“Scenes” in *Keep it Real*, edited by Lee Gutkind. New York, W W Norton & Company, 2009: 140-141.

“Setting the Scene” by Mark Kramer, *Telling True Stories*, edited by Mark Kramer and Wendy Call. 2007: 136-140.

“Sequencing: Text as Line” by Tom French, *Telling True Stories*, edited by Mark Kramer and Wendy Call. 2007: 140-145.

“Writing Complicated Stories” by Louise Kiernan, *Telling True Stories*, edited by Mark Kramer and Wendy Call. 2007: 145-149.

“Frame” in *Keep it Real*, edited by Lee Gutkind. New York, W W Norton & Company, 2009: 64-67.

John McPhee, *Travels in Georgia*.

Part Seven: Narrative Techniques:

Core readings, plus handouts.

Narrative Structure: Handouts (Wolfe, Talese, Hersey, Capote, Mailer)

Interior Mologue: *The Loser* by Gay Talese. (handout)

From “The electric kool-aid acid test” by Tom Wolfe in *The New Journalism*, Tom Wolfe, London, Picador, 1996: 228-243.

“What is Voice?” Handout.

“Putting Voice into a Paper” by Krysti Sibley.

“Discovering Empathy: Participation as New Journalism Method”. By Joseph M Webb in *The Student Journalist and Writing the New Journalism* by Joseph M Webb, New York, Richard Rosen Press, 1977: 82-98.

“Point of View” ” in *Keep it Real*, edited by Lee Gutkind, New York, W.W. Norton & Company, 2009: 119-125.

From “Radical chic & mau-mauing the flak catchers” by Tom Wolfe in *The New Journalism*, Tom Wolfe, London, Picador, 1996: 412-430.

“The ‘I’” in *Keep it Real*, edited by Lee Gutkind, New York, W W Norton & Company, 2009: 79-81.

“Writing Personal Essays” by Phillip Lopate. *Writing Creative Nonfiction* by Carolyn Forché and Philip Gerard, 2001:38-44.

“The Kentucky Derby is Decadent and Depraved” by Hunter S. Thompson

“Notes from Abroad: On the Orwell Trail” by Bernard Crick. *Granta: Autobiography* edited by Bill Buford, London: 236-254.

“Metaphor” in *Keep it Real*, edited by Lee Gutkind, New York, W W Norton & Company, 2009: 100-101.

“Adventures in Celestial Navigation” in. *In Fact* edited by Lee Gutkind, New York, Norton 2005: 245-265.

Travel: “The Lepers of Moyo” by Paul Theroux In *GRANTA: Africa*, New York, Granta, 1994: 128-149.

“A Life in Photographs’ by Don McCullin. Handout.

“The Black Albums” by Santu Mofokeng. *GRANTA: The Magazine of New Writing/92: The View from Africa*: 215-222.

“Genocide’s Child” by Dele Olojede <http://www.newsday.com/news/nationworld/nation/ny-rwanda-day1,0,1275476.story>

“The Big Man” by Michela Wrong in *Cold Type*.

<http://www.coldtype.net/Assets.10/Pdfs/0510.Michela.Kenya.pdf>

www.newnewjournalism.com has a list of 19 authors with links to their writings and interviews.

Addendum 2.2: BTech (TUT) programme documents

Course outlines for the whole programme;

NATIONAL DIPLOMA: JOURNALISM

a. Admission requirements:

FOR STUDENTS WHO OBTAINED A SENIOR CERTIFICATE BEFORE 2008:

A Senior Certificate or an equivalent qualification. English or Afrikaans with a C symbol (second language) or a D symbol (first language) at the Higher Grade. The head of department may, in exceptional cases, permit applicants who do not comply with all the language entry requirements to take part in the selection process.

FOR STUDENTS WHO OBTAINED A NATIONAL SENIOR CERTIFICATE SINCE 2008:

A National Senior Certificate or an equivalent qualification, with a minimum pass rate of 4 for English (first or second language) and with a total Admission Points Score (APS) of 22 or more (six subjects, excluding Life Orientation). Preference will be given to candidates with a 5 or more for English. Candidates receive an additional credit point for a pass in any of the recommended subjects listed below. (Prospective students who are currently in Grade 12 have to submit their Grade 11 marks. Provisional selection will be based on these marks.)

b. Recommended subjects:

A third language, Geography, History, any art related subject (e.g. Dramatic Arts; Music, etc).

c. Selection:

Candidates who meet the minimum requirements will be invited for the selection process, which includes a departmental questionnaire and possibly an interview.

General knowledge and language proficiency are extremely important in journalism and special emphasis will therefore be placed on these aspects during selection. Prospective students are advised to prepare themselves accordingly by, for example, reading books on journalism and the political system in South Africa, reading newspapers regularly, and consulting professional journalists on the nature and requirements of the profession. All prospective students should contact the Department of Journalism or the University by telephone by August of the year preceding the year of proposed study to make arrangements for selection.

d. Duration and presentation:

Three years.

The first two years: day classes.

Third year: block course and experiential learning (Media Practice III)

e. Intake for the course and registration:

January only. (Prospective students for 2011 are reminded to submit their applications before the closing date, 15 August 2010 as selection has usually been done by November. This means that prospective students who apply late may find that the course is already full for 2011.)

f. Media Practice III (Work Integrated Learning):

This is a compulsory component of this course. A student may do the Work Integrated Learning with an accredited employer only, and although the Tshwane University of Technology undertakes to assist students with placement for Work Integrated Learning, it is the student's own responsibility to find an accredited employer for a period of at least six months. A student himself or herself must negotiate with the employer regarding conditions of service and other applicable conditions. An agreement for Work Integrated Learning constitutes a separate agreement between an employer and a student.

All prescribed compulsory and chosen subjects (instructional offerings) as well as the Work Integrated Learning component must be passed in order to obtain sufficient credits to qualify for the qualification in question.

g. Subjects:

FIRST YEAR

Media Communication: English (A level) for Journalists I

Media Communication: Contemporary Political Studies I

Media Communication: Introduction to Mass Communication I

Media Information Management: Database I

Media Information Management: News Awareness and News Knowledge I

Media Information Management: Internet I

News Reporting: Print Media and Broadcasting I

News Reporting: Computers for Journalists I

News Reporting: Media Law I

Photojournalism I

Radio: Production, Editing and Sound I

plus one of the following languages (or as determined by the Head of the Department):

Afrikaans (A level) for Journalists I

Afrikaans I

French I

German I

Sotho (North) I

Sotho (North) (A level) for Journalists I

Zulu I

SECOND YEAR

Advanced Reporting: Investigative Reporting II

Advanced Reporting: Writing and Scripting Skills II

Broadcasting: Production II

Basic Editing and Design for Printing II

Basic Entrepreneurial Skills for Media II

Media Communication: English (A level) for Journalists II

Media Communication: Contemporary Political Studies II

Media Communication: Mass Communication and Ethics II

Internet II

Optional subject:

Media Communication: Afrikaans (A level) for Journalists II

Media Communication: Sotho (North) (A level) for Journalists II

THIRD YEAR

Advanced Reporting III (Politics III or Features and Reviews III)

Media Practice III (Internship – WIL)

plus one of the following subjects:

Advanced Editing and Design for Printing III

Broadcasting: Production III

h. Tuition Fees (2010):

First year: ±R18 000. Second year: ±R14 000. Third year: ±R6 000 (while earning a salary during Work Integrated Learning).

BACHELOR'S DEGREE IN TECHNOLOGY: JOURNALISM

a. Admission requirements:

A National Diploma: Journalism or an equivalent qualification. A student with an equivalent qualification must have at least one year's experience in the printed or electronic media.

b. Duration and Presentation:

Minimum of one year.

Block course (Saturdays)

c. Subjects:

Basic Research Project

Editorial Management IV

Specialist Reporting IV (Print IV or Broadcast IV AND Politics IV or Features and ReviewsIV)

d. Tuition Fees (2010)

±R8 000

FURTHER STUDY

A Master's degree (a minimum of one year and a maximum of three years of study) and a Doctorate (a minimum of two years and a maximum of five years of study).

Addendum 2.3: Semi-structured questionnaire for programme coordinators

Structured interview questions for programme co-ordinators

Dear Participant

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study which seeks to investigate challenges for journalism education in a transforming South Africa. The purpose of this study is to examine the approaches and theoretical underpinnings informing journalism education in selected tertiary institutions in South Africa, with a view to determining whether these adequately address the challenges of transformation. The information is for a doctoral study only. Your responses will be treated confidentially. Please answer as honestly as you can.

Please note that for the convenience of the participants, I used a structured questionnaire to gather data. I would, however, be grateful if you could allow me to contact you to clarify any of your responses which need clarification.

Please complete the questionnaire and return it to me together with your comments by 30 September 2010. An alternative email address to which you can send the questionnaire is: bevndu@yahoo.com

REMEMBER TO FORWARD YOUR RESPONSES. DO NOT PUSH THE REPLY BUTTON AS YOU WILL LOSE ALL YOUR RESPONSES.

Once again, thank you for your valuable contribution

Sincerely yours

Bevelyn Dube (Ms)
Doctoral student: Stellenbosch University

Please answer the questions in the spaces provided

1. Transformation has been a key word in South Africa since 1994. In what way has the journalism curriculum in your department transformed since then?
2. In your view, what still needs to be done to transform the programmes in your department?
3. What challenges do you face as a department in your attempts to transform your programmes?
4. How does the process of enrolment of students take into cognisance the issues of social and political transformation in the country?
5. What major challenges do you face in the enrolment of students into your school?
6. How would you describe the language and grammar of students in your programme?
7. Do you teach language and grammar to your students?
8. What is your opinion on the suggestion that journalism programmes in Africa / South Africa should be Africanised?
9. Do you think it is possible for journalism schools in Africa to follow the same journalism syllabus?
10. Suggestions have been made by some scholars that South African journalism schools should embed their programmes within an Afro-humanist / *Ubuntu* philosophy. What is your view on that?
11. There is a school of thought which argues that African journalists should be informed by the developmental model in their reporting. Would you say your department promotes this model in its teaching of journalists?
12. Multi-skilling is the way journalism profession is going. How does your department prepare students to operate across platforms?

13. Do you think journalism education should focus more on basic skills such as writing, editing and accuracy when training journalists? Give reasons for your answer.
14. Does your programme teach students life skills? Which ones?
15. What kind of journalists does your department aim to produce?
16. Would you say the media industry influences your curriculum? If so how?
17. Do you teach your students to report in specialist fields such as economics, politics, science and technology, health to mention but a few?
18. If so, which specialist fields are they trained to report on?
19. Do you teach your students to report in indigenous languages of South Africa? If so, which ones?
20. Are your students encouraged to do electives in the liberal arts? If so which ones?

Addendum 2.4: Structured questionnaire for students

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

PLEASE DO NOT REPLY, BUT FORWARD THE QUESTIONNAIRE BACK TO THE RESEARCHER SO THAT YOU DO NOT LOSE THE ATTACHMENT

Dear Participant

Thank you for agreeing to participate in a **research study** investigating the challenges for journalism education in a transforming South Africa. The purpose of this study is to examine the approaches and theoretical underpinnings informing journalism education in selected tertiary institutions in South Africa, with a view to determining whether these adequately address the challenges of transformation. The information is for a Doctoral study only. Your responses will be treated confidentially. Your participation is voluntary, meaning that you can withdraw from the study anytime you so desire. There are no wrong or right answers, but please answer as honestly as you can. Please complete the attached questionnaire and return it to me by 30 September 2010. An alternative Email address to which you can send the questionnaire is:

bevndu@yahoo.com

REMEMBER NOT TO REPLY BUT FORWARD THE QUESTIONNAIRE SO AS NOT TO LOSE THE ATTACHMENT.

Once again, thank you for your valuable contribution to this study.

Yours sincerely

Bevelyn Dube (Ms)

Doctoral Student: Stellenbosch University. 2

Select the appropriate option to indicate your response. Where a space has been provided fill in your answer.

1. Sex Select Gender

2. Race Select Race

3. Age Select Age Group

4. Name of your institution:

5. Title of your degree programme

6. Please indicate your grade / symbol in the Matric English Examination [Or equivalent]

7. Indicate by selecting the appropriate option, whether you Strongly Agree; Agree; Disagree; or Strongly Disagree.

The department trains us to do the following:		Indicate your response by selecting the appropriate option
a..	Write for online publications.	Select Option
b.	Write for tabloids.	Select Option
c.	Write for television	Select Option
d.	Write for radio	Select Option
e.	Write for newspapers	Select Option
f.	To take still photos	Select Option
g.	To film and edit programmes for television	Select Option
h.	Use social networks such as facebook and twitter to gather information	Select Option
i.	Set up our own blogs	Select Option
j.	Use the internet to gather information.	Select Option
k.	Report on health related issues such as HIV/AIDS	Select Option
l.	Report on gender-related issues.	Select Option
m.	Report on immigrants and foreigners	Select Option
n.	Report on race / ethnicity related issues.	Select Option
o.	Report on developmental issues.	Select Option
p.	Report on poverty.	Select Option
q.	Report on political issues	Select Option
r.	Report in indigenous languages of South Africa.	Select Option
s.	Report on educational issues.	Select Option
t.	Report on environmental issues	Select Option
u.	Report on land-related matters	Select Option
v.	Report on crime	Select Option
w.	Report on sports	Select Option
x.	Report on business and financial issues	Select Option
y.	Report on entertainment	Select Option
z.	Report on technology	Select Option

8. For each of the statements below indicate by selecting the appropriate option, whether you are Completely Satisfied; Satisfied; Dissatisfied; or Completely Dissatisfied.

How would you rate the teaching of the following aspects in your degree programme		Indicate your level of satisfaction by selecting the appropriate option
a.	Collecting news from various sources.	Select Option
b.	Writing skills [Organising story, accuracy, balance, editing]	Select Option
c.	Reading skills	Select Option
d.	Language and grammar [sentence construction, punctuation, verbs etc]	Select Option
e.	Communication skills	Select Option
f.	Presentation skills.	Select Option
g.	Critical thinking skills	Select Option
h.	Public relations	Select Option
i.	Leadership and management skills	Select Option
j.	Interpersonal relations	Select Option
k.	Work ethics and professionalism	Select Option

9. Select the appropriate option to show your level of agreement with the following statements.

Select the appropriate option to show your level of agreement with the following statements.		
a.	We do internships within mainstream media organisations.	Select Option
b.	We do internships in Community media organisations.	Select Option
c.	We have a campus magazine / newspaper in which every journalism student participates.	Select Option
d.	The degree programme is biased towards theory.	Select Option
e.	The degree programme is biased towards practical skills.	Select Option
f.	The programme integrates and balances theory and practice in a complementary manner.	Select Option
g.	There is a strong emphasis on research skills.	Select Option
h.	Students are encouraged to take electives in other schools and departments in the university.	Select Option
i.	Students are encouraged to learn indigenous languages.	Select Option
j.	The department has up-to- date technology to train students.	Select Option
k.	Most prescribed textbooks are written by North American and European scholars.	Select Option
l.	Most textbooks are written by African scholars.	Select Option
m.	Most textbooks are written by South African scholars.	Select Option

10. Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by selecting the appropriate option

The programme emphasises the following:		Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by selecting the appropriate option
a.	That journalists should support government authority and development endeavours uncritically.	Select Option
b.	That journalists should put the welfare of their society ahead of their interests	Select Option
c.	That press freedom should be subordinated to developmental needs of society.	Select Option
d.	That government has a right to control the flow of information to and from its country.	Select Option
e.	That the media should be patriotic	Select Option
f.	That individual rights of expression and other civil liberties in developing countries such as South Africa are irrelevant in the face of national interests.	Select Option
g.	That journalists should put needs of the community ahead of those of the individual.	Select Option
h.	That we should promote human welfare and dignity.	Select Option
i.	That we should write articles that would promote debate in society	Select Option
j.	That the media's role in society is to be a watch dog on behalf of the public	Select Option
k.	That the absolute freedom of the media be upheld at all times	Select Option
l.	That the public's right to know supercedes every other consideration	Select Option
m.	That the media should be independent of external influence	Select Option
n.	That the media be a free marketplace of ideas.	Select Option
o.	Programme emphasises importance of media providing a diversity of ideas.	Select Option
p.	That the media should reflect the wishes of the people.	Select Option
q.	That the media be accountable to the people.	Select Option

Addendum 2.5: Informed consent form



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STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

THE CHALLENGES FOR JOURNALISM EDUCATION IN A TRANSFORMING SOCIETY: A CASE STUDY OF THREE SELECTED INSTITUTIONS IN POST-1994 SOUTH AFRICA

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by BEVELYN DUBE from the **Journalism Department at Stellenbosch University**. As part of my DPhil research, the results will contribute to my thesis. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are or have been involved with and/or are knowledgeable about some aspects of the topic / subject. **Before answering the attached questionnaire, you must please read this informed consent form as it contains important information to help you decide whether or not to participate in this study. You are encouraged to ask as many questions as possible in order to be sure you understand the study procedures.**

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to examine journalism curricula of 3 selected journalism schools in South Africa, with a view to ascertaining whether these curricula are suited to addressing the challenges faced by journalism education and profession in the 21st century.

PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, I would ask you to do the following things:

Complete an electronic questionnaire that will be emailed to you;
Read the instructions of how to complete the questionnaire, which will be written at the beginning of the questionnaire;
Answer as honestly as possible;
As soon as you have completed the questionnaire, email it back as soon as possible to the sender or any other addresses indicated on the questionnaire; and
Remember to press the FORWARD button not the REPLY button as this would lead to your losing all your valuable responses.

It should take you approximately 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

None

POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

You will not benefit from the study directly, but it is hoped that the recommendations of the study will improve the way journalism is taught in tertiary institutions. The study will add to scholarship as no such study has been done in South Africa. It is vital for journalism education in South Africa as the study seeks to develop a journalism education model that addresses the reality of a democratic and transforming South Africa. The study will also enrich debates on the subject of how to teach journalism in an African context, in general and South Africa, in particular.

PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

You will not receive payment for your participation in the study.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of:

Using codes to identify the participants. Individual identifiers such as names of participants, their addresses and ID numbers would not be disclosed. Instead each subject will be assigned a number for identification purposes. This means that each returned questionnaire will be assigned a number.

The data will be kept in computerized files which will be assigned security codes only known by the Principal Investigator.

The information will be released to my Supervisor, Professor L. Rabe and other relevant scholars such as external examiners. The information will be released to the former for purposes of supervision of the study and to the latter, for examining the completed study.

The researcher intends to publish parts of the study in future. Individual identifiers such as names, addresses and ID numbers will not be disclosed.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact Principal Investigator, Ms. B. Dube, University of Venda, School of Human and Social Sciences, Department of Communication and Applied Language Studies, P.B. X5050, Thohoyandou, 0950 (Phone: 015 962 8420; email: Bevelyn.dube@univen.ac.za). You can also contact the Supervisor, Professor L. Rabe, Department of Journalism, University of Stellenbosch, P. B. X1, Matieland, Stellenbosch, 7602. (Phone: 021 808 3488; email: lrabe@sun.ac.za).

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

CONSENT OF RESEARCH SUBJECT

The information above was described to me by **Ms. Bevelyn Dube** in English and I am in command of this language. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in the study. I have been given a copy of this form.

If you agree to voluntarily participate in this study as described above, please indicate your agreement by placing a tick in the box provided below.

I agree to participate in this study	<input type="checkbox"/>
I do not agree to participate in this study	<input type="checkbox"/>

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to _____
_____. He/she was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions.
This conversation was conducted in English and no translator was used.

Signature of Investigator

Date

Addendum 2.6: Letters of permission from chairpersons of the School/Departments



School of Journalism & Media Studies

Rhodes University, South Africa

7 July 2010

To whom it may concern

This is to confirm that I have had discussions with Beveleyn Dube, a student at your institution, concerning her DPhil research. I have given her permission to approach the Postgraduate Diploma students in my department with regard to interviewing them on her thesis topic: "The Challenges for Journalism Education in a Transforming Society: a Case Study of Three Selected Institutions in post-1994 South Africa". Obviously the permission of the interviewees will also be sought by Ms Dube.

Your sincerely

Professor Larry Strelitz
HoD and
Deputy-Dean, Faculty of Humanities
l.strelitz@ru.ac.za



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12 July 2010

To whom it may concern

Ms B Dube, student number, 12479381, is currently a registered PhD student in our department. For her data collection, she needs to interview current BPhil students. We support her application to interview these students.

If you need more information, please do not hesitate to contact me.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'L Rabe'. The signature is written in a cursive style with a large initial 'L'.

L Rabe
Chair: Journalism



**Tshwane University
of Technology**

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Research Ethics Committee

February 28, 2011

Ref#: REC: Sub-Committee/2011/02/Q003
Name: Dube B
Student #: Stellenbosch University

Ms B Dube
University of Venda
School of Human and Social Sciences
Department of Communication and Applied Language Studies
P O Box X5050
Thohoyandou 0950

Dear Ms Dube

Name: Ms Bevelyn Dube

Project title: The Challenges for Journalism Education in a transforming society: a case study of three selected institutions in post-1994 South Africa

Qualification: Doctoral student, Stellenbosch University

The application for ethical consideration of the abovementioned project bears reference.

The review panel wishes to table the following comments/notes for your consideration/attention/notification:

- Addendum B, Item 2. Take note of the TUT Ethics guidelines on the use of race as a research variable (see attached document).
- A copy of the final thesis should be provided to the TUT Department of Journalism (Faculty of Humanities) for notification and implementation of the research findings.

The application for permission to distribute a questionnaire for the abovementioned project is **approved**.

Note:

The reference number [top right corner of this communiqué] should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication [e.g. Webmail, E-mail messages, letters] with the intended research participants.

Yours sincerely,

WA HOFFMANN (Dr)
Chairperson: Research Ethics Committee
[RECREf#2011=02=Q003=DubeB]
cc. Prof L Rabe – Stellenbosch University

Addendum 2.7: Pilot questionnaire for programme coordinators

Structured interview questions for programme co-ordinators

Dear Participant

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this **pilot study** which seeks to investigate challenges for journalism education in a transforming South Africa. The purpose of this study is to examine the approaches and theoretical underpinnings informing journalism education in selected tertiary institutions in South Africa, with a view to determining whether these adequately address the challenges of transformation. The information is for a doctoral study only. Your responses will be treated confidentially. Your participation in the study is voluntary, meaning you can withdraw from the study any time you so desire. Please answer as honestly as you can. **SINCE THIS IS A PILOT STUDY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE, I WILL BE GRATEFUL FOR YOUR COMMENTS ON THE LENGTH, STRUCTURE, WORDING OR ANY OTHER OBSERVATIONS YOU MAKE ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE**

Please note that for the convenience of the participants, I used a structured questionnaire to gather data. I would, however, be grateful if you could allow me to contact you to clarify any of your responses which need clarification.

Please complete the questionnaire and return it to me together with your comments by 30 September 2010. An alternative email address to which you can send the questionnaire is: bevndu@yahoo.com

Once again, thank you for your valuable contribution

Sincerely yours

Bevelyn Dube (Ms)
Doctoral student: Stellenbosch University

Please answer the questions in the spaces provided

1. Transformation has been a key word in South Africa since 1994. In what way has the journalism curriculum in your department transformed since then?
2. In your view, what still needs to be done to transform the programmes in your department?
3. What challenges do you face as a department in your attempts to transform your programmes?
4. How does the process of enrolment of students take into cognisance the issues of social and political transformation in the country?
5. What major challenges do you face in the enrolment of students into your school?
6. How would you describe the language and grammar of students in your programme?
7. Do you teach language and grammar to your students?
8. What is your opinion on the suggestion that journalism programmes in Africa / South Africa should be Africanised?
9. Do you think it is possible for journalism schools in Africa to follow the same journalism syllabus?
10. Suggestions have been made by some scholars that South African journalism schools should embed their programmes within an Afro-humanist / *Ubuntu* philosophy. What is your view on that?
11. There is a school of thought which argues that African journalists should be informed by the developmental model in their reporting. Would you say your department promotes this model in its teaching of journalists?
12. Multi-skilling is the way journalism profession is going. How does your department prepare students to operate across platforms?
13. Do you think journalism education should focus more on basic skills such as writing, editing and accuracy when training journalists? Give reasons for your answer.
14. Does your programme teach students life skills? Which ones?
15. What kind of journalists does your department aim to produce?
16. Would you say the media industry influences your curriculum? If so how?
17. Do you teach your students to report in specialist fields such as economics, politics, science and technology, health to mention but a few?

18. If so, which specialist fields are they trained to report on?
19. Do you teach your students to report in indigenous languages of South Africa? If so, which ones?
20. Are your students encouraged to do electives in the liberal arts? If so which ones?
21. What role should be played by journalists in present day South Africa?
22. What challenges does your department face in preparing journalists to play this role?
23. What is your opinion about the view held by some scholars that South African journalism schools are biased towards libertarian models?
24. Suggestions have been made by some scholars that South African journalism schools should embed their programmes within an Afro-humanist/ubuntu journalist model. What is your view on that?
25. Transformation has been a key word in South Africa since 1994. In what way has the journalism curriculum transformed in your institution since then?
26. In your view what still needs to be done to transform the programmes in your school?
27. What challenges do you face as an institution in your attempts to transform?
28. In your view, is there any need to change the current philosophical underpinnings informing your programme?
29. How would you describe the relationship between your school and the media industry?
30. To what extent would you say the media industry influences the theoretical ethos and approaches that you have chosen to pursue in your school?

Addendum 2.8: Pilot questionnaire for students

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

Dear Participant

Thank you for agreeing to participate in a **pilot research study** investigating the challenges for journalism education in a transforming South Africa. The purpose of this study is to examine the approaches and theoretical underpinnings informing journalism education in selected tertiary institutions in South Africa, with a view to determining whether these adequately address the challenges of transformation. The information is for a Doctoral study only. Your responses will be treated confidentially. Your participation is voluntary, meaning that you can withdraw from the study anytime you so desire. There are no wrong or right answers, **but please answer as honestly as you can. Since this is a pilot study of the questionnaire, I will, therefore, be grateful for your comments on the length, structure, wording or any other observations you make on the questionnaire. Space has been provided at the end of the questionnaire for you to make your comments.** Please complete the attached questionnaire and return it to me together with your comments by 28 February 2010. Email addresses to which you can send the questionnaire are:

bevelyn.dube@univen.ac.za

bevndu@yahoo.com

Once again, thank you for your valuable contribution to this study.

Yours sincerely

Bevelyn Dube (Ms)

Doctoral Student: Stellenbosch University.

Select the appropriate option to indicate your response. Where a space has been provided fill in your answer.

1. Sex Select Gender
2. Race Select Race
3. Age Select Age Group
4. Home language spoken
5. Name of your institution:
6. Title of your degree programme
7. Please indicate your study level by selecting the appropriate option
Select Study Level
8. How were you admitted to the programme?
Select Admission Type
9. Please indicate your grade / symbol in the Matric English Examination
- i. English as First Language
- Or
- ii. English as Second Language
10. Was journalism your first choice of degree?

11. Indicate by selecting the appropriate option, whether you Strongly Agree; Agree; Not Sure; Disagree; or Strongly Disagree.

The department trains us to do the following:		Indicate your response by selecting the appropriate option
a..	Write for online publications.	Select Option
b.	Write for tabloids.	Select Option
c.	Write for television	Select Option
d.	Write for radio	Select Option
e.	Write for newspapers	Select Option
f.	To take still photos	Select Option
g.	To film and edit programmes for television	Select Option
h.	Use the internet to gather information.	Select Option
i.	Report on health related issues such as HIV/AIDS	Select Option
j.	Report on gender-related issues.	Select Option
k.	Report on immigrants and foreigners	Select Option
l.	Report on race / ethnicity related issues.	Select Option
m.	Report on developmental issues.	Select Option
n.	Report on poverty.	Select Option
o.	Report on political issues	Select Option

p.	Report in indigenous languages of South Africa.	Select Option
q.	Report on educational issues.	Select Option
r.	Report on environmental issues	Select Option
s.	Report on land-related matters	Select Option
t.	Report on crime	Select Option
u.	Report on sports	Select Option
v.	Report on business and financial issues	Select Option
w.	Report on entertainment	Select Option
x.	Report on technology	Select Option

12. For each of the statements below indicate by selecting the appropriate option, whether you are Completely Satisfied; Satisfied; Not Sure; Dissatisfied; or Completely Dissatisfied.

How would you rate the teaching of the following aspects in your degree programme		Indicate your level of satisfaction by selecting the appropriate option
a.	Collecting news from various sources.	Select Option
b.	Writing skills	Select Option
c.	Reading skills	Select Option
d.	Language skills	Select Option
e.	Presentation skills.	Select Option
f.	Critical thinking skills	Select Option
g.	Public relations	Select Option
h.	Leadership and management skills	Select Option
i.	Interpersonal relations	Select Option
j.	How media organisations operate	Select Option
k.	Role of the media in a democracy	Select Option
l.	How journalists can contribute to South Africa's transformation.	Select Option
m.	How global media markets operate.	Select Option
n.	How local media markets relate to global media.	Select Option
o.	The public service role of the media.	Select Option
p.	The values of Ubuntu / African-humanism	Select Option

13. For each of the statements below, indicate whether you are very good; good; satisfactory; poor; or very poor.

How would you describe your knowledge in the following fields / areas?		Select your level of satisfaction
a.	Finance and financial accounting	Select Option
b.	.Science and technology	Select Option
c.	Mathematics	Select Option
d.	Literature	Select Option
e.	International Relations	Select Option
f.	South African history	Select Option
g.	African history	Select Option
h.	World history	Select Option
i.	Economics	Select Option

14. Does your journalism programme advise you to do the following electives? Indicate your response by selecting the appropriate option.

Possible subjects on offer in the programme.		Select appropriate option as your response.
a.	African philosophy	Select Option
b.	History	Select Option
c.	Literature	Select Option
d.	Economics	Select Option
e.	International relations	Select Option
f.	Natural and environmental sciences	Select Option
g.	Financial accounting	Select Option
h.	Science and technology	Select Option
i.	Science	Select Option

15. Indicate by selecting the appropriate option, whether you Strongly Agree; Agree; Not Sure; Disagree; or Strongly Disagree with the following statements:

Possible approaches used to teach journalism students		Select the appropriate option to show your level of agreement with the following statements.
a.	We do internships within mainstream media organisations.	Select Option
b.	We do internships in Community media organisations.	Select Option
c.	We have a campus magazine / newspaper in which every journalism student participates.	Select Option
d.	The degree programme is biased towards theory.	Select Option
e.	The degree programme is biased towards practical skills.	Select Option
f.	The programme integrates and balances theory and practice in a complementary manner.	Select Option
g.	There is a strong emphasis on research skills.	Select Option
h.	Students are encouraged to take electives in other schools and departments in the university.	Select Option
i.	Students are encouraged to learn indigenous languages.	Select Option
j.	The department has up-to- date technology to train students.	Select Option
k.	Most prescribed textbooks are written by North American and European scholars.	Select Option
l.	Most textbooks are written by African scholars.	Select Option
m.	Most textbooks are written by South African scholars.	Select Option

16. Indicate by selecting the appropriate option, whether you Strongly Agree; Agree; Not Sure; Disagree; or Strongly Disagree.

The programme teaches you to be the kind of reporter who:		Indicate your response by selecting the appropriate option
a.	Is patriotic and puts government's developmental plans ahead of everything	Select Option
b.	Respects authority of the state	Select Option
c.	Celebrates the diversity of South African society	Select Option
d.	Tells stories that aim to eradicate poverty	Select Option
f.	Puts the welfare of society ahead of his/her interests	Select Option
g.	Considers himself / herself, first and foremost a member of society	Select Option
h.	Will not tell a story if it threatens the well being of society	Select Option
i.	Will tell a story regardless of other considerations	Select Option
h.	Believes in absolute freedom of speech for the media	Select Option
j.	Closely monitors what the state does so as to report to the public	Select Option

17. Indicate by selecting the appropriate option, whether you Strongly Agree; Agree; Not Sure; Disagree; or Strongly Disagree with the following statements:

Possible theoretical Underpinnings of the programme		Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by selecting the appropriate option
a.	There is bias towards preparing us to be fit to work in the competitive media industry.	Select Option
b.	Programme emphasises importance of supporting government development endeavours uncritically.	Select Option
c.	Programme emphasises importance of media supporting government authority and not challenging it.	Select Option
d.	Programme teaches that press freedom should be subordinated to developmental needs of society.	Select Option
e.	Programme emphasises the importance of each government's right to control the flow of information to and from its country.	Select Option
f.	Programme emphasises the need for the media to be patriotic	Select Option
g.	We are taught that individual	Select Option

	rights of expression and other civil liberties are irrelevant in the face of national interests.	
h.	We are taught that journalists should put needs of community ahead of their own interests.	Select Option
i.	We are taught to promote human welfare and dignity.	Select Option
j.	Programme teaches us that we should write articles that would promote debate in society	Select Option
k.	Programme puts emphasis on the media being a watch dog of the state.	Select Option
l.	Programme upholds the absolute freedom of the media	Select Option
m.	Public's right to know supercedes every other consideration	Select Option
n..	Programme emphasises that media should be independent of external influence	Select Option
o.	Programme emphasises importance of media being a free marketplace of ideas.	Select Option
p.	Programme emphasises importance of media providing a diversity of ideas.	Select Option
q..	Programme emphasises need for media to reflect the wishes of the people.	Select Option
r.	Programme emphasises need for media to be accountable to the people.	Select Option

Please provide your answers in the spaces provided below

18. What challenges do you face when doing this degree programme?

- a)
- b)
- c)
- d)

19. Suggest possible solutions for each of these challenges

- a)
- b)
- c)

d)

e)

20. What would you say are the major strengths of your programme?

a) b) c)

21. If given an opportunity to review your programme, what would you change? Why?

Respondent's comments on the questionnaire

- i. Point out any ambiguities
- ii. Point out difficulties
- iii. Time taken to complete questionnaire
- iv. Any other observations or comments