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EUGEN BAER

COMMUNICATION MODELS. *See* MODELS OF COMMUNICATION.

COMMUNICATIONS, STUDY OF

The study of communications focuses on a process fundamental to the development of humans and human society—interaction through messages. By means of communication we share ideas and information, live in infinitely varied cultures, and extend knowledge and imagination far beyond the scope of personal experience. It is not surprising, therefore, that the study of communications in one form or another has long been of deep human concern. Philosophy, RHETORIC, POETICS, HOMILETICS, LINGUISTICS, SEMANTICS, and SEMIOTICS are just a few of the branches of learning that have dealt with aspects of communication.

However, organized academic programs in communications are relatively recent. The impetus for their establishment came from the growth of the mass media and other new communication technologies, which made possible the rapid mass production and distribution of messages and images. Thus, although lectures on journalism were being given at Leipzig University in 1672 and a doctoral dissertation on the press was presented there in 1690, such developments were few and far between, and the impact of communication studies was not widely felt until the twentieth century.

Modern media-oriented studies began with practical training in journalism, film, RADIO, SPEECH, television (*see* TELEVISION HISTORY), ADVERTISING, PUBLIC RELATIONS, and similar activities. These studies are often conducted as apprentice training by the media themselves or in connection with professional and trade organizations, unions, and government agencies. Communication or communications (often in combination with related terms, for example, speech communication or journalism and communication) is an area of scholarship and research whose purpose is to contribute to the critical understanding of interpersonal and social communication and its policies as well as to the practical skills of media production.

The broadening of communication studies from skills training to research and analytical and critical inquiry was a result of changes in social, artistic, and technological conditions. Early print had been a monopoly of literate elites, but cheap newspapers became a mass medium (*see* NEWSPAPER: HISTORY). Film and radio bypassed the need for LITERACY. Television completed the transition of modern media from "class" to "mass." It also created the first media environment to pervade the home and fill the LEISURE hours of millions of people of all ages. New media also gave rise to new forms and styles of expression, socialization, and governance, challenging traditional modes of social analysis and cultural study.

The availability of relatively cheap (and cheaply printed) stories and pictures (including COMICS) in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries added fuel to the ancient debate about new modes of communication debasing the old and corrupting the impressionable and vulnerable. Each new MODE or medium also stimulated research, as well as controversy, about the consequences for CHILDREN, the "lower classes," and CULTURE in general. The results of research enriched the scholarly basis of the new discipline and hastened its emergence. *See also* COMMUNICATIONS RESEARCH: ORIGINS AND DEVELOPMENT.

In several European countries cinema studies began in the 1920s to address more specialized literary and artistic issues raised by the new medium. A tradition of media scholarship and criticism was initiated in independent centers only loosely connected, if at all, with academic institutions. This tradition of media studies eventually led to two distinct developments: the semiotic (or semiology) approach to analysis, especially in France and Italy, and the movements in screen EDUCATION and media studies in the United Kingdom and other countries.

In the United States the study of communications gained a relatively early entry into colleges and universities mostly as a "practical," vocationally oriented course. However, in an academic environment it was forced to broaden its scope. Students of media had to take courses in philosophy, history, politics, and other liberal arts subjects. With the acceptance of communications in the academy and the development of graduate programs of research and analysis came a growing acceptance of the concept of communication as the core of a distinct academic discipline able to contribute to knowledge about human development, society, government, and the arts.

United States

The spread of communication studies in the United States reflects the prominence of communication media in the everyday life of its citizens. In the late 1980s more than six hundred U.S. colleges and universities (about 20 percent) had formal programs

(schools, departments, or other units) in communication media studies, employing more than seventeen hundred full-time faculty members. These programs included journalistic, artistic, and scientific approaches to the study of practice and policy in press, film, radio, television, advertising, public relations, speech, and telecommunications (the study of new communication technologies).

More than six out of every ten of these academic units grant bachelor's degrees, two out of every ten have graduate programs leading to the master's degree, and about 4 percent confer the Ph.D. The University of Iowa approved the first doctoral programs in 1945. Within ten years communications doctoral programs existed at the Universities of Illinois, Wisconsin, and Southern California, and Stanford University. By the late 1980s there were twenty-four doctoral programs in communications and related studies. More than five thousand students pursue graduate studies in communication fields, and about fifteen hundred graduate degrees in these fields are awarded each year by U.S. universities.

From journalism to communication scholarship. Germany was the first country to offer the study of journalism in its universities. The United States, however, pioneered in the nineteenth- and twentieth-century development of academic journalism.

In 1869 Robert E. Lee, hero of the Confederacy, who became president of Washington University (later renamed Washington and Lee in his honor), supported a university program for training journalists, which he called "journalism and printing," that was meant to aid in the rebuilding of the South. Editors disagreed about the appropriateness of the idea. Henry Watterson of the Louisville *Courier-Journal* declared firmly, "There is but one school of journalism and that is a well-conducted newspaper office." E. L. Godkin of *The Nation* and HORACE GREELEY of the New York *Tribune* lined up with Watterson. JOSEPH PULITZER of the New York *World* and Whitelaw Reid of the *Tribune* were on Lee's side. The program was not a great success and was disbanded before the end of the century.

The University of Missouri gave a course in the history and materials of journalism as early as 1878. The Wharton School of Business at the University of Pennsylvania offered a business journalism major from 1893 to 1901, under Joseph French Johnson, who had been financial editor of the *Chicago Tribune*. The first separate *school* of journalism was founded at Missouri in 1908, with longtime journalist Walter W. Williams as dean. The Pulitzer School at Columbia University, established in 1912 (later renamed the Columbia Graduate School of Journalism), was founded with an endowment from Pulitzer of about $2.5 million.

Developments came rapidly. In 1910 there had been only one school (Missouri) and four departments of journalism. In 1917, 84 institutions were offering work in journalism. In 1934 there were 455 such institutions and 812 teachers. By 1987 more than 300 institutions offered degree-granting programs in journalism or journalism and mass communications, and nearly twice as many conducted some work in these and related communication subjects.

The American Association of Teachers of Journalism (AATJ) was founded in 1912, with Willard G. Bleyer as its first president. Administrators of journalism programs founded the American Association of Schools and Departments of Journalism (AASDJ) in 1917. The development of a formal accrediting program resulted in the establishment of the American Council for Education in Journalism in 1939 and a rival group, the American Society of Journalism School Administrators, in 1944. To resolve the confusion and to place leadership in the hands of teachers, the Association for Education in Journalism (AEJ) was formed in 1950, and it added "and Mass Communication" to its name (becoming AEJMC) in 1982. Other organizational mergers and alliances gave the field a coherent professional and scholarly structure, and it grew in total membership from the founding group of eighteen to more than two thousand members and from 14 college and university departments to 173 in 1987.

By 1924 the new field had a scholarly journal, the *Journalism Bulletin,* which in 1930 was renamed the *Journalism Quarterly* and is still published. In the first five years typical articles in the *Bulletin* were "Proof Errors Analyzed" and "Comparing Notes on Courses," but beginning in 1930, when Frank Luther Mott became editor and the name changed from *Bulletin* to *Quarterly,* tougher standards were applied. In the first five years of Mott's editorship the number of articles on the teaching of journalism was halved from the preceding five years, and the number of articles on international communication and the foreign press tripled.

Other scholarly journals joined the *Journalism Quarterly* to serve the field, such as the *Film Quarterly, Journal of Broadcasting and Electronic Media, Journal of Communication,* and *Quarterly Journal of Speech,* to name only a few. An *Index to Journals in Communication Studies through 1985,* published by the Speech Communication Association, listed fifteen scholarly journals, and four more have been started since 1985. Organizations such as the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication, the International Communication Association, the Speech Communication Association, the Society for Cinema Studies, and the Broadcast

Education Association promoted scholarship as well as professionalism in the field. Clearly the academic face of journalism had changed.

Other changes took place as well. A few institutions began to call themselves schools of journalism and communication (or communications). Among these were some of the pacesetters, such as Wisconsin and Minnesota. Illinois combined journalism and several other departments into a school of communication, headed by a dean. By 1986 more than eighty-six thousand students were reported in 180 schools as majoring in journalism and mass communications.

The change in names had a dual significance. First, it signaled the broadening of the new field from newspaper journalism to all media and modes of communication. For example, when Stanford established a department of communication it included radio and film. Nonjournalism departments were affected also. At the University of Iowa the Department of Speech renamed itself the Department of Communication, but the school of journalism was left with its old nameplate, Journalism and Mass Communication.

A second and deeper effect of the name change was that a social science name—communication—replaced a vocational one. This change announced to the rest of the university that the practical study of journalism—like business and education—had joined academia and was looking at its problems and conducting its research with the same rigor that other social sciences insisted on.

Supporting the academic study of communications was the development of communications research as an academic specialty. Research until the 1960s concentrated on specific media and was sporadic and noncumulative. Its rapid consolidation was based on research undertaken during and immediately after World War II. The need to consolidate research findings and to plan further research led to the establishment of institutes for communications research, which were usually attached to schools or departments of communication. These attracted social scientists and research grants and made it easier for communications to claim disciplinary status among academic disciplines and to launch graduate programs leading to the Ph.D., a major scholarly recognition of such status. Communications doctoral programs trained researchers and scholars who prepared the way for the next advance: the introduction of communications as a fresh approach to the liberal arts, with subject matter necessary for all citizens in a media-dominated society. The doctoral programs became the chief training grounds for the critical and analytical approach to the new media environment. Their graduates were sought by many colleges and universities in order to expand old and to launch new undergraduate programs.

A significant opportunity for progress in the new direction came with the establishment of graduate programs not dependent on undergraduate media training and free to chart their own courses. The first such opportunity arose when Walter H. Annenberg, prominent publisher and U.S. Ambassador to the Court of St. James, founded The Annenberg School of Communications at the University of Pennsylvania in 1959. The newly assembled faculty of media scholars and social scientists designed an innovative graduate curriculum focusing on three areas of communication study: analysis of the codes and modes of structuring images and messages, research on the behavior of parties to the communication process, and the study of communication systems, institutions, and policies. The new concept and its productivity in scholarship and publications contributed to the trend toward making communication study an integral part of the academic organization of knowledge.

Speech communication. Parallels between the university development of communication studies in speech and journalism are striking, although, of course, the study of journalism accompanied the mass media, whereas the study of speech goes back at least as far as the Greek and Roman rhetoricians and the Elder Sophists.

The classical rhetoricians provided a foundation in the first century B.C.E., and rhetorical studies in the early European universities built on that base. Rhetoric was part of the first curriculum of Harvard University in 1636. Princeton University, the University of Pennsylvania, and the College of William and Mary all taught rhetoric in the eighteenth century. In those years it was usually a part of the Department of English.

In 1910 seventeen teachers of speech walked out of the annual meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English and formed their own association. By 1914 they had created a National Association of Academic Teachers of Public Speaking, which later became the Speech Communication Association (1968).

Film. Film as the medium of MOTION PICTURES attracted the interest of artists, critics, educators, businesspeople, and students from the time THOMAS ALVA EDISON's kinetoscope peepshows first became popular in New York in 1894. Soon films were being studied as the artistic expression of leading filmmakers, as vehicles of social protest, as instruments of revolutionary PROPAGANDA, as reflections of cultural tendencies, as instruments of education and information, and as historical documents.

European schools of filmmaking and film criticism

centered on such leading personalities as SERGEI EISENSTEIN and Aleksandr Dovzhenko (Russia), JEAN RENOIR and Jean-Luc Godard (France), F. W. Murnau and Rainer Werner Fassbinder (Germany), and Lucino Visconti and Michelangelo Antonioni (Italy). Training and study were for the most part conducted outside universities.

U.S. universities were somewhat more hospitable to film studies. The first known listing of a university course on motion pictures was one at Columbia University in the 1916–1917 academic year, initiated by Victor Oscar Freeburg but taken over by Frances Taylor Patterson when Freeburg left for war duty. Two pioneering textbooks emerged from this beginning: Freeburg's *The Art of Photoplay Making* (1918) and Patterson's *Cinema Craftsmanship: A Book for Photoplaywrights* (1920). The University of Southern California (in the shadow of the HOLLYWOOD film industry) first offered a course on the photoplay in 1929. By 1932 it had programmed a sequence of courses for a B.A. in film studies and by 1935 a sequence for an M.A. After World War II the growth in the number of courses dealing with motion pictures in U.S. colleges and universities was swift.

The first adoptions of film studies programs were in departments of education (in which film was studied as an audiovisual aid to TEACHING), speech, and DRAMA. Critical and empirical research approaches were represented by adoptions in departments of English, literature, and history and later in departments and schools of communication. From the beginning, filmmaking and production courses were very popular, as were courses on the history and AESTHETICS of the cinema and on the social and psychological aspects of films.

Radio and television. The first master's degree in broadcasting (which at that time was limited to radio) was offered by the University of Wisconsin in 1931. By the end of the 1950s eighty-nine universities and colleges offered bachelor's degrees in radio-television, forty-five offered master's degrees, and sixteen awarded doctorates.

By that time, of course, television had become the dominant audiovisual medium of modern times, attracting a nightly audience greater than the weekly attendance at movies when they were most popular, and more scholarly attention than either radio or films ever received. Craft and critical approaches to the three newest media tended to merge. Because of the importance of news and information to the broadcast media, graduates of schools and departments of journalism increasingly found employment with them. Researchers in radio and television found themselves studying parallel problems. Although cinema studies retained much of their AVANT-GARDE flavor and critical tendencies and continued as a separate line of scholarship (as indeed do all the subdisciplines of communications), the ferment in communication studies in the 1980s led to the absorption and integration into the new discipline of many of the insights derived from film scholarship. Thus although their differences are as apparent as ever, the audiovisual media are reaching the end of the century with their patterns of study more unified than ever before.

Advertising. More than half of the world's advertising expenditures are in the United States and Canada, and, not surprisingly, the majority of programs of professional training and study are in North America as well. There was, however, little activity in advertising education before 1900 despite the long history of advertising itself. The advent of printed media (*see* PRINTING) in the seventeenth century greatly stimulated the use of advertising, and, in turn, advertising became the business subsidy that supported commercial media in capitalist countries.

The first university course labeled "advertising" was one offered by New York University during the 1905–1906 school year. In 1908 both the University of Missouri and Northwestern University offered their first courses in advertising. The Northwestern course was taught by Walter Dill Scott, a psychologist who wrote the first well-known textbook in the field—*Psychology of Advertising*—and later became Northwestern's president. The first major in advertising was offered at the University of Missouri around 1913. By 1930 more than thirty colleges and universities listed at least one course in advertising in their catalogs.

Advertising education, like all communication study, grew from varied roots: the interest of the advertising community in training, of psychologists and other social scientists in the effects of PERSUASION, of business organizations and schools of business in marketing, of new schools of journalism and communication in the economic mainsprings of commercial media, and of historians and social scientists in exploring advertising's influence on society and on individual lives.

In the United States an estimated five hundred institutions of higher learning offer some courses in advertising. Forty or more institutions have major programs in advertising. Among the students in schools of journalism and/or journalism and communication who have declared majors, about 18 percent chose advertising compared to about 30 percent who chose editorial journalism. Among graduates, about 8 percent go into advertising, 10 percent into public relations, and 14 percent into broadcasting; 12 percent work for daily newspapers, and some 10 percent get other media-related jobs. Nearly half do not find (or seek) careers in these areas.

Canada

Canadian scholars such as HAROLD INNIS and MARSHALL MCLUHAN pioneered in the economic and cultural policy approaches to the study of communication, but early university education in the field followed the patterns established in the United States. Spurred by the demand for journalism education after World War II, three universities established journalism departments in Canada: Carleton University in Ottawa, the University of Western Ontario in London (Ontario), and Ryerson Institute of Technology (now Ryerson Polytechnical Institute) in Toronto. In 1965 Loyola College in Montreal started a course in mass communications, and soon many universities followed suit, including Windsor, Toronto, Saskatchewan, Simon Fraser, Concordia, McGill, Montreal, and Laval. The work and fame of McLuhan attracted students to the University of Toronto, which continues a McLuhan Centre for Culture and Technology.

By the late 1970s at least thirty universities and forty community colleges offered degree and diploma programs in communications or journalism. Graduate programs lead to a master's degree in communications at ten universities and to a diploma in journalism at three universities. Programs leading to a Ph.D. in communications were established at McGill and Simon Fraser universities and in a bilingual (French-English) program jointly conducted by the Université de Montréal, Université du Québec à Montréal, and Concordia University. The scholarly Canadian Communication Association was formed in 1980 and the Association de Recherche en Communication de Québec shortly thereafter.

Europe and the USSR

The study of communications in Europe tends to reflect the varied history and cultural context of its development. University lectures on press history were given in Germany as early as 1672. After World War I journalism training was promoted in England by the newspaper industry for former armed forces personnel. Practical and professional media studies developed rapidly in eastern Europe and the Soviet Union after World War II.

The Institute of Journalists, a trade organization, supported the establishment of the first graduate diploma course in journalism at London University in 1919. Not until 1970 was there another specialized professional program, the Centre for Journalism Studies at University College, Cardiff, a part of the University of Wales. A Chair of Film was set up at London University in 1967. By that time organized research programs in mass communication had been launched at the Universities of Leicester, Leeds, and Birmingham, and at the London School of Economics and Political Science. By the late 1980s at least twelve universities, including several important polytechnic institutions, were offering organized degree programs in various aspects of communications, and more technical courses were offered by press and broadcast industry training programs.

Although the roots of communication study in Germany are very old, continuous study of the field began around World War I. MAX WEBER's proposal for the sociological study of the role of the press in PUBLIC OPINION formation was turned down at a Congress of Sociology in 1912. Instead, the German Institute for the Study of the Press was established in Berlin by professional associations and major publishers. However, the practical journalism training offered in Berlin and a growing number of other centers was not considered an appropriate function for universities. Therefore, *Zeitungswissenschaft* ("press science") at Leipzig and other centers of learning was considered a major subject, legally recognized for the granting of university degrees, and was closely related to history, politics, economics, and law, rather than to the skills and techniques of journalism.

In the 1920s sixteen German universities were offering study programs in press science, and the example was noted and followed in a number of other European countries. Between the wars *Zeitungswissenschaft* began to seem less appropriate as a title because of the growing influence of radio, especially in Germany, where public opinion and propaganda, rather than press history and press law, were beginning to dominate thinking about the media. After World War II the term *Publizistik* (which might be translated as "public communication") had begun to replace *Zeitungswissenschaft* as a name for the academic field.

In other western European countries the structure of communication study showed similar signs of change. The Institut für Zeitungswissenschaft at the University of Vienna changed its name to the Institut für Publizistik and also changed its research emphasis from press history and law to mass communication in general and began to concentrate on empirical approaches. In France an Institute of Press Science was established before World War II. It closed during the war, and its successor was eventually superseded by the Institut Français de Presse (French Institute of the Press), which was founded in 1951 and which became attached to the Sorbonne in 1957. In 1966 it was granted the power to award diplomas and degrees. Two influential programs in practical journalism were begun after World War II by the University of Bordeaux and the University of Strasbourg. In Strasbourg the program was connected with an International Center for Advanced Training in Journalism, established in 1956 with UNESCO's help, and it offered refresher courses for teachers of jour-

nalism and practicing journalists as well as aspiring journalists from Europe, Africa, and the Middle East. The "cultural approach" (involving the development of STRUCTURALISM), also practiced at the University of Birmingham's Centre for Contemporary Cultural Studies, thrived in the 1960s and 1970s at the Centre d'Études de Communications de Masse (CECMAS) in the École Pratique des Hautes Études in Paris. Government attention to the new communication technologies stimulated new training and research programs in the 1980s.

By the 1970s every European country was offering practical training in journalism in addition to the more academically oriented courses. Prominent centers of communication studies included the Universities of Madrid, Barcelona, Bilbao, and Pamplona in Spain, Naples and Bologna in Italy, Amsterdam and Nijmegen in the Netherlands, and Oslo, Lund, Göteborg, Helsinki, and Tampere in the Scandinavian countries.

Cinema and broadcasting, as might be expected, were added to the subject matter of communication study somewhat later than the press. Further, practical training in the audiovisual media was less likely to be given by universities than by institutes or film and broadcasting studios. It is generally observed that the coming of television after World War II not only stimulated and broadened mass media studies in Europe but also boosted research on the social use and effects of mass communication in general (*see* MASS MEDIA EFFECTS). Similarly the new approach to film studies in the writings of Gilbert Cohen-Séat, especially his philosophy of the cinema described as "filmology" that combined the cultural-aesthetic and social-psychological approaches to the film and stimulated the establishment of the Institute for Filmology at the Sorbonne, sparked an interest in studies of social communication in general, especially in France, Italy, and Belgium. Thus by the 1970s mass media studies, practical and theoretical, were well known in western Europe.

In the USSR the study of communication started outside the universities and concentrated on journalism and other media training. Its direction was strongly influenced by V. I. Lenin's concept of the press as "collective organizer." There was thus a practical political as well as a scholarly reason for an early start to education in communication.

Journalism and film training were established in Moscow shortly after the October Revolution. The State Institute of Journalism was founded in Moscow in 1921, reorganized in 1923, and largely supplanted by the establishment of university units after World War II. The first university department of journalism was founded at the University of Leningrad in 1946 as a Section of Journalism in the Faculty of Philosophy. At the Lomonosov State University of Moscow a Section of Journalism was organized in the Faculty of Philology in 1947. Five years later it was transformed into a faculty (in U.S. university terminology, a school), the first such faculty in the country. It has grown tremendously since the early 1950s and continues to be the leading institution of journalism education in the country.

The three types of journalism education in the USSR all lead to a diploma: a full-time five-year course, evening classes for six years that meet three or four times a week, and correspondence courses with twice yearly individual examinations for practical journalists living outside Moscow or other major university centers.

The University of Moscow's Faculty of Journalism is divided into departments that include newspaper and MAGAZINE journalism, news agency journalism (*see* NEWS AGENCIES), radio and television journalism, and book PUBLISHING so that students can choose their specializations. Faculty members are divided among departments (called chairs) that include theory and practice of the Soviet press, foreign press and literature, history of Russian and Soviet journalism, sociology of the mass media, LITERARY CRITICISM, and stylistics of the Russian language. The general curriculum is a combination of liberal arts, Russian socioeconomic disciplines, and applied journalistic skills. Ten weeks of practice between summer and fall semesters at local newspapers, radio stations, and television stations is required of all students. (Specialization in radio and television journalism began in the mid-1960s and has been playing an increasingly important role in the system of journalism in the USSR.)

After the school of journalism was established at the University of Moscow, other universities throughout the country quickly followed suit. There are more than twenty schools and departments of media education in the USSR, in the capital cities of almost all the republics as well as in other major cities such as Leningrad, Sverdlovsk, Voronezh, and Vladivostok.

Moscow University's Faculty of Journalism has approximately twenty-five hundred students and about five hundred graduates each year. In the USSR as a whole the number of graduates is not much greater than six thousand, which falls far short of the country's needs. For this reason many journalists are drawn from other backgrounds and professions, such as teaching, economics, engineering, and writing, and they often draw on their specialized knowledge in their work as journalists. *See also* NEWSPAPER: TRENDS—TRENDS IN THE SOVIET PRESS.

The All-Union State Institute for Cinematography was established in Moscow in 1919 to give training in drama and CINEMATOGRAPHY, screenwriting, directing, producing, and cinema economics. Cinema

training is also offered by similar institutions in Minsk, Tbilisi, Tashkent, Kiev, and Leningrad. These institutions are not universities, but their diplomas have an equivalent status to the degrees of universities. Most of the academic units provide a full-time five-year education for future producers, camera operators, scriptwriters, actors, cinema critics, and cinema executives.

Czechoslovakia, the German Democratic Republic (DDR), Poland, and Yugoslavia began university-based journalism training after World War II. These universities combined practical training with academic teaching and research. One outstanding example is the journalism faculty of Karl Marx University in Leipzig in the DDR. The course aims at providing a basic orientation in journalism, followed by additional specialization in print media, radio, or television and a content area (foreign politics, political economy, cultural politics, etc.). Influential teaching and research institutions include the Press Research Center in Krakow and the film school in Lodz, Poland; the department of journalism and communication at the University of Ljubljana, Yugoslavia; and the Mass Communication Research Center of Hungarian Radio and Television, Budapest, Hungary.

Journalism studies in some of the socialist countries of eastern Europe were caught up in the political and ideological upheavals of the post–World War II era. An example is the history of such studies in Czechoslovakia.

University-level studies of journalism were introduced into the Higher School of Political and Social Science in Prague soon after the liberation of Czechoslovakia from Nazi occupation in 1945. The school was reorganized in 1950 and abolished in 1952. Although departments of "journalism and libraries" were organized in the philosophy faculties of both Charles University in Prague and Comenius University in Bratislava, the hybrid units did not last long. Problems with finding a satisfactory balance of practical, ideological, and scientific training at the universities led the Union of Journalists to organize its own independent Institute of Studies in Journalism in Prague in 1953 and one in Bratislava in 1955. In 1960 Charles University responded by launching its Institute of General Education and Journalism. That institute was reorganized as a faculty in 1965 and renamed in 1968 the Faculty of Social Sciences and Publicity to indicate its newly acquired social-scientific orientation. Some critics called the new unit "trendy" and lacking in critical rigor as well as practical applicability. In 1972 a new Faculty of Journalism was established at Charles University (and a similar faculty at Comenius University) and was charged with preparing "ideologically mature and politically conscious future specialists in different editorial boards." Their departments include propaganda, history of journalism, broadcast journalism, press agency journalism, and socialist advertising and publicity. The faculties select each year about forty candidates in Prague and twenty candidates in Bratislava and give them full scholarships, including family stipends. The Prague faculty also maintains an Institute of the Theory and Practice of Journalism to coordinate research in the field.

Australasia

The development of communication studies in Australia reflects the long dependence of Australian universities on British and U.S. imports and European trends. The fifteen degree-granting programs in communications and media studies, spread over eighteen universities and fifty colleges or advanced institutes, have little in common. In the older universities the field was still struggling for recognition in the late 1980s, and there were no chairs (full professorships) in it. Work was mostly print oriented and eclectic, with media policy studies likely to be located in departments of sociology or politics with the focus on special topics such as television VIOLENCE and children.

The number of colleges of advanced education and institutes of technology has increased since the 1960s. These schools were designed to offer more skills-oriented programs. In fact, however, they became staffed with two groups. One was following the U.S. speech communication model, usually under the titles of interpersonal, organizational, and business communication, and more recently such specialties as health communication. The other group was influenced by the British screen education movement and the Birmingham school of critical "cultural studies," and it focused on political economy, semiotics, feminism, and issues of language and power.

In New Zealand there are five general communications courses in polytechnics and one chair of telecommunications. Work in communications in both Australia and New Zealand is also carried on by individual scholars working in departments ranging from the social sciences and anthropology to economics, business, and law. Most courses are underfunded, and many applicants compete for relatively few places.

See also AUSTRALASIA, TWENTIETH CENTURY.

Asia

In Asia, as in most other parts of the world, much of the training for work in the mass media is given on the job. However, Asia has more institutes and academic units providing formal education for communications than any other region of the world except North America. A 1975 tabulation by the

Asian Mass Communication and Research Center (AMIC) listed 210, and most of the unofficial tabulations since that time have placed the total at 250 or more.

The growth of Asian institutions for communication study has been rapid, particularly since midcentury. For example, in the late 1930s there were fewer than twenty journalism courses in all of Asia; by the middle 1970s there were four times that many. Furthermore, the variety of communications training and research organizations in Asia is quite remarkable, particularly among the institutions designed to support communication for social change and planned development (*see* DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION).

Slightly more than half of these schools, departments, and institutes (around 140) follow what might be called the U.S. pattern; that is to say, like schools of communications or journalism in the United States, they are organized as part of a university or college, offer degrees at the baccalaureate or graduate level or both, and combine academic study or research with practical preparation for work in the media.

The first professional school in Asia is believed to be the one founded in 1932 at the Department of Journalism in the Faculty of Letters of Jochi (Sophia) University in Tokyo. The four-year undergraduate program prepares candidates for the journalistic profession, and the two-year graduate program trains researchers. The second Asian professional school of communication was a branch of the Far Eastern University, founded in 1934 in Manila, and was built around a four-year course leading to a B.A. in speech arts, THEATER arts, or mass communication. In 1935 the third communication institution in Asia—National Chengchi University—was founded in China "to offer academic preparation for careers in communication research and mass media practice." When the Nationalist Chinese moved to Taiwan, the university moved with them and set up its new home in Taipei in 1954. Indonesia, the Republic of Korea, and other states joined in, and by 1950 approximately twenty schools, departments, and institutes of various kinds in Asian countries offered specializations in communication study. That number had doubled by 1960 and is still increasing.

India—with more than twenty thousand journals (including more than fourteen hundred daily newspapers), written in sixteen principal languages and seventy-five other languages, and also large broadcasting and film industries—has the largest number of communication programs in Asia. Newspapers prefer to train their own journalists, but the central and state governments rely increasingly on university-educated communication specialists.

The first regular journalism department was established at Punjab University in 1941 with "a one-year course in journalism and related areas such as advertising, graphic arts, and public relations." First located in Lahore, the university moved to Delhi in 1947 at the time of India's independence and then to Chandigarh, the new capital of Punjab. Other early departments were founded at Madras in 1947, Calcutta in 1950, Mysore in 1951, Nagpur in 1952, and Osmania in 1954.

The government-supported Indian Institute of Mass Communication was set up as an advanced center for training and research in 1965. Of the thirty-seven other university courses and institutes that offer mass communication study programs, nine offer graduate work leading to a master's degree. The inaugural issue of the *Indian Journal of Communication* was published in 1986. Despite this impressive growth, several commissions have called attention to a shortage of resources for research and training to meet the needs of the vast subcontinent.

A major trend in Third World communication education, development journalism (the use of communications to support national development) received much of its initial impetus at the Philippine Press Institute in 1963. With the help of UNESCO and other United Nations (UN) organizations, development journalism is now being taught and implemented in many Third World countries.

Communication study in China began at the turn of the century with the translation of foreign books on journalism. The first formal journalism course was offered at Beijing University in 1918. The following year the first Chinese book on journalism appeared. Journalism education developed rapidly after that.

Journalism departments were established in the 1920s at six universities: Beijing, Yenching, Fudan, Jinan, and People's University in Beijing. After the setbacks of the turbulent 1930s and World War II, the People's Republic revived journalism study on the Soviet model. The Cultural Revolution again disrupted study until 1978. However, by the end of the next decade more than sixteen universities had journalism departments, some offering graduate work leading to the M.A. and Ph.D. degrees and employing nearly four hundred faculty members. The Beijing Broadcasting Institute also offered courses of study. National and provincial journalism research societies were established. Communication study in China broadened to include broadcasting and film training in several universities as well as in some independent institutes and to encompass the critical and empirical approaches to research on media content and effects.

Japan, which, as noted, established the first department of journalism in Asia at Sophia University in 1932, has for the most part chosen to found communication institutes and programs outside the university. However, in addition to the department at Sophia, the University of Tokyo has a well-known

and well-staffed Institute of Journalism that was founded in 1949 and has an impressive output of research. This institute offers both M.A. and Ph.D. degrees.

Keio University in Tokyo has a program in communication study, founded in 1946. Osaka University of the Arts has a faculty for training and research in broadcasting. But much of Japan's visibility in communication studies derives from production-related organizations, including the Japanese Broadcasting Corporation (NHK), which has training programs and also maintains research programs, including the Radio and Television Culture Research Institute; and the Japan Newspaper Publishers and Editors Association (NSK), which has its own research organization and cooperates with the Japanese press in training staff members.

One of the interesting developments in communication study within Asia is the appearance of strong and influential institutes, most of which are entirely outside universities and offer no academic degrees. For example, Asia has at least twelve film and/or television schools, including the large and elaborate Indian film and television institute at Poona. There are eight schools for the study of educational communication, either audiovisual or print. At least six schools specialize in the improvement of communication for economic and social development. One of the most impressive of these is India's National Institute of Community Development, at Hyderabad. This organization maintains a large research program, provides consulting services, serves as a clearinghouse of information concerning community development, and issues a large number of publications. A somewhat parallel program to the one just mentioned is the Development Support Communication Service, financed largely by UN agencies (UNDP, UNFPA, and UNICEF) and headquartered in Bangkok. The purposes of the organization are to design and produce, or help in the production of, communication materials intended to ensure the adoption of development innovations and to build up national capabilities to support total development programs. Like the Indian institute, it has a large research program and offers training and advisory services.

One distinctive pattern in Asian communication institutes and programs is joint founding by a national agency and an agency from outside the country. For example, the Thompson Foundation of Great Britain has worked with Xinhua, the international news agency of China, to operate a journalism training center in China. We have already mentioned AMIC (located in Singapore), which is jointly sponsored by the Singapore government and the Friedrich-Ebert Stiftung (foundation) of the Federal Republic of Germany. This serves as a regional information center for media and media-related programs in Asia, sponsors research, and organizes conferences and training activities.

Still another not entirely common use of communication institutes and programs in Asia has been to meet needs that governments or media organizations find hard to handle. For example, in Indonesia a communication group trained Department of Information personnel in information science skills. In Taiwan a department of journalism was asked to prepare students to become public relations officers in the armed services. A Philippine research institute provided research on the progress of the government's program for community development.

See also ASIA, TWENTIETH CENTURY.

Latin America

Latin America's remarkably early start in professional training for journalism is almost without precedent in the Third World. Brazil and Argentina had schools of journalism in the mid-1930s; Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Peru, and Venezuela established them in the 1940s. Twenty-five more schools were organized in the 1950s. By the end of the 1960s eighty-one schools of journalism were active in Latin America. One reason for this early start is that most South and Central American countries received their independence earlier than many other Third World countries. Another reason is the example provided by the U.S. model of school-based training rather than apprenticeship. And third, the schools have been popular because professional education represents a road to upward mobility.

The large number of schools and their relatively early beginnings represent disadvantages as well as advantages. Most schools are not well financed. Many of the teachers teach only part-time and are not well trained in the academic requirements of professional instruction. Many of the schools are poorly equipped, even regarding typewriters and books. Not much research is carried out in the typical journalism school, and the curriculum is usually so brief that little opportunity remains for a broad educational background.

Signs of change have appeared. For one thing, a federal decree passed in Brazil in 1969 required all new entrants into a number of journalistic occupations to have a baccalaureate degree from "an approved school of journalism." Second, there has been a lively wave of writing and discussion in Latin America about the New World Information Order (*see* NEW INTERNATIONAL INFORMATION ORDER) and its import for the mass media, a development that represents a broadening of interest in both the mass media and the education people will require. Third, the efforts of the Centro Internacional de Estudios

Superiores de Periodismo para América Latina (CIESPAL, International Center for Advanced Studies in Journalism in Latin America) have borne fruit.

CIESPAL is a regional center established with help from UNESCO to improve education in journalism and other media. Its primary target, therefore, has been teachers, rather than students, of communication. It has conducted high-level regional and national seminars and courses, many of them drawing foreign teachers and scholars. Through CIESPAL's influence new communication-oriented subjects previously unknown in Latin America, including the sociology of communication, the psychology of collective information, public opinion, and, especially, the scientific investigation of mass communication, have been introduced. CIESPAL also has helped to organize and accumulate in Latin America a collection of books and journals about communications and has distributed bibliographies and abstracts.

Also of great help in raising the quality of communication teaching and research have been agricultural organizations such as the Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas (IICA, Interamerican Institute of Agricultural Sciences), which, with assistance from U.S. universities with agriculture programs, have helped support the extension of Latin American rural development.

In Latin America, as in many other regions, the support of leading newspapers and other media organizations has been instrumental in initiating and maintaining the quality of communication study. The editors of two highly respected newspapers in Buenos Aires, *La prensa* and *La nación,* proposed as early as 1901 that a school of journalism be established in Argentina. Thirty-two years later journalists from *La prensa* helped organize such a program at the National University of La Plata. Courses were first offered in 1934, and the school began to function in 1935.

The first professorship of journalism in Brazil was established in the Faculty of Philosophy and Letters at the new Federal University of Rio de Janeiro. When this university was replaced by a new University of Brazil in 1943, the course in journalism was moved there. The first school for professional training in journalism was established at the Catholic University of São Paulo in 1947.

One of the most elaborate programs of media studies in Latin America is at the School of Communications and Arts at the University of São Paulo. All students in this school take an introductory semester of seven courses. Then there are two main teaching streams: "communications" (journalism, editing and publishing, publicity and propaganda, radio and television, library science and documentation) and "arts" (cinema, theater, music, and plastic arts).

Argentina, Brazil, and Mexico were the three Latin American countries to begin university training in journalism before World War II. The first school in Mexico was established at the Universidad Femenina (Women's University) de México in Mexico City. One of the most interesting programs is the one at the Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México (National Autonomous University of Mexico), which takes five years to complete and is described as "a career in information sciences." It covers both theoretical and technical aspects of journalism, public relations, publicity, radio, television, cinema and press agencies, the psychology of information, sociological aspects of mass communication, journalism history and ethics (*see* ETHICS, MEDIA), law in relation to journalism research techniques (including historical and social research, CONTENT ANALYSIS, and the use of documentary material), and some technical and administrative subjects.

See also LATIN AMERICA, TWENTIETH CENTURY.

Africa and the Middle East

Since the MIDDLE AGES traditional communication geared to the needs of religious leaders has been taught at the center of Islamic studies in Cairo's al-Azhar University. A modern course in journalism started at the American University in Cairo in 1937. A few years later Cairo University established an Institute of Journalism, which in 1975 became the Faculty of Mass Communication. Three provincial university communication departments followed. In Israel sophisticated mass communication research and training of a modern kind are in progress at the Communications Institute at Hebrew University in Jerusalem.

The first degree program for media professionals in South Africa was launched in 1960 in the University of Potchefstroom. Since then some dozen universities have started programs in various aspects of communication study, and the Human Sciences Research Council established an institute to support media studies.

The first institute of journalism in North Africa was established in Tunis in 1964 and was followed in 1967 by the Institut de Presse et des Sciences de l'Information (Institute of the Press and Information Sciences) of the University of Tunis. In 1964 Algeria started its Institut National Supérieur de Journalisme (National Institute of Journalism), which became the Institute of Political and Communication Sciences within the framework of the University of Algiers in 1976. The University of Baghdad established a Department of Journalism in the Faculty of Arts in 1964. It suspended its courses in 1971 but resumed them in 1974 as a Department of Communications.

The Omdurman Islamic University in Sudan started the Journalism and Information Department in 1965.

The Lebanese University in Beirut set up its Institute of Journalism in 1967, renamed it Faculty of Communications in 1971, and then transformed it into a Faculty of Mass Communications and Documentation in 1975. The American University at Beirut opened its Department of Communication in 1970. In Saudi Arabia the University of Riyadh started its Department of Communication in 1972. In Libya the Unis Campus of the University of Benghazi established its Department of Communication Studies in 1975. In 1976 a Department of Communication was opened at the King Abdul Azziz University in Jidda, Saudi Arabia. The Higher Institute of Islamic Communication was established by the Imam Mohamed Ibn Saud Islamic University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, in 1976 with branches in Mecca and Medina. Damascus University in Syria established a communication department in 1986.

That is one side of the diverse picture of communication study in Africa and the Middle East. What must be remembered is that the entire African continent had only four independent countries in 1950 but thirty-six by 1970. Consequently, many of these newly independent countries have experienced extraordinary pressures for modernization, as well as political, social, economic, and even linguistic changes, that have forced them to turn to new measures in order to bring about these changes more quickly.

Radio, of course, is the mass medium that seems ideal when literacy is low and the bulk of the population is rural. The number of radio transmitters in Africa increased from 151 to 330 between 1955 and 1964, and the number of radio receivers from 350,000 to 12 million. The colonial or former colonial powers stepped in to help train communication staffs to operate the broadcast equipment and prepare the programs. The United Kingdom set up a small British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) in each of its former colonies. France designated three places—Dakar, Brazzaville, and Paris—to broadcast regionally. The United Kingdom, France, and other countries provided "attachments," fellowships, and study grants to help talented prospects from the new countries travel abroad for study and practice. U.S. and Soviet universities provide many scholarships for African and other Third World students of communications. The Prague-based International Organization of Journalists (IOJ) maintains the International Institute for the Training of Journalists in Budapest.

The new countries set up study and practice centers of their own as soon as it was possible. Such a training center for East African countries was at Nairobi; another, for Francophone countries, was at Yaoundé, in Cameroon. The African countries found that they needed to study the uses of radio for development and to teach journalism and broadcasting skills as well. Zambia, for example, created an innovative program for a literacy campaign built around radio. Ghana's Institute of Journalism in Accra was begun by KWAME NKRUMAH in the late 1950s; it was succeeded by an Institute of Communication in the University of Ghana. Nigeria established an Institute of Mass Communications at the University of Lagos. Senegal was the first country in French-speaking Africa to organize university-level training for journalism and mass communication. The Centre d'Études des Sciences et Techniques de l'Information (CESTI) was founded in 1965 at the University of Dakar, but it closed in 1968 because of student unrest. It reopened in 1970 and made a cooperative agreement with the International Advanced School of Journalism at Yaoundé and the Center for Information Sciences at Antananarivo, Madagascar, for a common course of study. Senegal's three-year program leads to a diploma, equivalent to a university *license*, from the University of Dakar. The National University of Zaire, in Kinshasa, established in 1970 a Department of Social Communication within its Faculty of Economic and Social Sciences. This department's mission is to undertake teaching, research, and documentation and to provide training for cultural change and community development.

Despite these developments, a UNESCO-supported survey in 1987 found that 60 percent of the textbooks in journalism and communication were published in the United States and 20 percent in Great Britain and that there were few copies of any text to go around. In most classes the only TEXTBOOK belonged to the teacher, who distributed mimeographed handouts to students. Many of the basic needs of communication study are still not being met in most countries of Africa and the Third World. UNESCO's efforts to help meet these needs received little support from its wealthiest members. Hope for the future seemed to rest with the revival of international and regional cooperation and emphasis on cultural policy in the development effort. *See also* AFRICA, TWENTIETH CENTURY; ISLAMIC WORLD, TWENTIETH CENTURY.

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